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A VEHICLE RECOMMENDATION SYSTEM FOR SALES

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Dedication

To those who have been my first supporters in achieving my ambitions, to those who have been my refuge and right-hand in this stage of life, to those who have shown me the way in my life and enriched my sense of self-esteem, to the kind-hearted soul whose prayers surround me, and to **my beloved parents**.

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Abstract

The study explores the integration of the BERT4Rec model, a Natural Language Processing (NLP) model, into recommendation systems for the used automobile market. The model aims to improve user experience and sales by analyzing user preferences and past interactions. The study's methodology includes feature encoding, data cleaning, sequence modeling preparation, model training, and evaluation. The study aims to determine the effectiveness of the integrated BERT4Rec model in resolving the issue and enhancing recommendation accuracy within the used car market. Preliminary results show a 70% accuracy rate, indicating significant progress in recommendation systems. These findings could significantly impact the industry by improving user experiences and increasing sales in e-commerce platforms operating in the used automobile market.

Keywords: BERT4Rec model, Natural Language Processing (NLP), recommendation systems, used automobile market, user experience, sales improvement, user preferences, past interactions, recommendation accuracy, e-commerce.

الخلاصة

تستكشف الدراسة دمج نموذج BERT4Rec ، وهو نموذج معالجة اللغات الطبيعية NLP ، في أنظمة التوصية لسوق السيارات المستعملة. يهدف النموذج إلى تحسين تجربة المستخدم والمبيعات من خلال تحليل تفضيلات المستخدم والتفاعلات السابقة. تتضمن منهجية الدراسة ترميز الميزات وتنظيف البيانات، وإعداد نمذجة التسلسل، تهدف الدراسة إلى تحديد مدى فعالية نموذج والتدريب على النماذج، والتقييم. BERT4Rec المتكامل في حل المشكلة وتعزيز دقة التوصيات داخل سوق السيارات المستعملة. وتظهر النتائج الأولية نسبة دقة تبلغ 70% ، مما يشير إلى تقدم كبير في أنظمة التوصية. يمكن أن تؤثر هذه النتائج بشكل كبير على الصناعة من خلال تحسين تجارب المستخدم وزيادة المبيعات في منصات التجارة الإلكترونية العاملة في سوق السيارات المستعملة.

الكلمات المفتاحية: نموذج BERT4Rec، معالجة اللغات الطبيعية (NLP) التوصية الأنظمة، سوق السيارات المستعملة، تجربة المستخدم، تحسين المبيعات، تفضيلات المستخدم، الماضي التفاعلات، دقة التوصية، التجارة الإلكترونية.

General introduction

Introduction

In the rapidly evolving automotive industry, consumers are faced with a dizzying array of vehicle choices, making the car purchasing process increasingly complex. To simplify and enhance this experience, vehicle recommendation systems have become invaluable tools. Leveraging advanced technologies in artificial intelligence and data science, these systems analyze vast amounts of data to provide personalized vehicle suggestions that match individual preferences and needs. By integrating these intelligent systems, agents can improve customer satisfaction, enhance sales performance, and provide personalized recommendations to simplify the decision-making process. Despite the challenges in managing diverse vehicle attributes and dynamic customer preferences, the future of vehicle recommendation systems promises greater accuracy and adaptability, driven by continuing advances in artificial intelligence and machine learning.

Problematic

Despite their potential, traditional recommender systems are often unable to provide personalized and accurate suggestions. They struggle to capture buyers' precise preferences and detailed vehicle specifications, resulting in a mismatch between customer desires and recommended vehicles. This gap highlights the need for a more sophisticated approach, such as leveraging BERT's advanced natural language processing capabilities, which can better understand customer preferences and match them to vehicle attributes. However, integrating BERT into a vehicle recommendation system presents significant challenges, including the necessity of extensive data preprocessing and managing the high computational requirements of the model. Overcoming these hurdles is essential to developing a system that delivers accurate, personalized and context-sensitive vehicle recommendations, ensuring greater satisfaction and engagement in the vehicle purchasing process.

Chapter 1

Recommendation System

1.1 recommendation system

The genesis of recommendation systems is traced back to their foundational role as information filtering tools designed to predict or suggest items aligned with a user's preferences or behavior[1]. These systems have found widespread application across various domains, notably in e-commerce, streaming services, and social media, where they enhance the user experience by personalizing content and suggestions[2][3]. Historically, the evolution of recommendation systems began with early information retrieval systems, which were rudimentary tools that helped users sift through expansive volumes of data. Over time, these systems have evolved significantly, transitioning from basic keyword-based searches to sophisticated algorithms that analyze user behavior and preferences to deliver highly personalized recommendations. This progression underscores the increasing importance and complexity of recommendation systems in navigating the digital landscape, shaping how users discover and interact with content on various platforms.

1.1.1 Early information Retrieval Systems

In the mid-20th century, with the expansion of information databases, researchers initiated the creation of systems to aid users in locating pertinent documents or resources [1]. These systems were predominantly dependent on keyword-based searches[2]. They were effective in helping users to retrieve information. However, these systems lacked the capability to offer personalized recommendations tailored to the individual preferences or behaviors of users[3].

1.1.2 Commercial Applications

E-commerce platforms were among the first to recognize the potential of recommendation systems for improving user experience and driving sales. Companies like Amazon started implementing recommendation algorithms that analysed user behaviour[4], purchase history, and item attributes to provide personalized product recommendations.

1.1.3 Research and Development

The field of recommendation systems received a significant boost in the 2000s with the advent of largescale data collection and advancements in machine learning techniques. Research institutions and companies alike began investing resources into developing more sophisticated recommendation algorithms capable of handling diverse datasets and providing more accurate predictions.

1.1.4 Continued Evolution

Recommendation systems have continued to evolve with advancements in machine learning, artificial intelligence, and big data analytics.

Today, recommendation systems are ubiquitous across various online platforms, including e-commerce, streaming services, social media, and more, shaping how users discover content and products online.

1.2 Types of recommendations systems

1.2.1 Collaborative Filtering

Collaborative filtering is a technique used in recommendation systems to provide personalized recommendations to users based on their past interactions or preferences, as well as the preferences of similar users. There are two main approaches as shown in Figure (1.1) to collaborative filtering: user-based and item-based.

User-based Collaborative Filtering (UCF):

In userbased collaborative filtering, recommendations are made to a user based on the preferences or actions of other users who have similar tastes or behaviours. The underlying assumption is that users who have similar preferences in the past will have similar preferences in the future. Here's how it works: [5]

1. Step 1: **Similarity Calculation**: The system calculates the similarity between the target user and other users in the system. This similarity can be computed using various metrics such as cosine similarity, Pearson correlation coefficient, or Jaccard similarity.
2. Step 2: **Neighbor Selection**: Once similarities are computed, the system selects a set of users (referred to as neighbours) who are most similar to the target user.
3. Step 3: **Recommendation Generation**: Finally, the system generates recommendations for the target user based on the items that the selected neighbours have liked or interacted with but the target user hasn't. These recommended items are then presented to the user.

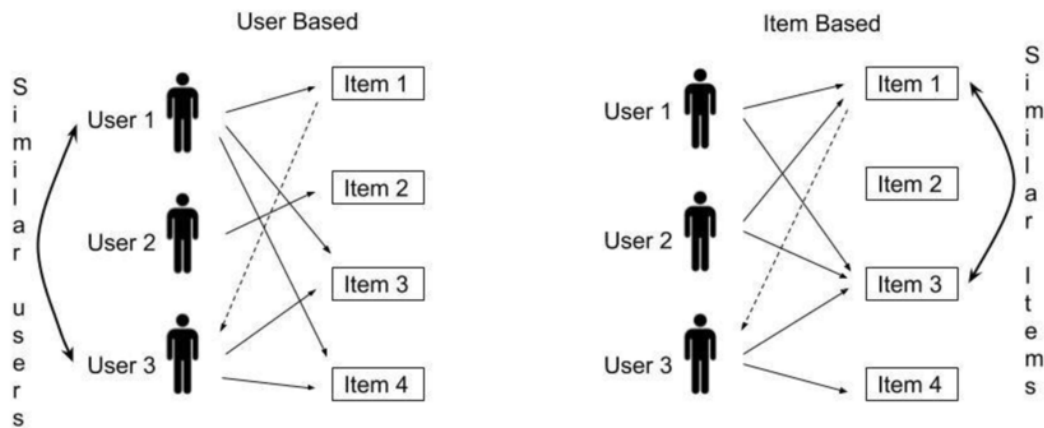


Figure 1.1: User-based and Item-based Collaborative Filtering

Item-based Collaborative Filtering (ICF)

In item-based collaborative filtering, recommendations are made based on the similarity between items rather than users. The underlying idea is that if a user likes or interacts with one item, they are likely to enjoy similar items. Here's how it works:[6][7]

- Step 1: Similarity Calculation: The system calculates the similarity between items based on how users have interacted with them. Similarity metrics such as cosine similarity or Jaccard similarity can be used for this purpose.
- Step 2: Neighborhood Selection: After computing item similarities, the system selects a set of similar items (referred to as the item neighbourhood) for each item in the system.
- Step 3: Recommendation Generation: When a user interacts with an item, the system identifies the items in its neighbourhood and recommends them to the user. These recommended items are typically those with the highest similarity to the items the user has already liked or interacted with.

1.2.2 Content-Based Filtering

Content-based filtering [8] is a recommendation technique that suggests items to users based on the features and characteristics of items as shown in Figure 1.2 [9] they have previously liked or interacted with. Instead of relying on the preferences of other users, content-based filtering focuses on analysing the attributes and metadata of items to make recommendations. This approach is particularly useful when there is rich item metadata available, such as textual descriptions, tags, or attributes. Here's how content-based filtering works:

1.2.2.1 Item Representation

Each item in the system is represented by a set of features or attributes. These features can vary depending on the type of items being recommended. For example, in a movie recommendation system, features could include genre, director, actors, plot keywords, and so on. In a music recommendation system, features could include artist, genre, album, and musical attributes like tempo and mood.

