

Introducing Global and Regional Mainstreamness for Improving Personalized Music Recommendation

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ABSTRACT

The *music mainstreamness* of a user reflects how strong a user's listening preferences correspond to those of the larger population. Considering that music mainstream may be defined from different perspectives and on various levels, e.g., geographical (charts of a country), genre ("Indie charts"), or distribution channel (radio charts vs. download charts), we study how the user's music mainstreamness influences the quality of music recommendations.

The paper's contribution is three-fold. First, we propose 11 novel mainstreamness measures characterizing music listeners, considering both a global and a country-specific basis. To this end, we model *preference profiles* (as a vector over artists) for users, countries, and globally, incorporating artist frequency, listener frequency, and a newly proposed TF-IDF-inspired weighting function, which we call artist frequency-inverse listener frequency (AF-ILF). The resulting preference profile for each user u is then related to the respective country-specific and global preference profile using fraction-based approaches, symmetrized Kullback-Leibler divergence, and Kendall's τ rank correlation, in order to quantify u 's mainstreamness. Second, we demonstrate country-specific peculiarities of these mainstreamness definitions. Third, we show that incorporating the proposed global and country-specific mainstreamness measures into the music recommendation process can notably improve accuracy of rating prediction.

CCS CONCEPTS

• **Information systems** → **Multimedia information systems; Personalization; Recommender systems; Personalization; Rank aggregation; Clustering and classification; Collaborative filtering; Social recommendation;** • **Social and professional topics** → **Cultural characteristics;** • **Applied computing** → **Sound and music computing;**

KEYWORDS

Music mainstreamness, music recommender systems, artist frequency-inverse listener frequency, popularity

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1 INTRODUCTION

In the era of digitalization, music has become easier to access than ever: a tremendous number of musical recordings are readily available to consume on online music platforms such as YouTube, Spotify, or iTunes. This opportunity to access a large number of musical works, though, results in information overload and users require novel mechanisms and strategies to choose from the "deep blue sea of musical works" [30]. Music recommender systems (MRS) have, thus, become a significant topic both in research as well as in industry, over the past few years [5, 8, 33].

In general, recommender systems are meant to assist users in searching, sorting, and filtering the vast amount of information available [22]. MRS are specifically built to assist users in navigating through the myriad of available musical recordings and provide them with suggestions (and/or automatically generated playlists) that would fit the respective user's interest [33]. Thereby, "[t]he success of a music recommender system (RS) depends on its ability to propose the right music, to the right user, at the right moment" [19].

Various automatic approaches to music recommendation have been proposed [35]. Thereby, most MRS rely mainly on collaborative filtering [20] or on information about music items (i.e., content-based filtering [4]) [35]. For instance, content-based MRS may consider acoustic similarity information on the song level [38], or genre or artist similarity [21]. MRS employing collaborative filtering do not require exogenous information about neither users nor music items. Instead, a user is suggested music listened to by users with similar preferences and/or listening patterns [25].

An approach that is particularly applicable in hit-driven domains such as the music industry is popularity-based recommendation. This approach assumes that a random user is more likely to like a very popular music item than one of the far less popular items [8, 34]. Popularity-based MRS approaches are widely adopted to complement other approaches in cold start situations, when there is limited information about new users and/or items available in the system [10, 39]. One approach for considering popularity in the music domain is to describe music listeners "in terms of the degree to which they prefer music items that are currently popular or rather ignore such trends" [29]. Harnessing music mainstreamness in combination with collaborative filtering techniques tends to deliver better results with respect to music recommendation accuracy and rating prediction error than pure collaborative filtering approaches alone [13, 32, 34, 37].

However, a limitation of existing work on quantifying a user’s music mainstreamness is that music mainstream is viewed from a global perspective. There exist regional peculiarities to mainstream, though, as music consumption behavior is affected by culturally influenced music preferences, market regulations, local radio airplay, etc. (e.g., [7, 16, 26, 36]). With respect to the music recommendation research domain, the definition of specific measures that can capture a user’s mainstreamness (i) on both, a global and a country-specific level, and (ii) in ways that can easily be operationalized in music recommendation is a new target of research.

Calling on this, the main contributions of this paper are threefold: (i) the definition of several novel measures for user mainstreamness, considering both a global and a regional, country-specific basis, (ii) illustrating country-specific peculiarities of these mainstreamness definitions, and (iii) analyzing the performance of the proposed mainstreamness measures for personalized music recommendation.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, we provide a brief overview over existing work on mainstreamness and popularity in music recommendation. We then detail our proposed mainstreamness measures in Section 3 and provide examples that show their value to distill the regional mainstream, in addition to a global one. Section 4 shows how to exploit the proposed mainstreamness measures in collaborative filtering recommendation and highlights the additional values of doing so. Eventually, we round off the paper in Section 5 with a conclusion and directions for future research.

