

Unifying Recommender Systems and Conversational User Interfaces

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ABSTRACT

This paper considers unifying research on conversational user interfaces and recommender systems. Studies on conversational user interfaces (CUIs) typically examine how conversations can be facilitated (i.e., optimizing the *means*). Recommender systems research (RecSys) aims to retrieve and present recommendations in a user's session (i.e., optimizing the *ends*). Though these aims are overlapping across both areas, they can be better examined together to target the means and ends of what people can achieve with technology as *conversational recommender systems* (CRSs). We discuss the intersection of conversational user interfaces, recommender systems, and conversational recommender systems. We argue how conversations and recommendations can be designed holistically, in which recommendations can also be a means to foster engaging conversational interaction, while conversations as ends can better sustain curated, long-term recommendations.

CCS CONCEPTS

• **Human-centered computing** → **HCI theory, concepts and models**; *Interaction design theory, concepts and paradigms*.

KEYWORDS

conversations, recommender systems, conversational recommender systems, personalization

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1 INTRODUCTION

The growth of conversational user interfaces (CUIs) has led to efforts to deliver a better conversational user experience [55]. From a researcher's perspective, the conversations are treated as the *means* to achieve or explore different goals. Examples include keeping

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conversations moving [16], maintaining conversations with humans as long as possible (as in Alexa Prize competitions¹), finding a common ground with Google Home when planning a trip [8], or playing interactive games with Alexa as a family [64]. An upcoming, related field is that of conversational recommender systems (CRSs) that build upon recommender systems (RecSys) research. RecSys presents personalized content, such as songs to listen to or movies to watch, (e.g., by services like Spotify and Netflix; cf. [19, 24]), often via a graphical user interface. *Conversational recommender systems* aim to achieve the end goal of presenting personalized content through conversations.

For users of today's smart speakers or assistants, *conversations* are often designed as a *means* to an end, to explore or accomplish a shared goal. In contrast, users of Netflix or Spotify *recommendations* are seen as an *end* result of the system's personalization efforts. For CUI researchers, how the *means* is carried out (e.g., conversational flow or repair) is a large concern, whereas RecSys researchers are pre-occupied with whether the *end outcome* (i.e., the recommendation) is fitting for their users [31]. Surely, CUI and RecSys researchers also do examine both means and ends of how people are affected by the end result (e.g., how well a conversational agent answered a query), as well as how systems get there (e.g., recommendations as ongoing attempts at personalization). Still, how both communities can benefit from each other's perspectives is a lacking effort.

This paper outlines the differences and commonalities across the CUI and RecSys communities. We discuss that they can find a common ground by not just considering conversations as a means and recommendations as an end. We point out how contributions in the shared subfield field of conversational recommender systems (CRSs) can add to the research performed on CUIs, while highlighting which aspects of CUI research could also add to recommender systems research.²

2 BACKGROUND

2.1 CUI Research

CUIs have been popularized in many products and applications, such as the Google Assistant³ or Replika⁴. Thus, CUI is a broad

¹<https://www.amazon.science/alexa-prize>

²To be clear, we are concerned with comparing CRSs and CUIs for goal-directed dialogue, i.e., advice solicitation in a sense, so we do not consider more complex, open-ended dialogues here.

³<https://assistant.google.com/>

⁴<https://replika.ai/>

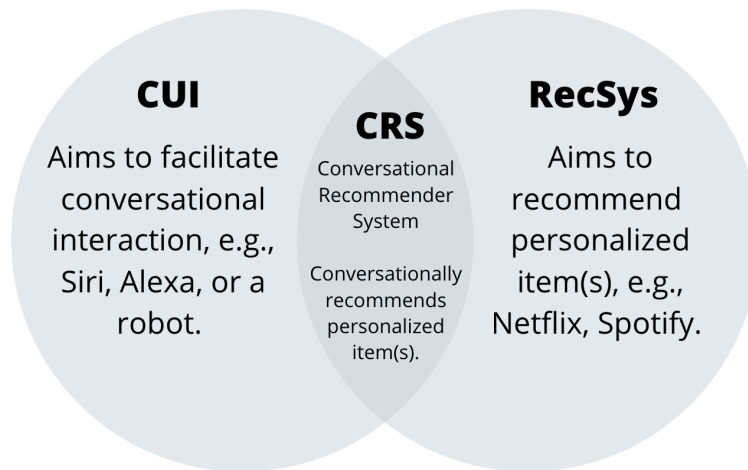


Figure 1: Diagram of how conversational recommender systems (CRSs) are positioned at the intersection of conversational user interfaces (CUIs) and recommender systems (RecSys).