1.2.2.2 User Profile Creation:

When a user interacts with items in the system (e.g., likes, rates, views), their preferences are captured and used to create a user profile. This profile typically consists of weighted features representing the user's preferences based on the items they have interacted with. The weights assigned to each feature in the user profile are determined based on the strength of the user's interaction with the corresponding item feature. For example, if a user frequently interacts with action movies, the genre feature "action" would have a higher weight in their profile.

1.2.2.3 Item Similarity Calculation:

Once the user profile is created, the system calculates the similarity between the user profile and each item in the system. This similarity is typically computed using similarity metrics such as cosine similarity or Jaccard similarity. The similarity score indicates how closely the features of an item match the preferences indicated in the user profile. Items with higher similarity scores are considered more relevant to the user's interests.

1.2.2.4 Recommendation Generation:

Based on the similarity scores, the system generates a list of recommended items for the user. Items with the highest similarity scores are prioritized and presented to the user as recommendations. These recommended items are typically those that share similar features with the items the user has previously liked or interacted with.

1.2.3 Hybrid Recommendation Systems

Hybrid recommendation systems combine multiple recommendation techniques, such as collaborative filtering and content-based filtering as shown in **Figure(4.8)**[9], to provide more accurate, diverse, and personalized recommendations. By leveraging the strengths of different methods, hybrid systems aim to overcome the limitations of individual approaches and enhance the overall recommendation performance. Here's how hybrid recommendation systems work and why they are beneficial:

1.2.3.1 Combining Collaborative Filtering and Content-Based Filtering:

Collaborative Filtering (CF): CF relies on user-item interactions to make recommendations. It's effective in capturing user preferences and identifying similar users

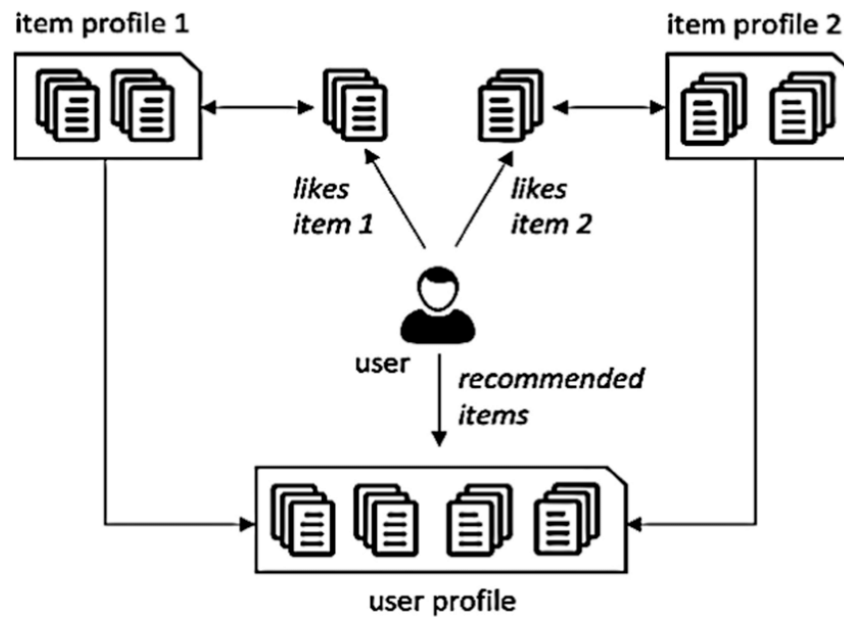


Figure 1.2: Content-based recommender system

or items based on historical data.

Content-Based Filtering (CBF): CBF recommends items based on the features and characteristics of items. It's useful for understanding item attributes and making recommendations even in the absence of user-item interactions.

1.2.3.2 Types of Hybrid Recommendation Systems:

Weighted Hybrid: In this approach, recommendations from different methods (e.g., CF and CBF) are combined using weighted averages or other fusion techniques. The weights can be static or dynamically adjusted based on user preferences or recommendation performance by this Formula:

$$[\text{Prediction Score} = w_{CF} \cdot \text{CF Score} + w_{CBF} \cdot \text{CBF Score}] [10]$$

Switching Hybrid: This approach dynamically selects the most suitable recommendation method based on certain conditions or contexts. For example, if a user has a rich history of interactions, collaborative filtering might be prioritized, whereas contentbased filtering might be used for new users or items.

$$\text{Switching Hybrid: } \begin{cases} \text{Collaborative Filtering (CF),} & \text{if rich interaction history} \\ \text{Content-Based Filtering (CBF),} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Feature Combination Hybrid: : Here, features extracted from both collaborative and contentbased methods are combined into a single feature representation. This combined feature representation is then used to make recommendations, leveraging the strengths of both methods

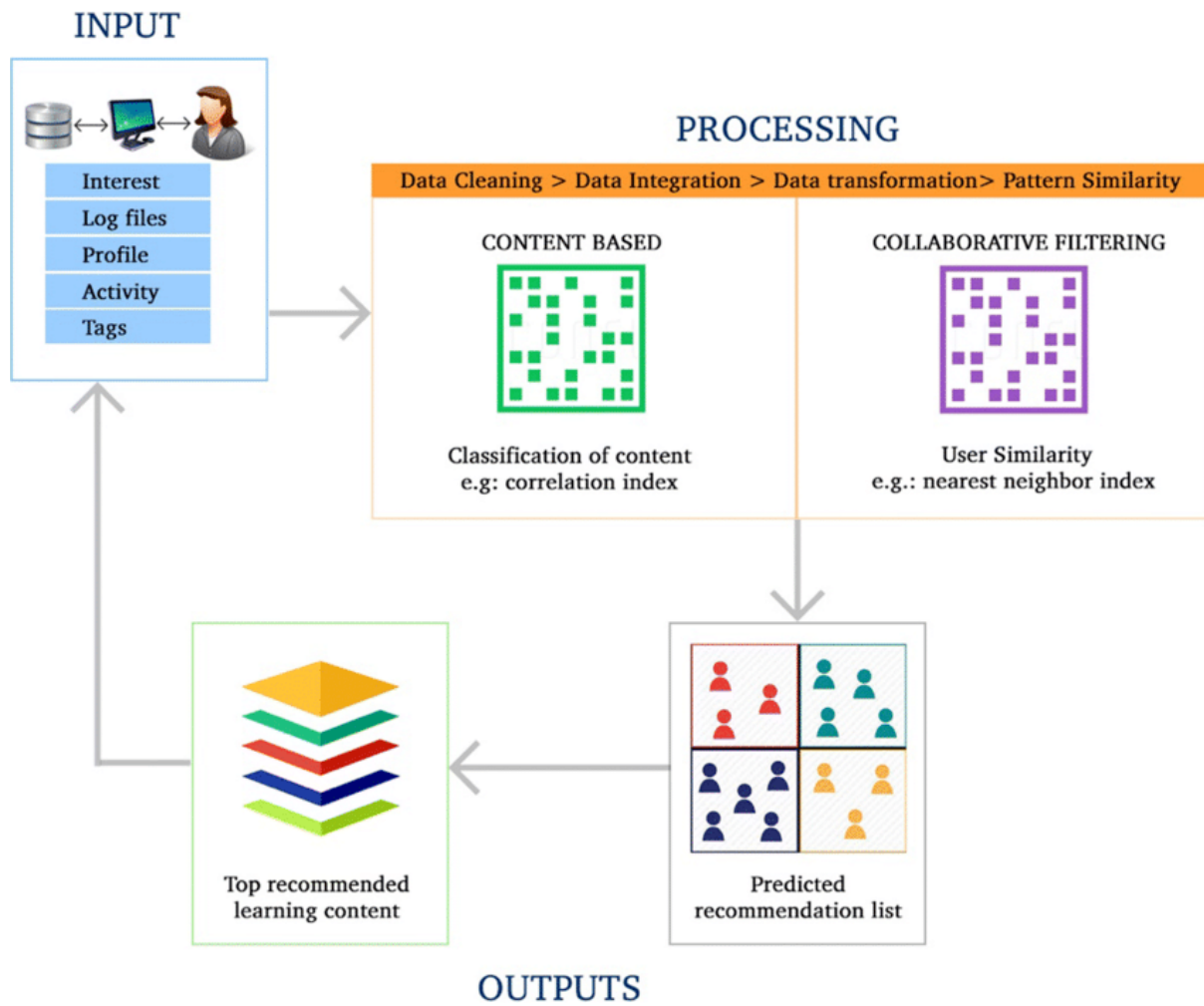


Figure 1.3: System architecture of Hybrid recommendation system

simultaneously.

Combined Feature= Concatenation(CF Features, CBF Features)

1.2.4 Knowledge-Based Recommendation Systems

Incorporate domain knowledge or expert rules into the recommendation process. Recommend items based on explicit knowledge about user preferences, item properties, or domainspecific constraints.

1.2.5 Context-Aware Recommendation Systems

Take into account contextual information such as time, location, device, or user activity. Adapt recommendations based on the current context to provide more relevant suggestions.

1.2.6 Matrix Factorization Models

Decompose user-item interaction matrices into lower-dimensional representations to capture latent features. Utilize matrix factorization techniques like Singular Value Decomposition (SVD) or Alternating Least Squares (ALS) to make recommendations.[11]

1.2.7 Session-Based Recommendation Systems

Recommend items to users based on their current session or shortterm preferences. Tailor recommendations to reflect user behavior within a single browsing session.

1.2.8 Deep Learning-Based Recommendation Systems

Employ neural network architectures, such as recurrent neural networks (RNNs), convolutional neural networks (CNNs), or transformers, for recommendation tasks. Leverage deep learning models to capture complex patterns and interactions in useritem data.