2 CONCEPTUAL FOUNDATIONS AND RELATED WORK

2.1 Music Popularity and Mainstreamness

In the context of recommender systems, popularity-based approaches are widely adopted in numerous domains, including music [10, 18, 39], news [40], or product recommendation in e-commerce in general [1]. Popularity is thereby typically constructed as a general consensus of a group’s attitude about entities [18].

While various ways exist to define and measure popularity (for instance, in terms of sales figures, media coverage, etc.), in the field of MRS, music popularity is frequently characterized by using the total playcounts of a music item, cf. [8].

With respect to music popularity by using playcounts, the *long tail concept* as described in [2] is specifically applicable to the (online) music industry [9]; on online music platforms there is a concentration of playcounts on the most popular music items (the head) and then there is a long tail of less popular items [6, 8].

A more general concept to popularity concentration is referred to as *mainstream*. Although literature in the field of popular music studies and popular music cultures references to *mainstream* frequently, the term itself remains rather poorly defined, cf. e.g., [3]. According to the Oxford Dictionaries, *mainstream* is defined as “The ideas, attitudes, or activities that are shared by most people and regarded as normal or conventional”. Due to the strong connection of the concepts, the terms *mainstream* and *long tail* are often interchangeably used. The mainstream is thereby frequently also referred to with other terms and phrases (e.g., *hits* [8], *the head* [12]) to circumscribe the phenomenon; the overall concept is

also called, for instance, the hit-driven paradigm [8], the long-tail concept [2, 8], etc.

In MRS research, the user feature *music mainstreamness of a user* [13, 34] essentially describes whether and how strong a user’s music listening preferences correspond to those of the overall population. While other listening-centric features, for instance, serendipity [41] or novelty [11], are frequently exploited when modeling a user’s music consumption behavior and providing music recommendations, music mainstreamness is a rather new target of research [13, 34, 37]. Thereby, the mainstreamness feature is used to analyze a user’s ranking of music items and compare it with the overall ranking of artists, albums, or tracks [37].

2.2 Related Work on the Quantification of Music Mainstreamness

Formal definitions to measure the level of music mainstreamness of a user are scarce in literature (e.g., [32, 34, 37]). Most existing approaches quantify music mainstreamness as fractions of the target user’s playcounts among the playcounts of the overall population. A limitation of this approach is that it disproportionately privileges the absolute top hits [32], which is problematic in long-tail economies [2] such as the music economy, where there is a high concentration of demands on the most popular items and a long tail of less popular items. Privileging the top hits leads to lower performance when considering fraction-based user models of mainstreamness in collaborative filtering approaches [32].

To overcome this limitation, Schedl and Bauer [32] proposed measurement approaches based on *rank-order correlation* and *Kullback-Leibler (KL) divergence*. However, also their work shares with existing fraction-based approaches to quantify mainstreamness that music mainstream is viewed from a global perspective and does not take regional peculiarities of music mainstream into account.

2.3 Music Mainstreamness and Cultural Aspects

As human preferences and behavior are rooted and embodied in culture [17], also music preferences and music consumption behavior are affected by cultural aspects [14, 16, 36]. Not only cultural aspects, but also other regional (e.g., country-specific) mechanisms that affect music consumption (e.g., market regulations, access to music items, radio airplay), shape the regional mainstream.

Against this background, we focus on country-specific differences in the paper at hand.

Closest to our work is the study presented in [37], which analyzes the recommendation performance of mainstreamness (spelled “mainstreamness”) and a user’s country, among other features. Our work significantly differs from [37] in various regards: First, we use an open dataset to allow for replication. Second, [37] propose only one global mainstreamness measure that compares a user’s preferences to the overall dataset (global population), while we define mainstreamness in various ways (based on fractional, divergence, and rank correlation functions) and at various levels (global and country-specific). Third, we also propose a novel weighting approach based on “inverse listening frequency” that highlights artists popular in a specific country, thus, contributing to its mainstream, but not necessarily on a global level.

Artist	AF	Artist	LF
The Beatles	2,985,509	Radiohead	24,829
Radiohead	2,579,453	Nirvana	24,249
Pink Floyd	2,351,436	Coldplay	23,714
Metallica	1,970,569	Daft Punk	23,661
Muse	1,896,941	Red Hot Chili Peppers	22,609
Arctic Monkeys	1,803,975	Muse	22,429
Daft Punk	1,787,739	Queen	21,778
Coldplay	1,755,333	The Beatles	21,738
Linkin Park	1,691,122	Pink Floyd	21,129
Red Hot Chili Peppers	1,627,851	David Bowie	20,602

Table 1: Global top artists in the LFM-1b dataset, according to artist frequency (AF) and listener frequency (LF), considering the 53,258 users with country information.