term that can encompass easily accessible chatbots that are on communication platforms like Slack or Messenger, be it for work-related conversations or hobbies [11], or embodied as robots with multi-modal capabilities [63]. Increasingly, CUIs are collaborative partners in everyday rituals (e.g., cooking), in which the combination of modalities they use (e.g., speech and gaze), influence human conversational patterns. For example, CUIs can be equipped with eyes that are expected to gaze as a communication signal [33]. Most of today’s CUIs are designed to react to our commands, in a task-oriented manner (cf. [44]).

There has been, however, increasing attention for research on CUIs that can have consequences on interpersonal relationships or well-being [36, 62, 69]. CUIs can be imbued with social traits by human interactants, intentionally or not, though people differentiate between functional vs. social CUIs [10]. For example, ELIZA was perceived to be a social chatbot, by acting as a therapist with only simple pattern-matching to responders’ texts, which made people attribute intelligence to it [81]. Other examples of ‘social’ CUIs include customer service chatbots that should efficiently handle customer requests but are seen as human-like by some users [17], as well as a chatbot that was intended only to be functional as a news aggregator, but was expected to act in a social way by users nonetheless [38]. A common problem is the effective design of conversations, regardless of its purpose, be it functional, social, or both [55]. Hence, CUI research often deals with conversational *design* as the means to achieve or explore people’s goals in various contexts, such as finding a song and playing it on a smart speaker. In other words, the goal lies in enhancing the conversational means to optimize any desired end.

2.2 Recommender System Research

There is also research on how conversations can be a means to an end of retrieving relevant content. Recommender systems (RecSys) are algorithms and interfaces that present content to users that match their preferences [31, 66]. This can be based on historical

user interactions and ratings, or an active preference elicitation phase, in which a system inquires about what a user currently likes [65].

Three different RecSys approaches are dominant in terms of presenting personalized content. The most commonly used method is collaborative filtering (CF; [66]), which uses interaction data to determine which users and items are similar, i.e., which users are one’s ‘nearest neighbors’. A CF-based recommender would, for example, retrieve content that is popular among peers who have been identified to have preferences similar to the user. An important challenge is to mitigate the so-called cold-start problem, the phase in which the recommender cannot yet model the user’s preferences due to a lack of historical data [14, 45]. Although this can be overcome by prompting users to rate or interact with a specific set of items to efficiently map user’s preferences [14], it is also possible to employ other approaches.

Two other approaches are content-based and knowledge-based recommendation [18]. Content-based methods typically determine similarity between items, based on different features: if a user likes an item (e.g., a recipe with specific ingredients), that user is recommended ‘more of the same’ (e.g., recipes with similar ingredients; cf. [71]). Knowledge-based recommenders are a third dominant approach, albeit at times regarded as a subset of content-based recommender, for they match items and users based on pre-defined rules between item features and user characteristics. For example, if a user of a recipe recommender system indicates to suffer from diabetes, that system may filter out recipes with high levels of sugar and fat [58].

Recommender systems are applied to domains where information and choice overload are likely [7, 22], such as e-commerce. They are also useful in domains where users like to explore different options for which they do not have clear item or outcome in mind [15, 35]. For example, the website AllRecipes.com employs food recommender system to retrieve and present users any of the 60,000 recipes from its website [77]. The main purpose of RecSys is, thus, to present a limited number of options that are most likely

to be relevant to a user, either because of that user’s past browsing history or because the item set is on average popular among all users [13, 31].