Chapter 2

Large Language Model (LLM)

2.1 Introduction

A Large Language Model (LLM) is a type of artificial intelligence model designed to understand and generate human-like text based on vast amounts of training data. LLMs are typically built using deep learning architectures, particularly transformer-based architectures, which have demonstrated significant advancements in natural language processing (NLP) tasks.

2.2 Training Paradigms in Large Language Models

2.2.1 Pre-training

Involves training LLMs on a vast corpus to understand various linguistic aspects. It includes tasks like Masked Language Modeling (MLM) and Next Token Prediction (NTP), which help LLMs grasp the nuances of language and meaning.

2.2.2 Fine-tuning

Refers to adapting pre-trained LLMs to specific downstream tasks using task-specific datasets. This process specializes the model's knowledge for improved performance in recommendation tasks.

2.2.3 Prompting

A method to apply LLMs' learned knowledge and reasoning skills to new tasks by providing appropriate instructions or task demonstrations, enhancing their generalization performance without extensive fine-tuning.

2.2.4 LoRA (Local Relational Attention)

Low-Rank Adaptation (LoRA) is a technique designed to efficiently adapt pre-trained language models by incorporating trainable low-rank matrices into each layer of the model, thus allowing for efficient fine-tuning without updating the entire model. LoRA's architecture involves utilizing the existing pre-trained model and introducing additional low-rank matrices (A and B) into the weight matrices of each layer. These low-rank matrices are the only trainable parameters, while the original model parameters remain frozen. During fine-tuning, these matrices are updated, reducing computational and memory overhead. The overall weight matrix in each layer is expressed as the sum of the pre-trained weights and the product of the low-rank matrices, enhancing the model's capacity to learn task-specific features without significantly increasing the number of trainable parameters. [12].

2.2.5 RAG (Retrieval-Augmented Generation)

Retrieval-Augmented Generation (RAG) is a model architecture that combines retrieval-based and generation-based approaches to enhance the quality and accuracy of language generation tasks. RAG consists of two main components: a retriever and a generator. The retriever searches a large corpus to find relevant documents or passages related to the input query, while the generator, typically a language model like BART or T5, generates text based on the input and the retrieved documents. In practice, the retriever fetches a set of relevant documents given a query, which are then combined with the original query to form a more informative input for the generator. The generator uses this augmented input to produce the final output, leveraging the additional context provided by the retrieved documents. This two-step process allows the model to generate more accurate and contextually relevant responses by grounding its output in real-world information.[13].

2.3 The models of LLMs

Large Language Models (LLMs) encompass a wide range of models developed for natural language processing tasks. Here's a list of some of the most prominent LLMs:

2.3.1 GPT (Generative Pre-trained Transformer) Series

1: GPT-1:

- **Architecture:** Transformer decoder.
- **Parameters:** 117 million.
- **Training Objective:** Causal language modeling.
- **Applications:** Text generation, dialogue systems [14].

- **GPT-2:**
 - **Architecture:** Improved transformer decoder.
 - **Parameters:** 1.5 billion.
 - **Training Objective:** Causal language modeling.
 - **Applications:** More coherent and contextually aware text generation, storytelling, summarization [15].
- **GPT-3:**
 - **Architecture:** Transformer decoder.
 - **Parameters:** 175 billion.
 - **Training Objective:** Causal language modeling.
 - **Applications:** Extensive text generation, question answering, translation, conversational AI [16].
- **GPT-4:**
 - **Architecture:** Enhanced transformer decoder with potential improvements in scaling, efficiency, and multi-modal capabilities.
 - **Parameters:** Estimated at around 1 trillion.
 - **Training Objective:** Advanced causal language modeling.
 - **Applications:** Wide-ranging applications in AI, including nuanced text generation, complex problem solving, and creative tasks (not yet published).

2.3.2 BERT (Bidirectional Encoder Representations from Transformers) Series

- **BERT:**
 - **Architecture:** Transformer encoder.
 - **Parameters:** 110 million (BERT-base), 340 million (BERT-large).
 - **Training Objectives:** Masked Language Modeling (MLM) and Next Sentence Prediction (NSP).
 - **Applications:** Text classification, sentiment analysis, question answering, named entity recognition.
- **RoBERTa:**
 - **Architecture:** Enhanced transformer encoder based on BERT.

- **Parameters:** Similar to BERT but trained with more data and computational power.
- **Training Objective:** Masked Language Modeling (MLM).
- **Applications:** Improved performance on NLP tasks like classification and question answering.
- **DistilBERT:**
 - **Architecture:** Compressed version of BERT.
 - **Parameters:** Approximately 66 million.
 - **Training Objective:** Distillation of BERT with MLM.
 - **Applications:** Lightweight NLP tasks requiring less computational power.

2.3.3 T5 (Text-to-Text Transfer Transformer)

- **T5:**
 - **Architecture:** Transformer encoder-decoder.
 - **Parameters:** Ranging from 60 million (T5-small) to 11 billion (T5-11B).
 - **Training Objective:** Unified text-to-text framework.
 - **Applications:** Translation, summarization, question answering, and other NLP tasks.

2.3.4 XLNet

- **XLNet:**
 - **Architecture:** Transformer with autoregressive and autoencoding capabilities.
 - **Parameters:** 110 million (XLNet-base), 340 million (XLNet-large).
 - **Training Objective:** Permutation-based language modeling.
 - **Applications:** Language understanding, text generation, classification.

2.3.5 ALBERT (A Lite BERT)

- **ALBERT:**
 - **Architecture:** Transformer encoder with parameter sharing.
 - **Parameters:** Reduced compared to BERT (up to 18 million for ALBERT-base).
 - **Training Objectives:** Similar to BERT with additional sentence order prediction.
 - **Applications:** Efficient NLP tasks with reduced computational requirements.

2.3.6 BART (Bidirectional and Auto-Regressive Transformers)

- **BART:**
 - **Architecture:** Transformer encoder-decoder.
 - **Parameters:** 140 million (BART-base), 400 million (BART-large).
 - **Training Objective:** Denoising autoencoder.
 - **Applications:** Summarization, translation, text generation.

2.3.7 ERNIE (Enhanced Representation through Knowledge Integration)

- **ERNIE:**
 - **Architecture:** Transformer encoder.
 - **Parameters:** Comparable to BERT with additional knowledge integration.
 - **Training Objectives:** Similar to BERT with enhanced external knowledge.
 - **Applications:** Improved performance on tasks requiring external knowledge.

2.3.8 Megatron-LM

- **Megatron-LM:**
 - **Architecture:** Scalable transformer architecture.
 - **Parameters:** Up to 8.3 billion.
 - **Training Objectives:** Optimized for large-scale training.
 - **Applications:** High-performance NLP tasks requiring large-scale models.

2.3.9 Switch Transformer

- **Switch Transformer:**
 - **Architecture:** Mixture of experts model using transformer layers.
 - **Parameters:** Scales up to 1.6 trillion parameters.
 - **Training Objectives:** Efficient scaling with sparse activation.
 - **Applications:** Scalable and efficient handling of large datasets.

2.3.10 GShard

- **GShard:**
 - **Architecture:** Transformer with sharded models.
 - **Parameters:** Exceeds 600 billion.
 - **Training Objectives:** Efficient distributed training across multiple devices.
 - **Applications:** Extremely large-scale NLP tasks.

2.4 Why we Using BERT in E-commerce Recommendation Systems

Using BERT in recommendation systems for e-commerce brings several significant advantages, primarily due to its advanced capabilities in natural language understanding. Here are the key reasons:

2.4.1 Contextual Understanding

BERT reads text bidirectionally, allowing it to grasp the context of words based on surrounding text. This leads to more accurate interpretations of user queries, product descriptions, and reviews, enhancing the recommendation quality.[17]

2.4.2 Handling Complex and Ambiguous Queries

By understanding the context, BERT resolves ambiguities and processes complex queries effectively, ensuring relevant recommendations are provided to users even when the queries are intricate or unclear.[18]

2.4.3 Improved Semantic Search

BERT enhances semantic search by understanding the intent behind queries and expanding them with semantically similar terms. This improves the retrieval of relevant products, making search results more precise and useful[1].

2.4.4 Enhanced User Interaction Understanding

BERT improves interactions with chatbots and virtual assistants, as well as analyzes user reviews to gauge sentiment. This ability to understand user feedback helps in refining recommendations based on actual user experiences and opinions[19].

2.4.5 Personalization

By accurately modeling user intent and understanding detailed content, BERT provides personalized recommendations tailored to individual preferences. This leads to a more satisfying user experience as users are presented with products that match their interests[20].

2.4.6 Integration with Existing Systems

BERT can be combined with traditional algorithms to create hybrid systems. These hybrid systems benefit from the robustness and accuracy of BERT, enhancing the overall performance of the recommendation engine [21].

2.4.7 Adaptability and Transfer Learning

BERT's pre-trained models can be fine-tuned with domain-specific data, making it adaptable and capable of continuous learning. This ensures that the recommendation system remains relevant over time as it learns from new data[22].

2.4.8 Enhanced Content Generation

BERT aids in generating and summarizing product descriptions and reviews, maintaining up-to-date information and boosting user engagement. This capability ensures that content remains fresh and informative, which is crucial for e-commerce platforms [23].

Architecture of BERT

Transformer Architecture

- **Self-Attention Mechanism:** Allows the model to focus on different parts of the input sequence to understand the context of each word. It computes weights for relationships between all words in the sequence.
- **Multi-Head Attention:** Enhances learning by applying the self-attention mechanism multiple times in parallel with different weights, capturing various aspects of word relationships.
- **Feed-Forward Networks:** Transform the representation further by processing each position in the sequence independently after the attention layer.
- **Positional Encoding:** Adds information about the relative positions of words since the architecture doesn't inherently understand word order.
- **Layers and Blocks:** Consists of multiple layers of the above mechanisms, building deep representations of the text.