Artist	AF	Artist	AF	Artist	AF
Stam1na	105,633	Radiohead	68,160	Pink Floyd	68,887
In Flames	97,645	The Beatles	65,498	Metallica	42,784
CMX	90,032	Pink Floyd	60,558	Daft Punk	42,020
Kotiteollisuus	82,309	Fabrizio De André	53,928	Iron Maiden	34,174
Turmion Kätilöt	78,722	Muse	48,168	Radiohead	31,390
Amorphis	78,159	Depeche Mode	42,586	Massive Attack	30,669
Nightwish	75,742	Afterhours	42,473	The Beatles	27,951
Mokoma	73,453	Verdena	42,338	Opeth	25,744
Muse	69,507	Sigur Rós	41,748	Depeche Mode	25,075
Metallica	69,499	Arctic Monkeys	39,755	Dream Theater	24,286
Artist	LF	Artist	LF	Artist	LF
Metallica	703	Radiohead	556	Pink Floyd	292
Nightwish	695	Pink Floyd	539	Radiohead	289
Muse	693	The Beatles	505	Metallica	268
Daft Punk	675	David Bowie	500	Coldplay	261
Queen	671	Muse	500	Nirvana	251
System of a Down	663	Nirvana	497	Massive Attack	249
Coldplay	634	Coldplay	475	The Beatles	240
Nirvana	614	The Cure	466	Red Hot Chili Peppers	240
Pendulum	613	Depeche Mode	459	Queen	238
Iron Maiden	609	Daft Punk	457	Led Zeppelin	236
Artist	AF-ILF	Artist	AF-ILF	Artist	AF-ILF
St. Hood	70.526	CaneSecco	68.451	Cüneyt Ergün	64.473
The Sun Sawed in 1/2	67.490	DSA Commando	66.049	Floyd Red Crow Westerman	61.955
tiko-μ	66.546	Veronica Marchi	65.864	Fırat Tanış	58.666
Worth the Pain	66.058	Train To Roots	65.459	Acil Servis	58.439
Cutdown	65.247	Alessandro Raina	64.228	Taste (Rory Gallagher)	58.366
Katariina Hänninen	64.955	Machete Empire	63.915	Mezarkabul	57.799
Game Music Finland	64.835	Danti	62.958	Rachmaninoff Sergey	57.733
Daisuke Ishiwatari	63.565	Dargen D'Amico	62.453	Mabel Matiz	57.619
Altis	63.235	宝塚歌劇団・宙組	62.228	Grup Yorum	56.855
Redrum-187	62.428	Aquefrigide	61.663	Yüzyüzyken Konuşuruz	56.748

(a) Finland (1,407 users)

(b) Italy (972 users)

(c) Turkey (479 users)

Table 2: Top artists for selected countries, according to artist frequency (AF), listener frequency (LF), and artist frequency–inverse listener frequency (AF-ILF).

3 FORMALIZING MAINSTREAMINESS

When describing how well a user’s listening preferences reflect those of an overall population, e.g., globally or within a country, what is considered *mainstream* depends on the selection of a population; this is a phenomenon which we will also show in our analysis. Consequently, we propose several quantitative measures for user mainstreamness, both on a global and on a country-specific level, depending on the selection of the population against which the user is compared. Our approach is inspired by the well-established

monotonicity assumptions in text processing and information retrieval [28] – the TF-IDF (term frequency–inverse document frequency) weighting. Based on this assumption, our proposed mainstreamness measures rely on the concepts of *artist frequency (AF)*, *listener frequency (LF)*, and *artist frequency–inverse listener frequency (AF-ILF)*.