The overarching aim of RecSys design is to keep a user engaged to a service by providing relevant content [27, 31]. In other words, most research focuses on optimizing the *ends*. Although research also examines the ‘means’ of RecSys, i.e., *how* users interact with a recommender in terms of preference elicitation and effort [28, 72], most studies assess the quality of a recommender system through its predictive accuracy and how satisfied people are with the presented and chosen content [29, 32, 52]. This is also reflected in the employed methods, which also involve ‘offline evaluation’: assessing the predictive accuracy of different recommender models by splitting the dataset of interest into training and test sets [46]. In the recommender domain, studies that present improvements in algorithmic accuracy are also regarded as a significant research contribution.

Most recommender systems are designed as graphical user interfaces [31, 66]. They often combine text and images (cf. [80]), with which can be interacted through clicks or in a query-based fashion. These modalities are also related to the type of items recommended [23, 67]. For instance, recommenders that present a single set of options may be appropriate if the user already has strong preferences, while more interactions are required if a user wishes to explore (further). This volatility of user preferences plays a role in RecSys research [6], in the sense that they are formed *during* interaction [25, 79], as well as due to the recommender’s choice architecture [25, 70, 73], i.e., how the options are presented.

2.3 Conversational Recommender Systems

Conversational recommender systems (CRSs) typically elicit user preferences through a conversation over multiple interactions. CRSs form a specific subgroup of RecSys and are touted to be appropriate to overcome cold-start problems [23], for they can allow users to refine an initial set of recommendations by critiquing specific attributes or characteristics of the search result(s) [24]. For example, a user may refine an initial suggestion for a restaurant to visit by asking the recommender to change specific criteria (e.g., proximity, cuisine). Most CRSs are designed as one-off conversations, regardless of whether they aim to provide task-focused recommendations or open-domain recommendations. An assumption underlying some CRSs is that human interactants know what the conversation’s goal is, whereas some may still be searching for a goal in various CUI contexts [49].

In contrast with general RecSys research, *collaborative filtering* is not dominant in CRSs [23]. As many CRSs do not maintain user histories, many recommenders use a *content-based*, “more like this” approach instead, retrieving items that are similar to the one a user is currently interacting with, but would like to refine. Consequently, most CRSs are interested in the ‘short-term preferences’ of users rather than the long-term ones [23], often constrained to the dialogue a user is in.

A key difference between CUI and RecSys are the assumptions about their users having exploratory intent [20]. Whereas one may engage in exploratory search with a conversational agent [50], a

user turning to a recommender system often has a need for a recommendation but is typically unsure which one would suit her the best. Exploratory searches in CUIs are more likely to lead to breakdowns or ‘hiccups’ in a conversation [23, 59]; a CRS might propose a specific item or a set of items and then pause the interaction, even though a user might expect it to continue. Surveys on the state-of-the-art for CUIs and CRSs highlight that different themes are dominant. For CRSs, much work has gone into the type of modalities, whether this should include voice or a combination of voice and text, and how this leads to the most optimal system retrieval in terms of predictive accuracy [23]. Much less attention has been devoted to theories of conversation and speech and whether CRSs accurately reflect human conversations, such as in an inquiry to recommend a specific restaurant [9].

3 CONTRASTING THE TWO FIELDS OF RESEARCH

All conversational systems use some type of content retrieval to present a response that is most appropriate for a specific context [56, 76]. The fundamental functionalities of conversational agents across CUIs and CRS can be similar, whether this is based on a predictive model or a rule-based model, and whether this is based on natural language processing or fixed responses. However, the type of studies and their underlying goals vary extensively. CUIs tend to focus on studying evaluative outcomes with regard to the conversational *form*, while less attention is placed on what is presented, i.e., the advice, the items, etc. Lee et al. [38] illustrates the latter. In their study, they examine user trust in cryptocurrency through an RSS-feed based chatbot, which presents content that is not necessarily the most relevant for the user, but simply a snapshot of what fits within the user’s category. The main construct in the study, trust, is analyzed without a connection to the presented news, and whether personalization would have affected this.