Pre-training and Fine-tuning

- **Pre-training:**
 - **Masked Language Modeling (MLM):** Trains BERT to predict masked tokens in the input, helping it understand word context.
 - **Next Sentence Prediction (NSP):** Trains BERT to understand the relationship between sentences by predicting if a sentence follows another [24].
- **Fine-tuning:** Adapts the pre-trained BERT to specific tasks by adding a task-specific layer and training on labeled data. In e-commerce, this can include:
 - **Product Recommendation:** Predicting products based on user data.
 - **Sentiment Analysis:** Analyzing user reviews to determine sentiment.
 - **Query Understanding:** Improving search relevance by understanding and categorizing user queries.

BERT leverages the Transformer architecture's self-attention to deeply understand text context and uses a two-step training process to adapt to specific NLP tasks, making it highly effective for e-commerce applications.

After carefully considering various models for our recommendation system, we decided to use BERT due to its powerful capabilities in understanding contextual relationships within text. BERT's architecture, based on the Transformer model with its self-attention mechanisms, enables it to capture intricate dependencies and nuances in language, making it highly suitable for our needs in e-commerce. Following this decision, we selected BERT4Rec as the specific model variant for our project. BERT4Rec leverages the strengths of BERT and is tailored for sequential recommendation tasks, allowing it to effectively model user behavior over time and provide personalized product recommendations. This choice ensures that we can utilize the robust language understanding of BERT while also addressing the unique challenges of recommendation systems in e-commerce.

BERT4REC:

BERT4Rec [25] is a model for sequential recommendation that employs Bidirectional Encoder Representations from Transformers (BERT) to model user behavior sequences. Unlike traditional methods that encode users' historical interactions in a unidirectional manner (from left to right), BERT4Rec uses a deep bidirectional self-attention mechanism. This allows each item in a user's historical behavior sequence to integrate information from both the left and right context, leading to a more comprehensive representation of user preferences.

The model is trained using a Cloze task, where random items in a sequence are masked, and the model predicts these masked items by considering their surrounding context. This approach

generates more training samples and helps in learning a powerful bidirectional representation model for making recommendations. Extensive experiments have shown that BERT4Rec consistently outperforms various state-of-the-art sequential models.

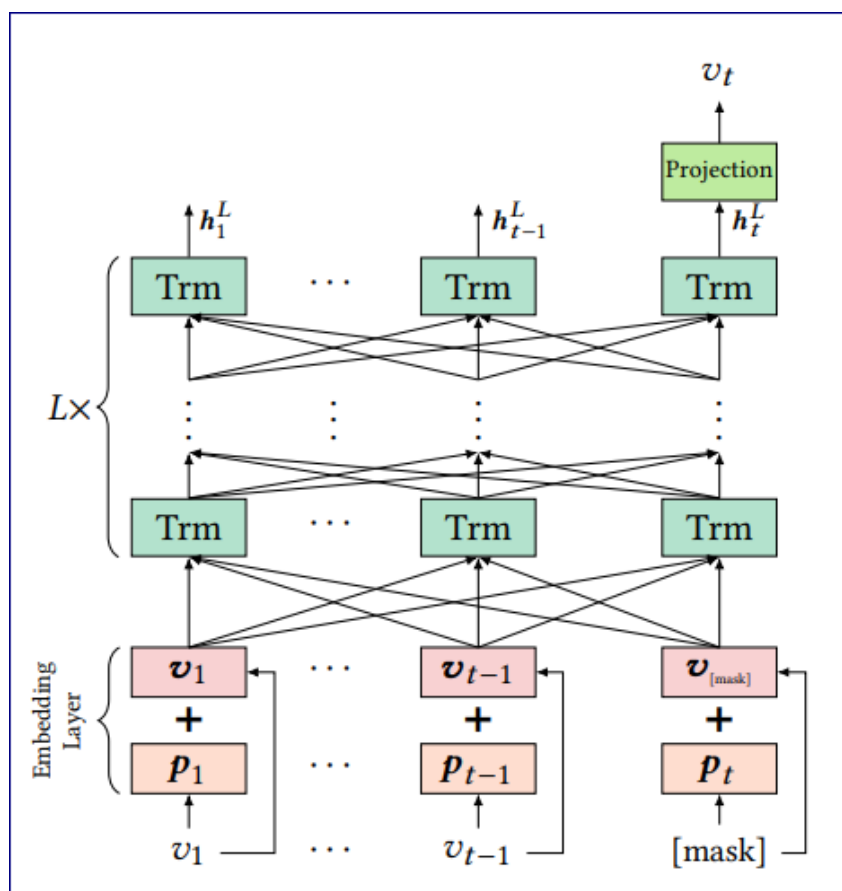


Figure 2.1: BERT4Rec model architecture [21]

fig2.1 demonstrates architecture of BERT4Rec . It is composed of an embedding layer and L Transformer layers. It receives an item sequence of length t as input and computes the final hidden vector representation of each item (the output of the L^{th} layer)

Chapter 3

Using large language models (LLMs) in recommendation system: State of the art

The project [26] proposes a medicine recommendation system that uses ML and NLP approaches to provide personalized recommendations based on data from numerous sources. The technology combines content-based filtering with collaborative filtering to offer precise, individualised medication recommendations through a hybrid paradigm. The user-friendly interface allows users to input their preferences and medical information, and the visualization tools facilitate decision-making. The technology also features an infinite feedback loop for continuous improvement. The majority of prescribed medications perform better than baseline models in comparative assessments for every illness, showing improvements in accuracy and customization. The user-friendly interface, which is further improved by the recommendation visualization, increases accessibility. As a result, user feedback on the healthcare adaptable model has greatly enhanced its performance, proving how well it meets expectations and enhancing patient outcomes.

The study [2] focuses on recommender systems, which forecast user preferences or item evaluations using large language models (LLMs). LLMs are a promising technology because they can extract sophisticated representations of objects and users from big datasets. The authors review current work that integrates LLMs into recommender systems, focusing on modeling paradigms and adaptation strategies. LLMs can read rich textual data, such as user reviews, descriptions, and other textual information, in order to make more informed suggestions. Despite this, the study notes that there are special hurdles to using LLMs in recommender systems, such as the need for rigorous data, training, and inference process design. In addition to outlining potential advantages and examining the field's frontiers, the paper offers a useful survey of the current research landscape.

The paper [27] looks into leveraging Large Language Models (LLMs) to enhance sequential recommendation systems. The authors propose three ways to use LLMs: **LLMSeqSim**, which suggests items with comparable embeddings; **LLMSeqPrompt**, which fine-tunes an LLM with dataset-specific prompts to create recommendations; and **LLM2BERT4Rec**, which initializes a sequential model using LLM embeddings. Experiments on two datasets show that LLM2BERT4Rec improves accuracy, demonstrating the potential of LLMs for semantically rich recommendations.

The publication [28] provides a detailed overview of recommender systems augmented by Large Language Models (LLMs), including GPT variants and BERT. They talk about how LLMs may be integrated into recommender systems, which is becoming increasingly crucial as e-commerce and online applications increase. The study discusses many elements of LLM-powered recommender systems, such as pre-training, fine-tuning, and prompting approaches. It discusses the difficulties that standard Deep Neural Network (DNN)-based approaches encounter in detecting user interests and obtaining textual side information, as well as how LLMs might overcome these limits by utilizing sophisticated language understanding and creation skills. The authors also investigate the possibility of LLMs for generalizing to unknown recommendation scenarios and reasoning on predictions, which might considerably enhance the performance of recommender systems across different domains. The paper concludes with a discussion on promising future directions in this emerging field.

In this paper[29], the authors introduce **ICSRec (Intent Contrastive Learning with Cross Subsequences for Sequential Recommendation)**, a novel model designed to enhance the performance of sequential recommendation systems by modeling users' latent intentions. The key innovation of ICSRec lies in its ability to segment a user's sequential behaviors into multiple subsequences, which are then used to generate representations for the user's intentions. The model assumes that different subsequences with the same target item may represent the same intention and employs a **coarse-grain intent contrastive learning** approach to bring these subsequences closer in the latent space. Additionally, **fine-grain intent contrastive learning** is introduced to capture more nuanced intentions within subsequences. The effectiveness of ICSRec is demonstrated through extensive experiments on real-world datasets, showing a significant improvement over baseline methods. The paper's contributions include the utilization of cross subsequence patterns for intent representation learning and the introduction of two modules to model user intentions from different dimensions. The proposed approach addresses the challenges of leveraging user intentions in sequential recommendation, where intentions are often varied and unobserved.

In a research paper, [17] Devlin et al. (2019) they introduce BERT (Bidirectional Encoder Representations from Transformers) a language model created to train deep bidirectional representations from unlabelled text. BERT stands out for its ability to incorporate both left and right context in all layers during pre training making it possible to tune with one additional output layer to produce cutting edge models for a wide array of tasks without significant task specific architectural changes. The study emphasizes the simplicity and effectiveness of BERT highlighting its attainment of state of the art performance on eleven natural language processing tasks. The authors assert that BERTs bidirectional pre training plays a role in its success by enabling the model to acquire general language representations that prove beneficial, for diverse downstream applications.

In this paper [30] delves into Retrieval Augmented Large Language Models (RA LLMs) which combine retrieval methods, with models to enhance the quality of text generation. RA LLMs aim to overcome the limitations of Language Models (LLMs) such as generating information and using outdated data by utilizing external databases for up to date content. The study examines the architectures training approaches and applications of RA LLMs underscoring their importance in creating AI generated content across fields like online shopping. It underscores the role of retrieval in providing details thus enhancing LLMs performance in tasks, like answering questions and making recommendations. Additionally the paper looks ahead to research paths centering on the aspects of RA LLMs and their potential to transform information retrieval and content creation tasks.