We define $AF_{a,U}$ as the sum of the number of tracks by artist a listened to by a set of users U . Note that U may be a single user u , all users in a country c , or the entirety of users in the collection (i.e., the global population g). Accordingly, we define $LF_{a,U}$ as the number of

Abbr.	Formula
$F_{g:AF,u:AF}$	$1 - \frac{1}{ A } \cdot \sum_{a \in A} \frac{ \widehat{AF}_{a,u} - \widehat{AF}_{a,g} }{\max(\widehat{AF}_{a,u}, \widehat{AF}_{a,g})}$
$F_{g:AF,u:AF-ILF}$	$1 - \frac{1}{ A } \cdot \sum_{a \in A} \frac{ \widehat{AF \cdot ILF}_{a,u,g} - \widehat{AF}_{a,g} }{\max(\widehat{AF \cdot ILF}_{a,u,g}, \widehat{AF}_{a,g})}$
$F_{g:AF-ILF,u:AF-ILF}$	$1 - \frac{1}{ A } \cdot \sum_{a \in A} \frac{ \widehat{AF \cdot ILF}_{a,u,g} - \widehat{AF \cdot ILF}_{a,g,g} }{\max(\widehat{AF \cdot ILF}_{a,u,g}, \widehat{AF \cdot ILF}_{a,g,g})}$
$F_{c:AF,u:AF}$	$1 - \frac{1}{ A } \cdot \sum_{a \in A} \frac{ \widehat{AF}_{a,u} - \widehat{AF}_{a,c} }{\max(\widehat{AF}_{a,u}, \widehat{AF}_{a,c})}$
$F_{c:AF-ILF,u:AF-ILF}$	$1 - \frac{1}{ A } \cdot \sum_{a \in A} \frac{ \widehat{AF \cdot ILF}_{a,u,c} - \widehat{AF \cdot ILF}_{a,c,g} }{\max(\widehat{AF \cdot ILF}_{a,u,c}, \widehat{AF \cdot ILF}_{a,c,g})}$
$D_{g:AF,u:AF}$	$\frac{1}{2} \cdot \left(\sum_{a \in A} \widehat{AF}_{a,u} \cdot \log \frac{\widehat{AF}_{a,u}}{\widehat{AF}_{a,g}} + \sum_{a \in A} \widehat{AF}_{a,g} \cdot \log \frac{\widehat{AF}_{a,g}}{\widehat{AF}_{a,u}} \right)^{-1}$
$D_{c:AF,u:AF}$	$\frac{1}{2} \cdot \left(\sum_{a \in A} \widehat{AF}_{a,u} \cdot \log \frac{\widehat{AF}_{a,u}}{\widehat{AF}_{a,c}} + \sum_{a \in A} \widehat{AF}_{a,c} \cdot \log \frac{\widehat{AF}_{a,c}}{\widehat{AF}_{a,u}} \right)^{-1}$
$D_{c:AF-ILF,u:AF-ILF}$	$\frac{1}{2} \cdot \left(\sum_{a \in A} \widehat{AF \cdot ILF}_{a,u,g} \cdot \log \frac{\widehat{AF \cdot ILF}_{a,u,g}}{\widehat{AF \cdot ILF}_{a,c,g}} + \sum_{a \in A} \widehat{AF \cdot ILF}_{a,c,g} \cdot \log \frac{\widehat{AF \cdot ILF}_{a,c,g}}{\widehat{AF \cdot ILF}_{a,u,g}} \right)^{-1}$
$C_{g:AF,u:AF}$	$\tau \left(\text{ranks} \left(PP_g^{AF} \right), \text{ranks} \left(PP_u^{AF} \right) \right)$
$C_{c:AF,u:AF}$	$\tau \left(\text{ranks} \left(PP_c^{AF} \right), \text{ranks} \left(PP_u^{AF} \right) \right)$
$C_{c:AF-ILF,u:AF-ILF}$	$\tau \left(\text{ranks} \left(PP_{u,c}^{AF-ILF} \right), \text{ranks} \left(PP_{c,g}^{AF-ILF} \right) \right)$

Table 3: Proposed music mainstreamness measures on the user level. Terms denote the following: F stands for the fraction-based approach, D refers to the symmetrized Kullback-Leibler divergence approach, and C is used as abbreviation for the approaches based on rank-order correlation according to Kendall's τ . A is a list of all artists; \widehat{AF} denotes the sum-to-unity normalized AF value; $\text{ranks}(PP_u^W)$ represents the real-valued preference profile converted to ranks, i.e. the vector containing all normalized item frequencies of user u , with respect to the frequency weighting approach W (AF or LF); in case of $AF \cdot ILF$, $\text{ranks}(PP_u^W)$ is extended to $\text{ranks}(PP_{u,c}^{AF-ILF})$, i.e. AF computed for user u , ILF on country c , or $\text{ranks}(PP_{c,g}^{AF-ILF})$, i.e. AF computed on country c , ILF globally. Note that we invert the values of some measures (F and D) in order to ensure that higher values always indicate closer to the mainstream.

listeners of artist a within a user population U . And we eventually define $AF \cdot ILF_{a,U_1,U_2}$ as in Equation 1. We set $AF \cdot ILF_{a,U_1,U_2} = 0$ iff $LF_{a,U_2} = 0$.