CUI studies also tend to vary the role that an agent has in a conversation and to examine how it is perceived by the user [30, 36]. For one, conversations can be designed more like a script that both the agent and user need to act out, with very few degrees of freedom. This may be due to specified roles, e.g., ELIZA’s perceived role as a psycho-therapist [81], though recent examples like Replika are more advanced. For example, in a mental health context, how much self-disclosure is evoked, whether an agent cares for a user, or if it asks to be taken care of, affects the flow of conversation and how the agent is perceived by the user [36, 43]. Although conversational retrieval occurs to generate appropriate responses, as it would in a RecSys, there is less focus on utilitarian evaluation outcomes, such as whether specific conversational response items are liked by a user. In other words, CUI research often focuses on the value of the conversation itself and how to best carry it out in specific cases, rather than the system’s predictive accuracy.

In contrast, CRSs are typically optimized towards people’s discovery of new items, such as a movie to watch or recipe to try [3, 21]. CRSs often forgo how a conversation can flow and focus on *which* item or content should be presented [23, 51, 75]. Instead, they often focus on reducing the costs of interaction or information search [60], while little attention is devoted to conversational UX. Yet, recommender systems could use the conversation itself as a way to

determine a user profile, (i.e., the user’s role) to which the content should be personalized [23]. As of now, the recommender interface itself is rarely personalized towards the user or the conversation.

3.1 Evaluation Methods

How CUIs and CRSs are evaluated indicates where these two fields differ. Research questions in CUI papers often address an aspect of the conversation, and how this matches the user. For example, some studies examine how the interaction can become more efficient without sacrificing conversational aspects (e.g., the human-likeness of an agent [23, 30]). To this end, users are often asked to evaluate the conversation after a single interaction. Moreover, evaluation aspects are also more likely to involve attitudinal aspects, such as one’s attitude towards a proposed mental health exercise or negative emotions in a conversation [30, 61, 68]. In contrast, CRSs, and RecSys in general rely on interaction data, such as ratings, likes, and choices [23]. Although inquiring on user perceptions is becoming more common in CRS research [60], this often does not involve conversational aspects, such as the perceived effort of using an CRS. What is more common are evaluations regarding the outcome, such as the perceived quality, choice satisfaction, and other forms of liking with regard to a chosen item [23]. In doing so, the conversation is treated as a potential ‘hurdle’ that should be overcome as efficiently as possible.

Based on the differences between CUIs and CRS, we also observe a need for expanded evaluation techniques. First, most CRSs are evaluated online by novel users, while long-term evaluations by experienced users should also be considered in research. Second, for CUI studies, a more refined approach can be applied to gauge the relevance of recommendations. To determine which algorithm yields the highest accuracy, CUIs could first evaluate their models ‘offline’, as is done in RecSys [66]. Some studies employ a dataset with user-item interaction data, e.g., ratings, to train multiple recommender models, by dividing the dataset into training and validation sets and using five-fold cross-validation. The models are typically evaluated on their predictive accuracy through an error metric, such as the root mean square error [23, 46, 75].

3.2 The role of crowdsourcing or collaborative filtering

Designing conversations and generating conversational content is a theme across both CUI and CRS studies, but the approaches differ. Recently, in CUI, it has been studied how the content of an agent’s conversation can be derived from crowdsourced advice [1] or based on dialogue graph creation with crowd input [26]. For one, therapeutic advice [2] is an example area that can benefit from crowd-driven conversation design. While still emerging in CUI, crowdsourcing methods are widespread in RecSys. Most notably, collaborative filtering is used to identify users with similar interests [31, 66], based on their historical interaction data. This principle is loosely based on the homophily principle (i.e., similar people are more likely to be connected [53]), relating to how we are more partial to receiving advice from within our homogeneous social network than from people outside it. People with similar interests in a network can train algorithms for personalized recommendation

(e.g., Spotify), which can be used for explaining how the recommendations are relevant [54]. More importantly, however, is that this is used to predict whether the recommendations are relevant. In studies with transparent, explanatory interfaces, RecSys literature has found social peer-based (vs. non-peer) and solicited (vs. unsolicited) recommendations to be more effective in motivating people (e.g., taking energy-saving measures [70, 74]). For example, to reinforce sustainable behavior by emphasizing the behavior of others, such as “75% of similar users do this” [73].