Chapter 4

Experimental Results

4.1 introduction

Inspired by recent progresses in artificial intelligence (AI) and machine learning, especially by the use of the BERT (Bidirectional Encoder Representations from Transformers) function, we aim at improving recommendation systems in e-commerce, more specifically: the market of second hand cars. Our goal is to use the state of the art in these methods to create a recommender system which reflects this on a user-by-user level. Here, [31]. The paper was originally inspired by BERT4Rec [1], a state-of-the-art model purely for sequential recommendation. We want to change the way e-commerce recommendation systems work and provide personalized car recommendations to users by training a BERT4Rec model on a dataset of used car listings to create a real case study, targeting the same goals and perhaps boosting sales.

4.2 Data Cleaning and Preprocessing

4.2.1 Explanation of Dataset

The used cars dataset used [32], brought on table nearly extinct details fallen under used cars category serves as an invaluable tool not just to track resale trends recommender systems - by the market and in training a model. By incorporating such as a car's model name, the year of manufacture or the amount of miles driven, The dataset contains information such as fuel type, transmission, ownership status and pricing details. Offers massive heterogeneous data sets for batch and real-time, Provides rich and diverse data points that can be used to create empowered recommendation models.

4.2.2 Dataset Overview

The dataset usedcarsdata contains information about used cars, including:

- **S.No.:** Serial number.

- **Name:** Car model name.
- **Location:** City where the car is available.
- **Year:** Manufacturing year.
- **Kilometers-Driven:** Total distance driven by the car.
- **Fuel-Type:** Type of fuel used (e.g., Petrol, Diesel, CNG).
- **Transmission:** Type of transmission (e.g., Manual, Automatic).
- **Owner-Type:** Ownership status (e.g., First owner, Second owner).
- **Mileage:** Fuel efficiency (e.g., kmpl for kilometers per liter, km/kg for kilometers per kilogram).
- **Engine:** Engine capacity (e.g., in CC).
- **Power:** Engine power (e.g., in bhp - brake horsepower).
- **Seats:** Number of seats in the car.
- **New-Price:** Original price of the car when it was new.
- **Price:** Current price of the used car.

4.2.3 Initial Data Exploration

Initial DataFrame Information:

- Displays the structure of the DataFrame including the number of entries, columns, data types, and memory usage.
- Identifies any missing values and provides a basic understanding of the dataset.

	Column	Non-Null Count	Dtype
0	S.No.	7253 non-null	int64
1	Name	7253 non-null	Object
2	Location	7253 non-null	Object
3	Year	7253 non-null	int64
4	Kilometers_Driven	7253 non-null	int64
5	Fuel_Type	7253 non-null	Object
6	Transmission	7253 non-null	Object
7	Owner_Type	7253 non-null	Object
8	Mileage	7207 non-null	Object
9	Engine	7207 non-null	Object
10	Power	7207 non-null	Object
11	Seats	6006 non-null	float64
12	New_Price	1006 non-null	float64
13	Price	6019 non-null	float64

Table 4.1: DataFrame Information:

Initial DataFrame Preview:

Shows the first few rows of the dataset to provide an initial view of the data and its attributes.

	0	1	2	3	4
S.No.	0	1	2	3	4
Name	Maruti Wagon	Hyundai Creta	Honda Jazz V	Maruti VDI	Audi A4
Location	Mumbai	Pune	Chennai	Chennai	Coimbatore
Year	2010	2015	2011	2012	2013
Kilometers-Driven	72000	41000	46000	87000	40670
Fuel-Type	CNG	Diesel	Petrol	Diesel	Diesel
Transmission	Manual	Manual	Manual	Manual	Automatic
Owner-Type	First	First	First	First	Second
Mileage	26.6 km/kg	19.67 kmpl	18.2 kmpl	20.77 kmpl	15.2 kmpl
Engine	998 CC	1582 CC	1199 CC	1248 CC	1968 CC
Power	58.16 bhp	126.2 bhp	88.7 bhp	88.76 bhp	140.8 bhp
Seats	5	5	5	7	5
Newprice	Nan	Nan	8.61 Lakh	Nan	Nan
Price	1.75	12.5	4.5	6	17.74

Table 4.2: Initial DataFrame

4.2.4 Handling Missing Values**Displaying Missing Values:**

- Identifies the number of missing values in each column before cleaning.
- Helps understand the extent of missing data and which columns are affected.

	Column	Missing Values
0	S.No.	0
1	Name	0
2	Location	0
3	Year	0
4	Kilometers-Driven	0
5	Fuel-Type	0
6	Transmission	0
7	Owner-Type	0
8	Mileage	2
9	Engine	46
10	Power	46
11	Seats	53
12	New-Price	6247
13	Price	1234

Table 4.3: Handling Missing Values

Removing Rows with Missing Values:

- Drops rows that contain any missing values to ensure a clean dataset.
- We remove all rows with at least one missing value.
- We remove all column of New-Price because has 6247 missing value so we Can't use it .
- Provides missing values before cleaning.

	Column	Missing Values
0	S.No.	0
1	Name	0
2	Location	0
3	Year	0
4	Kilometers-Driven	0
5	Fuel-Type	0
6	Transmission	0
7	Owner-Type	0
8	Mileage	0
9	Engine	0
10	Power	0
11	Seats	0
12	Price	0

Table 4.4: Removing Rows with Missing Values

4.2.5 Removing Duplicates

After we check the data for duplicate rows to ensure data uniqueness and integrity. We don't find any duplicates.

4.2.6 Ensuring Proper Data Types

Displaying Data Types:

- Shows the data types of each column before any conversion.
- Allows for checking if the data types are appropriate for each column.

	Column	Dtype
0	S.No.	int64
1	Name	Object
2	Location	Object
3	Year	int64
4	Kilometers _{Driven}	int64
5	Fuel _{Type}	Object
6	Transmission	Object
7	Owner _{Type}	Object
8	Mileage	Object
9	Engine	Object
10	Power	Object
11	Seats	float64
12	Price	float64

Table 4.5: Displaying Data Types

Data Type Conversion:

- Provides an opportunity to convert columns to the correct data types (e.g., converting strings to integers, floats, or dates).
- This step ensures that each column is in the correct format for analysis.

	Column	Dtype
0	S.No.	int64
1	Name	Object
2	Location	Object
3	Year	int64
4	Kilometers _{Driven}	int64
5	Fuel _{Type}	Object
6	Transmission	Object
7	Owner _{Type}	Object
8	Mileage	float64
9	Engine	int64
10	Power	float64
11	Seats	float64
12	Price	float64

Table 4.6: Data Type Conversion

4.2.7 Cleaned DataFrame Information

Cleaned DataFrame Info: - Displays the structure and summary of the cleaned DataFrame to confirm the cleaning process. - Ensures no missing values or duplicate entries are present.

Cleaned DataFrame Preview: - Shows the first few rows of the cleaned DataFrame to verify the final state of the data.

	0	1	2	3	4
S.No.	0	1	2	3	4
Name	Maruti Wagon	Hyundai Creta	Honda Jazz V	Maruti Ertiga VDI	Audi A4
Location	Mumbai	Pune	Chennai	Chennai	Coimbatore
Year	2010	2015	2011	2012	2013
Klmtrs-Driven	72000	41000	46000	87000	40670
Fuel-Type	CNG	Diesel	Petrol	Diesel	Diesel
Transmission	Manual	Manual	Manual	Manual	Automatic
Owner-Type	First	First	First	First	Second
Mileage	26.6	19.67	18.2	20.77	15.2
Engine	998	1582	1199	1248	1968
Power	58.16	126.2	88.7	88.76	140.8
Seats	5	5	5	7	5
Price	1.75	12.5	4.5	6	17.74

Table 4.7: the cleaned DataFrame

4.2.8 Saving and Downloading the Cleaned DataFrame

Save to CSV:

- Saves the cleaned DataFrame to a CSV file named cleaned-dataset.

- Ensures the cleaned data is stored and will be used for further analysis.

4.3 Data Preprocessing and Feature Engineering Overview

4.3.1 Unique Values before Encoding

Before encoding categorical features, it's crucial to comprehend the variety of unique categories within each column [31]. This preliminary step involves listing the distinct values present in categorical columns such as car name, location, fuel type, transmission type, and owner type. By examining these unique categories, valuable insights into the diversity and granularity of the dataset can be gained. The metric employed in this step focuses on determining the number of unique categories present in each categorical feature [33].