$$AF \cdot ILF_{a,U_1,U_2} = \log \left(1 + AF_{a,U_1} \right) \cdot \log \left(1 + \frac{|U_2|}{LF_{a,U_2}} \right) \quad (1)$$

Note that U_1 and U_2 may represent a single user, all users in the same country, or all users in the dataset. Therefore, this definition allows us to easily formalize both the global and the regional definitions of mainstreamness, by varying U_1 and U_2 . The ILF weighting term can be integrated when computing the *preference profile* for

a user or for a country, e.g., $AF \cdot ILF_{a,u,c}$, where U_1 contains only the user u and U_2 all users in country c (to which u belongs), or $AF \cdot ILF_{a,c,g}$, where U_1 is composed of all users in country c (to which u belongs) and U_2 of all users in the dataset. Using ILF is motivated by the fact that, when determined by $AF_{a,c}$ or $LF_{a,c}$, the top artists in each country c are often identical or very similar to the global top artists (cf. Tables 1 and 2). In order to uncover the respective country-specific mainstream, we therefore use $ILF_{a,g}$ to penalize globally popular artists.

Table 2 illustrates the effect of this weighting. It shows the top artists for Finland, Italy, and Turkey, in terms of $AF_{a,c}$, $LF_{a,c}$, and

$AF \cdot ILF_{a,c,g}$, i.e., AF computed on the country level, ILF on the global level. Please note that artist IDs (on the x-axis) are sorted with respect to their *global* popularity in regards to the respective measure (AF, LF, or AF-ILF). As can be seen, the AF and even more the LF measures are not suited well to distill the essential mainstream of a country, except maybe for countries such as Finland that show a very specific music taste far away from the global taste [31]. In contrast, AF-ILF is capable of identifying those artists that are popular in a specific country, but not worldwide.

Based on the above definitions, we compute preference profiles globally (PP_g), for a country (PP_c), and for a user (PP_u). Given the LFM-1b dataset [30], these profiles are 585,095-dimensional vectors containing the AF, LF, or AF-ILF scores over all artists in the dataset. Figure 1 provides an example by visualizing the preference profiles including the top 50,000 artists for Finland, a country that does particularly not correspond to the global music mainstream. The black lines in the plots indicate the *global* AF, LF, or AF-ILF scores. As can be seen, the distributions of the AF- and LF-based preference profiles largely follow a trend similar to the global one. However, a second curve is indicative of a country-specific mainstream, in this case for Finland. In contrast, the AL-ILF weighting considerably increases the importance of globally less popular, but country-wise more popular artists (also see Table 2).

Exploiting the profiles, we propose three categories of mainstreamness measures on the user level: fraction-based (F), symmetrized Kullback-Leibler divergence (D), and rank-order correlation according to Kendall's τ (C). The adoption of fraction-based measures is motivated by their easy interpretability (due to the share of overlap between a user's and the global or a country's preference profiles). Kullback-Leibler divergence is a well-established method to compare distributions (discrete preference profiles in our case); we employ rank correlation because conversion of feature values to ranks has already been proven successful for music similarity tasks [24].

We provide formulas for the specific measures in Table 3, where \hat{X} denotes the sum-to-unity normalized vector X and $ranks(PP_U^W)$ represents the real-valued preference profile converted to ranks, i.e. the vector containing all normalized item frequencies of user u , with respect to the frequency weighting approach W (AF or LF). When using $AF \cdot ILF$, $ranks(PP_u^W)$ is extended to $ranks(PP_{u,c}^{AF \cdot ILF})$, i.e. AF computed for user u , ILF on country c , or $ranks(PP_{c,g}^{AF \cdot ILF})$, i.e. AF computed on country c , ILF globally. Note that we invert the results of the fraction-based formulations and the symmetrized KL-divergences in order to be consistent in that higher values always indicate closer to the mainstream, while lower ones indicate farther away from the mainstream.

4 MUSIC RECOMMENDATION TAILORED TO USER MAINSTREAMNESS

To evaluate the proposed mainstreamness measures (cf. Section 3) with respect to their ability to improve performance in music recommendation, we conduct rating prediction experiments, which is a common approach to recommender systems evaluation. For this evaluation, we use the LFM-1b dataset of user-generated listening events from Last.fm [30], as detailed in the following.

4.1 Data Preparation

The LFM-1b dataset [30] covers 1,088,161,692 listening events of 120,322 unique users, who listened to 32,291,134 unique tracks by 3,190,371 unique artists. The core component of the dataset is the cleaned user-artist-playcount matrix (UAM) containing the number of listening events of 120,175 users to 585,095 unique artists. The distribution of listening events of the Last.fm data corresponds to a typical long-tail distribution [8].