CUIs and CRSs have yet to fully grasp the role of crowdsourcing. This could be paired with advice solicitation, which caters to the user’s perceived autonomy. For example, system-initiated recommendation is perceived as riskier than user-initiated recommendation [34]. In addition, users also feel less in control, particularly if the system indicates that the user’s browsing history is used as the basis for its recommendation. What has not been looked into is how CUIs become actors in our networks that can also give solicited advice. They can have social roles of that are normally reserved for human-peers for norm establishment [37]. We thus believe that conversational recommender systems (CRS) [75] can be a research area on how CUIs can conversationally recommend to its human interactants on communication platforms (as chatbots) or as social actors (as robots or smart speakers). The latter would particularly be new to RecSys scholars.

3.3 Designing an identity

As recently noted by a growing body of work on identity [4, 5, 39], the design of a CUI (an agent’s identity) is as important as user-oriented personalization (a user’s identity). CUI research has focused on optimizing the agents or the conversational environment, but another touch point is whether the presented content affects how the conversation or the agent is perceived or evaluated by users. CUIs that talk to people are seen as entities in their own right, attributed with a mind of their own [40, 42]. Thus, how they recommend content can also affect how they are perceived. Even a simple chatbot can be seen as a separate identity, when it refers to itself in first person (i.e., “I”). Siri, for instance, states “go ahead, I’m listening”, while waiting for a person to speak. RecSys, in contrast, are designed as tools without the first-person language and its users do not attribute a mind to an application, which foremost augments users’ identity as an environment, not as an identity of its own. Nonetheless, while CRSs may be attributed with anthropomorphic traits like having a mind [34], people are more likely to anthropomorphize systems if their underlying algorithmic processes (e.g., in online behavioral targeting) are not transparently disclosed [48]. Given the focus on explainability in many RecSys studies (e.g., [57]), this may be at odds with CUIs that aim for social presence; future research can focus on how explainability and social presence can connect.

4 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

We have described the key commonalities and differences between Conversation User Interface (CUI) and Recommender System (RecSys) research. The CUI community can consider opportunities to extend their research by incorporating principles from RecSys research, in particular conversational recommender systems (CRSs).

What stands out is a difference in how conversations are approached by the two fields. CUI research seems to focus on diverse contexts of use and facilitation of a conversation (cf. [47]), while CRSs seek to help people to find what they want more specifically. In other words, whereas CUIs seem to optimize the *means* of a conversation, CRSs aim to optimize the *end* of a conversation, following how RecSys optimizes for personalization accuracy. Some CUI papers have focused on a user’s attitude towards agents and their evaluation of a conversation (e.g., attitude towards emotional interaction [30], engagement [30, 56], perceived personality or partner model of agents [12, 41, 78]), which partially overlaps with how CRSs are evaluated [23]. CRS papers mainly assess the algorithmic accuracy, by predicting and ranking conversational responses [76], while possibly also evaluating the quality of the presented or chosen recommendations [23]. There is less attention, however, for the perceived cognitive effort of engaging with such a system [51].

We can benefit from exploring how CUIs can adopt RecSys practices, as well as being attentive to how RecSys research can be more attuned to conversationally sensitive interactions. Hence, supporting dialogue facilitation and presenting the most relevant recommendations can go hand-in-hand. In fact, many people may be willing to ‘forgive’ mediocre conversation design if the outcome (e.g., the presented item) is relevant, and vice versa. CUI scholars could implement their expertise in building CRSs by applying conversation design principles. This aspect is rarely considered by recommender scholars [23], since they mainly optimize for behavioral outcomes (i.e., which item is chosen) and more rarely how the conversation is evaluated (cf. [51, 60]). As for the scope of research, conversationally handling complex or long-term topics, e.g., mental and self-care, is more difficult than that of simple or short-term goals, e.g., recipe recommendation (cf. [3, 36]). For a shared future research direction, we wholeheartedly ‘recommend’ scholars to optimize both the *means* and the *end* of a conversation.

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