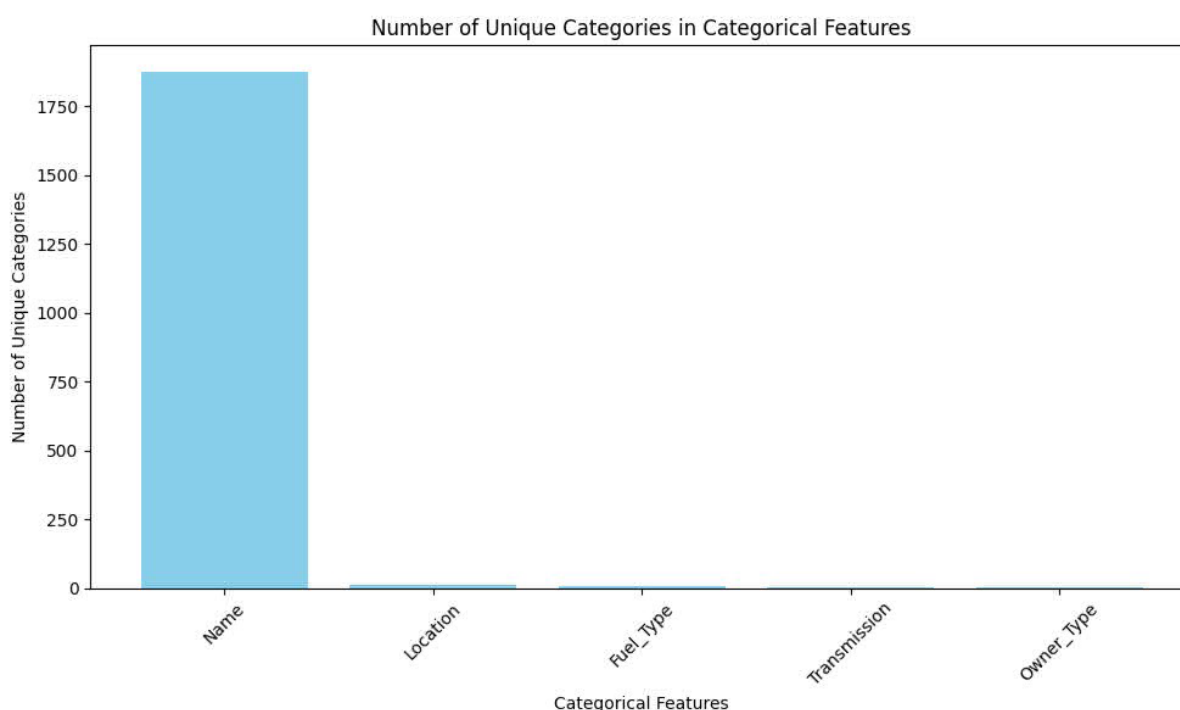


Figure 4.1: the number of unique categories present in each categorical feature

We see Name” feature having a higher number of unique categories because

- **Name:** has 1876 unique car names, with some names appearing more frequently than others. This high number of unique car names indicates a wide variety of car models in the dataset, contributing to the larger number of unique categories.
- **Location:** 11 unique locations where the cars are available. Mumbai has the highest count of cars listed, followed by Hyderabad and Kochi.
- **Fuel-Type:** There are 5 unique fuel types, with diesel and petrol being the most common fuel types listed in the dataset. Electric cars are the least common.

- **Transmission:** has 2 unique values indicating whether the car has a manual or automatic transmission. Manual transmission cars are more common in the dataset compared to automatic transmission cars.
- **Owner-Type:** has 4 unique categories representing the ownership status of the cars. "First" ownership is the most common category, followed by "Second" and "Third" ownership, with very few cars listed as "Fourth Above" owners.

Encoded Values In other words, we are turning our character class feature to factor and our factor class feature to integer, to use them in a machine learning model. This step of the process demonstrates how the original values have been mapped, which can be very useful both to understand what has been encoded and to validate the encoding process. The features in the current step are the categorical columns after the label-encoding with the categorical features dictionary, used by the metric that checks if the encoding was successful and is the correct transparent mapping [34] [35].

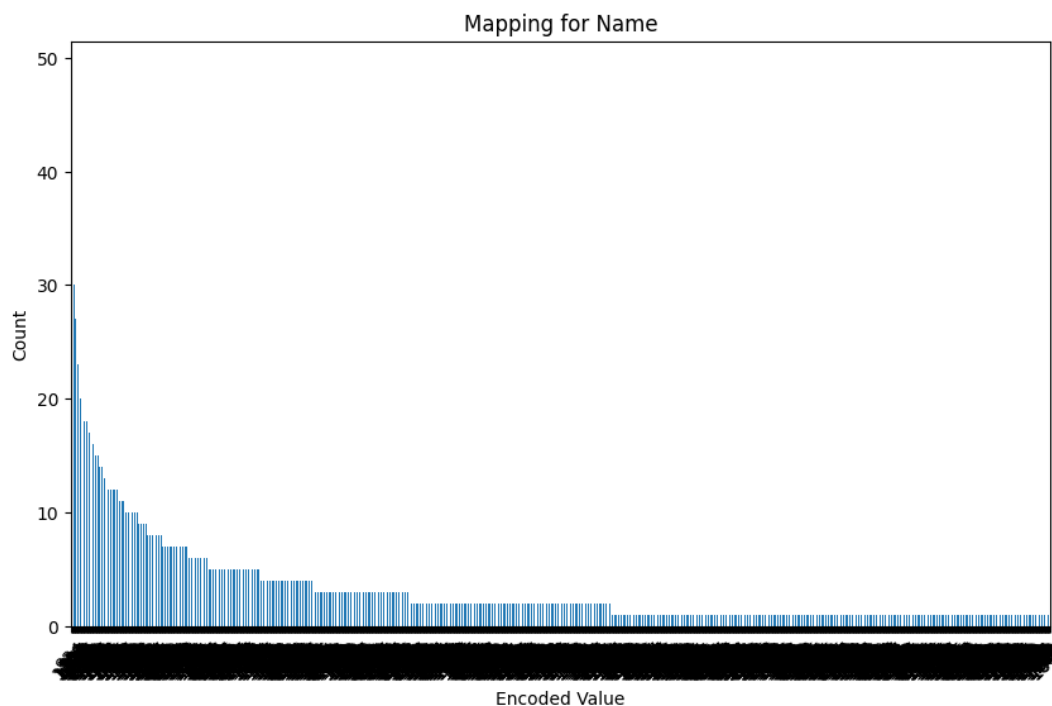


Figure 4.2: This figure shows the mapping between the original categorical values of 'Name' And their respective encoded representations.

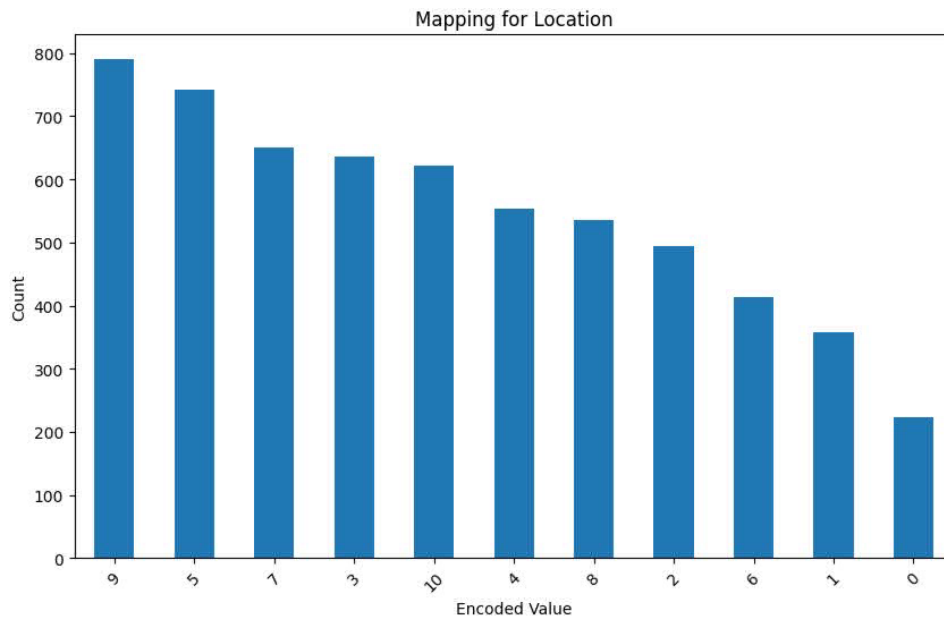


Figure 4.3: This figure shows the mapping between the original categorical values of 'Location' and their respective encoded representations.

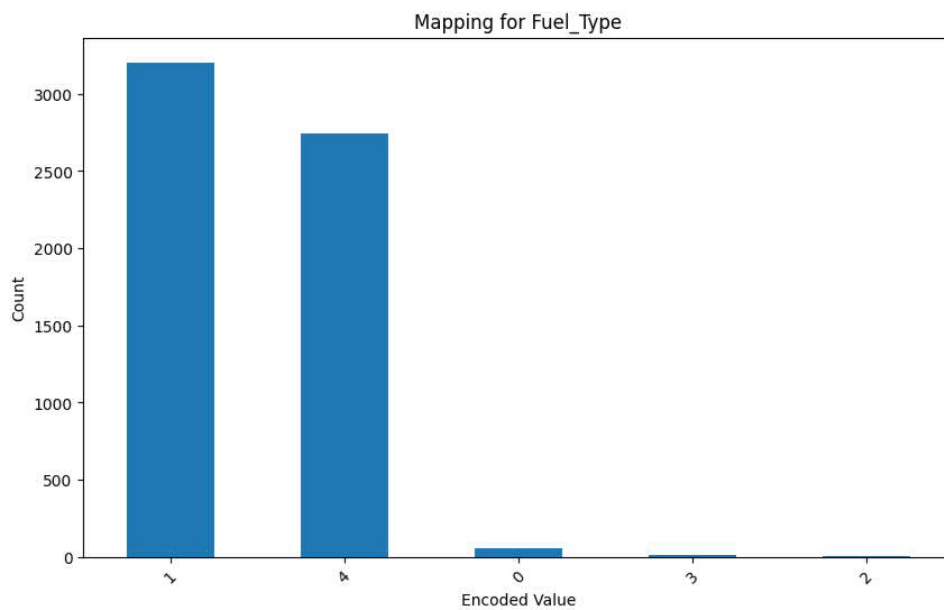


Figure 4.4: This figure shows the mapping between the original categorical values of 'Fuel-Type' and their respective encoded representations.

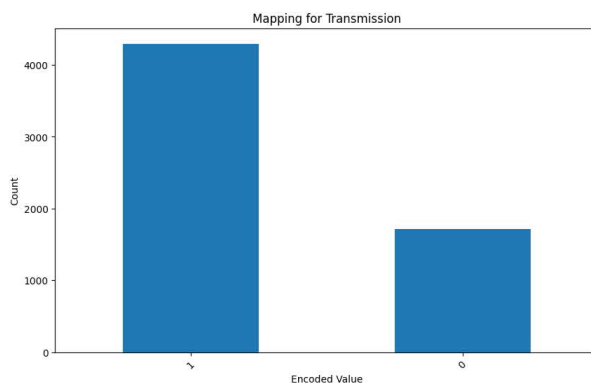


Figure 4.5: This figure shows the mapping between the original categorical values of 'Transmission' and their respective encoded representations.