As 65,132 user profiles do not contain any country information, we exclude those from our experiments since they do not contribute to defining a country's mainstreamness. For each user in the remaining user set, we calculate the proposed mainstreamness measures according to Table 3. Note that using the LFM-1b dataset, the global population is in our case the Last.fm users in the dataset.

4.2 Experimental Setup

While we are aware that a truly user-centric evaluation would be beneficial for this kind of research, conducting a user study on tens of thousands of users (or even only a representative subset of the users) is beyond the scope of this paper. We therefore stick to the common approach of quantifying the performance of a recommender system by conducting a rating prediction task. To this end, we normalize and scale the playcount values in the UAM to the range $[0, 1000]$ for each user individually, assuming that higher numbers of playcounts indicate higher user preference for an artist.

We apply the common singular value decomposition (SVD) method according to [27] to factorize the UAM and in turn effect rating prediction. In 5-fold cross-validation experiments, we use root mean square error (RMSE) and mean absolute error (MAE) as performance measures.

To obtain a baseline, we first run the rating prediction experiment on the global group of 65,132 users and report results of the error measures in the first row of Table 4. To study the influence of both, the different mainstreamness *definitions* and mainstreamness *levels* on recommendation performance, we then create subsets of users for each combination of mainstreamness measure and country with at least 1,000 users.¹ To this end, we split the users in each country into three (almost) equally sized subsets according to their mainstreamness value: *low* corresponds to users in the lower 3-quantile (tertile) w.r.t. the respective mainstreamness definition, *mid* and *high*, respectively, to the mid and upper tertile. In the individual experiments, *all* refers to the group of all users in each considered country, *low* only to the users in the lower 3-quantile (tertile) w.r.t. the respective mainstreamness definition, *mid* and *high* defined analogously. Further, conducting the same experiment on all users in each country (user set *all*) allows for a comparison of a pure mainstreamness filtering approach versus a combination of mainstreamness filtering and demographic (country) filtering.

4.3 Results and Discussion

Table 4 shows the error measures (RMSE and MAE) for different *definitions* and *levels* of mainstreamness, averaged over all considered countries (cf. Subsection 4.1), RMSE and MAE weighted by the number of users in the respective country. In the following

¹The restriction to countries with at least 1,000 users was made to allow for a meaningful analysis, as performed in [31].

discussion, we concentrate on RMSE since it is more common and considers larger differences between predicted and true ratings disproportionately more severe than smaller ones.

As a general finding, our results show that tailoring the recommendations to a user's mainstreamness level (*low*, *mid*, *high*) leads to substantial error reductions, irrespective of the applied mainstreamness measure. More specifically, $C_{c:AF, u:AF}$ outperforms the other measures in four regards: First, it leads to the lowest overall RMSE of 14.349 (*all*). Second, the errors realized by $C_{c:AF, u:AF}$ are also the lowest for each of the three user sets (*low*, *mid*, *high*). If better performance is achieved on a set with another measure, the difference is just in the third position after the decimal point. Third, $C_{c:AF, u:AF}$ performs on each of the three user sets (*low*, *mid*, *high*) in a balanced way (weighted RMSE amounts to respectively 3.692, 4.270, and 3.687), whereas the other mainstreamness measures yield a rather unbalanced picture since each of them performs on at least one set far worse than on the other(s), e.g., $C_{g:AF, u:AF}$ with 19.183, 7.443, and 3.681, respectively, for *low*, *mid*, and *high*. Fourth, $C_{c:AF, u:AF}$ performs well also on the low mainstreamness user set (*low*), which is a user segment that is typically difficult to satisfy.

The fraction-based approaches $F_{g:AF, u:AF}$, $F_{c:AF, u:AF}$, and $F_{g:AF, u:AF} \cdot ILF$ have in common that they perform far better in the high mainstreamness segment than in the mid and the low one. This could indicate that these measures still privilege globally popular items too much and, thus, produce more errors in the mid and low segments.

Interestingly, the approaches based on symmetrized Kullback-Leibler divergence (D) perform worse when tailored towards a user's country ($D_{c:AF, u:AF}$), compared to their application on a global level ($D_{g:AF, u:AF}$). Combining the country-specific tailoring with the AF-ILF weighting allows for better results compared to applying both separately.

While our results do not suggest a general superiority of mainstreamness measures that incorporate AF-ILF, first results of our deeper analysis on the country level indicate that these measures seem to perform particularly well for countries far away from the global mainstream, such as Finland (RMSE of $D_{c:AF} \cdot ILF, u:AF \cdot ILF$ for *all*=5.985, *high*=1.346, *mid*=1.365, *low*=1.418), but worse for high mainstream countries, such as the USA (RMSE of $D_{c:AF} \cdot ILF, u:AF \cdot ILF$ for *all*=57.489, *high*=4.071, *mid*=4.077, *low*=55.968). In the presented example, the low mainstream country Finland is small, and the respective weighted error measures in Table 4 do not reflect this country's users to the same extent as the large and high mainstream United States. As part of our ongoing large-scale analysis, delving into detail on country-specific aspects, we will investigate as a next step what factors influence the performance differences between countries for a given mainstreamness measure.

A direct comparison of the RMSE achieved by our approach with the RMSE reported in [37], the work closest to ours, is unfortunately impossible since Vigliensoni and Fujinaga quantized playcounts into a 5-point Likert rating scale: [1,5]. Still, in a rough estimation, our results suggest that the accuracy of our best $C_{c:AF, u:AF}$ approach delivers a new benchmark in the combination of demographic (country) filtering and mainstreamness filtering, with a RMSE of 14.3 on a [0,1000] scale. The best RMSE reported in [37]

when considering mainstreamness and country information is approximately 0.9 on the much narrower [1,5] scale (cf. approach *u.c.m.* in Figure 2 of [37]).

5 CONCLUSIONS AND OUTLOOK

We proposed 11 novel measures to quantify the music mainstreamness of a user, a country, and an entire population. Those are based on fractional (F), divergence (D), and rank correlation (C) functions. Considering that music mainstream may be defined from a global but also a country-specific perspective, we particularly studied how the combination of a user's mainstreamness and demographic (country) filtering influences the quality of music recommendations. Based on the LFM-1b dataset [30], we investigated the performance of the proposed measures in a rating prediction task, employing matrix factorization. To quantify performance, we computed country-averaged, weighted RMSE and MAE figures for all mainstreamness definitions and various mainstreamness levels, and compared these with a global baseline. Overall, our results suggest that incorporating any kind of mainstreamness information outperforms the baseline. Our best approach combines demographic filtering (based on a user profile's country) and mainstreamness filtering based on Kendall's τ (variant $C_{c:AF, u:AF}$) and outperforms applying these filtering approaches separately. While our results do not hint at a general superiority of mainstreamness measures that incorporate AF-ILF, they do show that such measures perform much better than others for countries whose preference profiles are far away from the global taste (e.g., Finland).

As part of future work, we will take an in-depth look at the differences between countries, i.e. analyze in which countries which mainstreamness functions perform particularly well or poorly. Additionally, we plan to analyze how well our results generalize to other datasets providing demographic user information, e.g., the Spotify playlists dataset [23] or the Million Musical Tweets Dataset [15]. We further plan a user study to qualitatively investigate whether incorporating mainstreamness information improves the perceived satisfaction with recommendations.

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Mainstreamness	user set	w.RMSE	w.MAE
Baseline (global UAM)		29.105	25.202
$F_{g:AF, u:AF}$	<i>all</i>	26.377	24.050
	<i>high</i>	3.714	1.308
	<i>mid</i>	12.574	9.887
	<i>low</i>	14.186	11.625
$F_{g:AF, u:AF \cdot ILF}$	<i>all</i>	21.137	18.617
	<i>high</i>	3.681	1.299
	<i>mid</i>	11.035	8.191
	<i>low</i>	14.426	11.868
$F_{g:AF \cdot ILF, u:AF \cdot ILF}$	<i>all</i>	19.140	16.769
	<i>high</i>	11.777	9.121
	<i>mid</i>	13.396	10.833
	<i>low</i>	8.708	5.806
$F_{c:AF, u:AF}$	<i>all</i>	14.465	11.958
	<i>high</i>	3.723	1.309
	<i>mid</i>	8.681	6.112
	<i>low</i>	12.706	9.952
$F_{c:AF \cdot ILF, u:AF \cdot ILF}$	<i>all</i>	17.615	15.301
	<i>high</i>	9.237	6.648
	<i>mid</i>	3.686	1.305
	<i>low</i>	10.122	7.610
$D_{g:AF, u:AF}$	<i>all</i>	24.026	21.705
	<i>high</i>	10.561	8.024
	<i>mid</i>	9.854	7.299
	<i>low</i>	5.365	2.909
$D_{c:AF, u:AF}$	<i>all</i>	28.021	25.746
	<i>high</i>	5.365	2.912
	<i>mid</i>	13.510	10.840
	<i>low</i>	25.923	22.621
$D_{c:AF \cdot ILF, u:AF \cdot ILF}$	<i>all</i>	14.628	11.624
	<i>high</i>	3.656	1.281
	<i>mid</i>	7.035	4.515
	<i>low</i>	8.589	5.670
$C_{g:AF, u:AF}$	<i>all</i>	15.906	13.525
	<i>high</i>	3.680	1.291
	<i>mid</i>	7.443	4.472
	<i>low</i>	19.183	16.373
$C_{c:AF, u:AF}$	<i>all</i>	14.349	12.032
	<i>high</i>	3.687	1.290
	<i>mid</i>	4.270	1.833
	<i>low</i>	3.692	1.308
$C_{c:AF \cdot ILF, u:AF \cdot ILF}$	<i>all</i>	30.827	28.535
	<i>high</i>	7.680	5.187
	<i>mid</i>	4.825	2.340
	<i>low</i>	10.785	8.1084