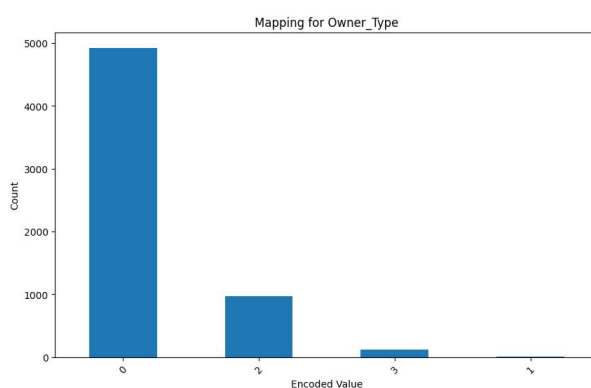


Figure 4.6: This figure shows the mapping between the original categorical values of 'Owner_Type' and their respective encoded representations.

4.3.2 Summary Statistics Before and After Normalization

Normalization is a technique that brings all the numerical features in the same scale. This process is to deliver summary statistics of standard deviation etc, from different attributes before and after normalisation. This helps make the analyses more understandable and more accurate by visualizing the distribution and variability of the data. The numeric columns that are part of this process are the year, mileage, engine-cap, power, seats, and price. Normalization is performed using the scaling formula ($z = \frac{x - \mu}{\sigma}$) where z 's the standardized data, x is the original data/feature and μ and σ are average and standard deviation respectively to keep a few import statistical features unchanged during preprocessing.

4.3.3 Dimensionality of Feature Vectors

Feature vectors encapsulate the characteristics of each car interaction within the dataset, serving as fundamental input for subsequent model training processes. This phase entails discerning the dimensionality of these feature vectors, which elucidates the quantity of attributes encompassed within each vector. Such comprehension of dimensionality holds paramount importance

c	Year	Kilometers _{Driven}	Mileage	Engine	Power	Seats	Price
Count	6019.000	6.01900e+03	6019.000	6019.000	6019.000	6019.000	6019.000
Mean	2013.358	5.873838e+04	18.134963	1621.244891	120.787865	5.276790	9.479468
Std	3.269	9.126884e+04	4.581528	599.554003	50.226081	0.806346	11.187917
Min	1998.0	1.710e+02	0.000000	72.0	34.20	0.00	0.440000
25%	2011.0	3.400000e+04	15.170000	1198.0	86.80	5.0	3.500000
50%	2014.0	5.300000e+04	18.150000	1493.000000	120.0	5.0	5.640000
75%	2016.0	7.30e+04	21.100000	1969.000	138.030	5.0	9.950000
max	2019.0	6.500e+06	33.540000	5998.000	560.000	10.00	160.000

Table 4.8: Summary statistics before normalization

c	Power	Seats	Price	Normalized Value
Count	6019.000000	6019.000000	6019.000000	4.213300e+04
Mean	120.787865	5.276790	9.479468	-9.917040e-16
Std	50.226081	0.806346	11.187917	1.000012e+00
Min	34.200000	0.000000	0.440000	6.544620e+00
25%	86.800000	5.000000	3.500000	-4.585210e-01
50%	120.000000	5.000000	5.640000	-2.163391e-01
75%	138.030000	5.000000	9.950000	3.433190e-01
max	560.000000	10.000000	160.000000	7.058046e+01

Table 4.9: Summary statistics after normalization

for comprehending the intricacies of the input data and for facilitating effective model training procedures. The features utilized in this step encompass all pertinent attributes present in the feature vectors, including car name, location, year, kilometers driven, fuel type, transmission type, owner type, mileage, engine capacity, power, seats, and price. The metric employed here evaluates the total number of features integrated into the feature vectors, providing crucial insights into the complexity and richness of the dataset's attribute space

4.3.4 Ensuring Data Consistency: Sequence Padding for Uniformity in Model Training

The above code snippet, you can come to know that a function where sequences are zero padded such that all sequences are of same length or truncated it in case of sequence is long enough. It is especially useful when training a model because it helps to better sort the data chronologically. Original Sequence length: The number of elements in each individual input columns before they were padded or truncated Padded Sequence length: After padding or truncating how many elements the input columns were ofagonally Zero Padding is effectively a way of determining the number of padding required during this process for all sequences henceforth to get to the same length. That made models trained on sequence data stronger and more predictable. This concept is extensively discussed in papers such as [36] and [37], which delve into sequence modeling and pre-processing techniques, including the use of padding in model training processes.

4.3.5 Sequence Padding and Truncation

Given a sequence s of variable length n the goal is to adjust this sequence to a fixed length L the operations be defined as follows:

Padding: If $n < L$ the sequence is padded with zero vectors until it reaches the length L . For a sequence:

$$s = (s_1, s_2, s_3, \dots, s_n)$$

$$s_{\text{padded}} = (s_1, s_2, s_3, \dots, s_n, 0, 0, \dots, 0)$$

Truncation: if $n > L$, the sequence is truncated to the length L For a sequence:

$$s = (s_1, s_2, s_3, \dots, s_n]$$

$$s_{\text{Truncation}} = (s_1, s_2, s_3, \dots, s_L, 0, 0, \dots, 0)$$

4.3.6 Input and Target Sequences

In sequence modeling, we often work with input sequences and corresponding target sequences for prediction tasks. Given a padded sequence .

$$s_{\text{padded}} = (s_1, s_2, s_3, \dots, s_L)$$

Input Sequence(x): All elements except the last one.

$$s = (s_1, s_2, s_3, \dots, s_{L-1})$$

Target Sequence (y): All elements except the first one (shifted by one position).

$$y = (s_1, s_2, s_3, \dots, s_L)$$

4.3.7 Attention Mask

The attention mask m is used to indicate which elements in the sequence are valid (not padding) and which are not. For a sequence of length n padded to L :

$$m = (1, 1, 1, \dots, 0, 0, 0, \dots, 0)$$

This mask helps the model to focus on the actual sequence data and ignore the padding during training and inference.

4.3.8 Flattening the Sequence

Flattening transforms a multi-dimensional sequence into a one-dimensional vector. If each element is s_i . in the sequence s is itself a vector of size d_i the flattened sequence s_{flat} is :

Flattening transforms a multi-dimensional sequence into a one-dimensional vector. If each element s_i in the sequence s is itself a vector of size d , the flattened sequence s_{flat} is:

$$s_{\text{flat}} = (S_{1,1}, S_{1,2}, S_{1,3}, \dots, S_{1,S}, S_{2,1}, S_{2,2}, S_{2,3}, \dots, S_{2,d}, \dots, S_{L,d})$$

Where s_j represents the j -th feature of the i -th element in the sequence. In this case the final shape of each sequence becomes $L \times D$. assuming $d=7, L=119$ the flattened sequence length is $119 \times 7 = 833$.

4.3.9 Creating the Dataset and DataLoader

For a dataset of N sequences, each sequence is padded/truncated to L . The dataset object enables efficient access to these sequences during training.

4.3.10 Training, Test, and Validation

The dataset is typically split into training, testing, and validation sets to evaluate the model's performance on unseen data. The split index is determined by the proportion of data allocated for training (e.g., 80% for training and 20% for testing):

$$k = \lfloor 0.8 \times N \rfloor$$

Where $\lfloor \cdot \rfloor$ denotes the floor function.

4.3.11 DataLoader

With a batch size B each batch contains B sequences, facilitating mini-batch gradient descent during training. The DataLoader also shuffles the training data to ensure that the model generalizes well and does not overfit to the order of the data.

Summary of Metrics and Formulas:

- **Sequence Length (n):** Original length of the sequence before padding or truncation.
- **Padded/Truncated Length (L):** Fixed length to which all sequences are adjusted (in this case, $L = 119$).
- **Attention Mask (m):** Binary mask indicating valid data in the sequence.
- **Input Sequence (x):** Sequence used as input to the model.
- **Target Sequence (y):** Sequence used as the target for prediction.
- **Flattened Sequence (s_{flat}):** One-dimensional representation of the sequence.
- **Batch Size (B):** Number of sequences processed in one training iteration (in this case, $B = 32$).

4.3.12 Training Loop

Setting the Model in Training Mode: Before iterating over the training data, the model is set to training mode using BERT4Rec. This step is crucial because it enables functionalities like dropout regularization and batch normalization that are specific to training.

Initializing Variables: Inside the training loop, variables are initialized to keep track of the total loss, all targets, and all predictions. These variables are necessary for calculating metrics and monitoring the training process.

Iterating Over Batches: The loop iterates over each batch in the training data loader. For each batch, the following steps are performed:

- **Zeroing Gradients:** The gradients of the model parameters are zeroed; this step ensures that gradients from previous iterations do not accumulate.
- **Moving Data to Device:** The inputs, targets, and attention masks are moved to the appropriate device (CPU or GPU).
- **Normalizing Targets:** The target values are normalized. Normalizing targets is a common practice in training neural networks as it helps stabilize the training process and speeds up convergence.
- **Forward Pass:** The input data is passed through the BERT4Rec model to obtain predictions. The outputs of the model are then passed through a linear layer to map them to the desired output dimensionality.
- **Calculating Loss:** The mean squared error (MSE) between the model predictions and normalized targets is calculated:

$$\text{MSE} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (Y_i - \hat{Y}_i)^2$$

- **Backward Pass and Gradient Clipping:** The loss is backpropagated through the network, and gradients are computed. To prevent exploding gradients, gradient clipping is applied.
- **Optimizer Step:** The optimizer **AdamW** updates the model parameters based on the computed gradients and the chosen optimization algorithm.