Table 4: Weighted root mean square error (RMSE) and weighted mean absolute error (MAE) for various mainstreamness definitions and levels, i.e. user sets. Rating values are scaled to [0, 1000]. Experiments are conducted on the country level (except for first row using the complete UAM irrespective of country) and error measures are averaged (arithmetic mean) over all countries with more than 1,000 users and weighted by number of users in the respective country. In the individual experiments, *all* refers to the group of all users in each considered country, *low* only to the users in the lower 3-quantile (tertile) w.r.t. the respective mainstreamness definition, *mid* and *high* defined analogously.

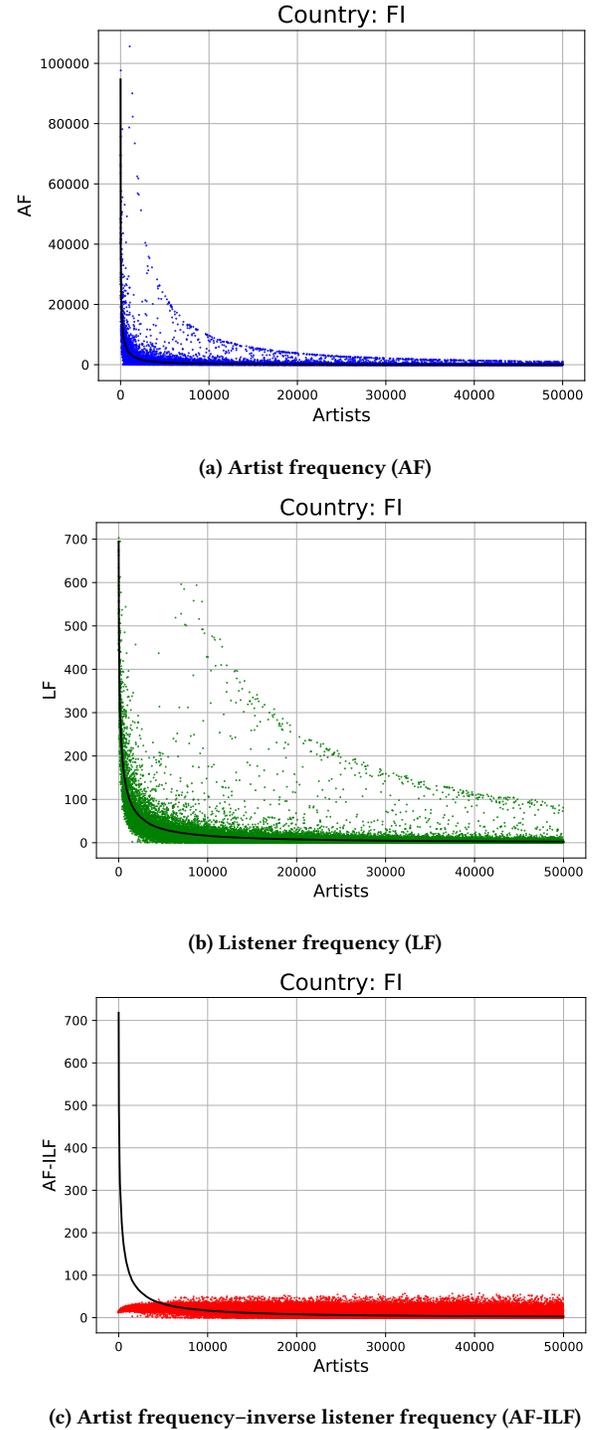


Figure 1: Artist frequency (AF), listener frequency (LF), and artist frequency-inverse listener frequency (AF-ILF) for the top 50,000 artists in Finland. Artist IDs (x-axis) are sorted by global AF, LF, or AF-ILF values, respectively. The black line indicates the global values.