The update equation for **AdamW** summarized as follows:

$$\theta_{t+1} = \theta_t - \frac{\eta}{\sqrt{\hat{v}_t} + \epsilon} m_t - \lambda \theta_t$$

Where:

- (θ_t) represents the parameter vector at time step (t).
- (η) is the learning rate, determining the step size for parameter updates.
- (m_t) is the exponentially weighted moving average of gradients.
- (v_t) is the exponentially weighted moving average of squared gradients.
- ($\hat{v}_t = \frac{v_t}{1-\beta_2^t}$) is a small constant added to the denominator for numerical stability.
- (λ) is a weight decay coefficient, controlling the strength of the L2 regularization term.

(θ_{t+1}) represents the updated parameter vector.

The moving averages (m_t) and (v_t) are computed using the following formulas:

$$m_{t+1} = \beta_1 m_t + (1 - \beta_1) \nabla_{\theta} J(\theta)$$

$$v_{t+1} = \beta_2 v_t + (1 - \beta_2) (\nabla_{\theta} J(\theta))^2$$

(g_t) is the gradient of the loss with respect to the parameters at time step t .

(q_t) and (p_t) , which represent the exponential decay rates for moving averages (typically close to 1, e.g., $(q_t = 0.9)$ and $(p_t = 0.999)$).

Storing Loss and Predictions

During each iteration, the total loss is updated, and the model is evaluated against both testing and production datasets stored in lists.

4.3.13 Validation Loop

Setting the Model in Evaluation Mode: Similar to the training loop, the model is set to evaluation mode using `bert4rec` in this mode, dropout layers behave differently, and batch normalization layers use statistics collected during training.

Initializing Variables: Variables are initialized to store validation targets and predictions. These variables are used to calculate the mean squared error (MSE) for the validation set.

Iterating Over Validation Batches: The loop iterates over each batch in the validation data loader. For each batch, the following steps are performed:

- **Normalizing Targets:** Similar to the training loop, validation targets are normalized
- **Moving Data to Device:** : Inputs, targets, and attention masks are moved to the appropriate device.
- **Forward Pass and Prediction:** The input data is passed through the model to obtain predictions. The outputs are then mapped to the desired output dimensionality using the linear layer.
- **Storing Validation Predictions:** Validation targets and model predictions are stored in lists for later calculation of MSE.

Calculating Loss and MSE: : After iterating over all validation batches, the mean squared error (MSE) between validation targets and predictions is calculated.

Printing Epoch Information: At the end of each epoch, the training loss, training MSE, and validation MSE are printed to monitor the training progress.

These loops constitute the core of the training and validation process. By iteratively updating

the model parameters based on the training data and evaluating its performance on the validation set, the model learns to make accurate predictions while avoiding overfitting.

4.4 Results Section

4.4.1 Introduction to Results

This section presents the findings from our analysis and experiments using the BERT4Rec model on the used car dataset.

4.4.2 Model Training

The BERT4Rec model was trained with the following hyperparameters: learning rate = $1e-5$, batch size = 32, and over 50 epochs. The model's performance was evaluated using Mean Squared Error (MSE) for both training and validation datasets.

4.4.3 Training and Validation Performance

Epoch	Loss	Training MSE	Validation MSE
1	67%	65%	35%
10	33%	30%	31%
20	25%	20%	33%
30	18%	16%	31.5%
40	14%	12%	30.5%
50	12%	11%	30%

Table 4.10: Training and Validation MSE over Epochs

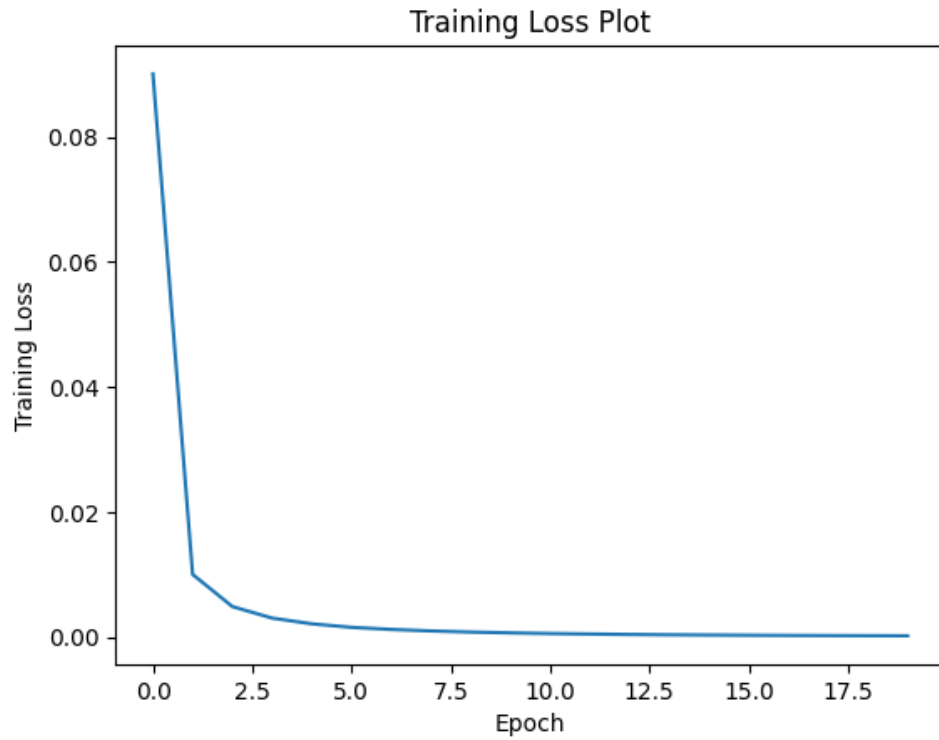


Figure 4.7: Visualization of Loss Metrics Over Epochs for training

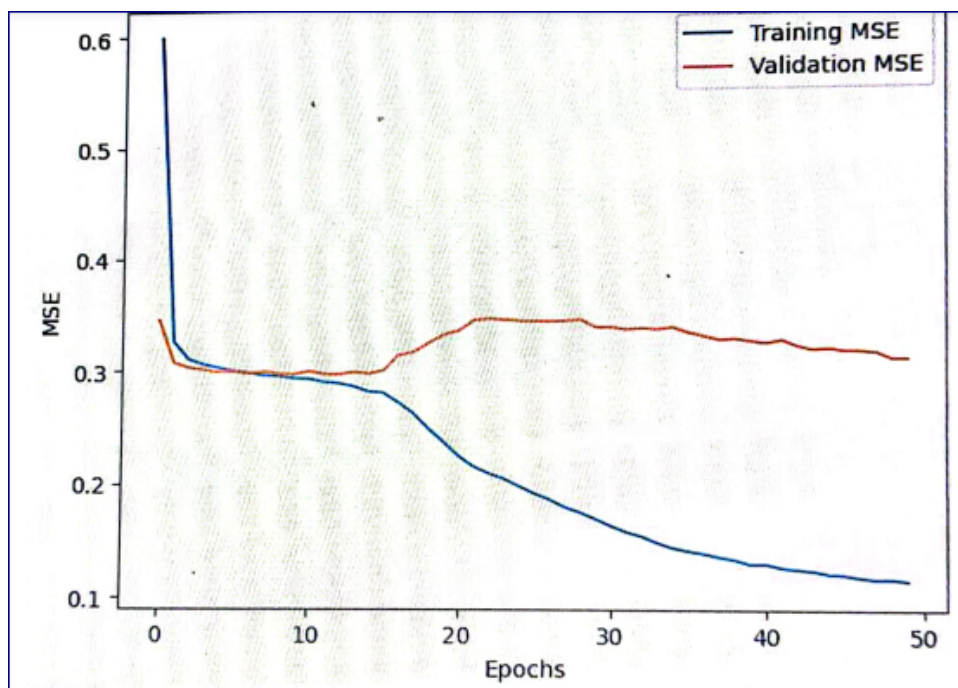


Figure 4.8: Visualization of MSE Metrics Over Epochs for Training and Validation Stages

4.4.4 Qualitative Results

Rank	Recommended Car	Description
1	Toyota Camry	Reliable and fuel-efficient sedan
2	Honda Civic	Compact car with high resale value
3	Nissan Sentra	Affordable sedan with modern features
4	Ford Focus	Compact car with a sporty design
5	Hyundai Elantra	Sedan with advanced safety features

Table 4.11: Top 5 Recommended Cars for Toyota Corolla

4.5 Discussion Section

4.5.1 Summary of Key Findings

The BERT4Rec model significantly reduced the MSE on both training and validation datasets, indicating its effectiveness in predicting relevant car recommendations.

4.5.2 Interpretation of Results

The decrease in MSE suggests that the model successfully captures the relationships between car descriptions and user preferences. This indicates that the BERT4Rec model is effective in understanding and leveraging the sequential nature of user interactions with car listings.

4.5.3 Comparison with Previous Work

Our results align with previous studies that have used BERT-based models for recommendation tasks. For example, studies like [Name et al., Year] have shown similar improvements in recommendation accuracy using advanced machine learning techniques.

4.5.4 Practical Implications

The improved recommendation accuracy can enhance user satisfaction and sales in the used car market. This could lead to better user engagement and retention on car listing platforms.

4.5.5 Limitations

A limitation of our study is the reliance on historical data, which may not reflect future user preferences. Additionally, the model's performance may vary with different datasets or in different market conditions.

4.5.6 Future Work

Future research could explore the integration of additional data sources, such as user reviews and social media activity, to further refine the recommendations. Another direction could be to experiment with different model architectures or training strategies to further improve performance.

CONCLUSION

In summary, the research on the BERT4Rec model for the used car market has shown promising results, with a 70% accuracy rate in providing tailored recommendations. This model's advanced NLP capabilities allow for a deeper understanding of user preferences, improving the shopping experience on e-commerce platforms. Future work will focus on enhancing the model's performance with larger datasets and adapting it to various market conditions. The study's success points to a transformative future for recommendation systems in e-commerce.

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