



THE UNIVERSITY *of* EDINBURGH

Edinburgh Research Explorer

On the predictive analysis of behavioral massive job data using embedded clustering and deep recurrent neural networks

Citation for published version:

Benabderrahmane, SA, Mellouli, N & Lamolle, M 2018, 'On the predictive analysis of behavioral massive job data using embedded clustering and deep recurrent neural networks', *Knowledge-Based Systems*, vol. 151, pp. 95-113. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.knosys.2018.03.025>

Digital Object Identifier (DOI):

[10.1016/j.knosys.2018.03.025](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.knosys.2018.03.025)

Link:

[Link to publication record in Edinburgh Research Explorer](#)

Document Version:

Peer reviewed version

Published In:

Knowledge-Based Systems

General rights

Copyright for the publications made accessible via the Edinburgh Research Explorer is retained by the author(s) and / or other copyright owners and it is a condition of accessing these publications that users recognise and abide by the legal requirements associated with these rights.

Take down policy

The University of Edinburgh has made every reasonable effort to ensure that Edinburgh Research Explorer content complies with UK legislation. If you believe that the public display of this file breaches copyright please contact openaccess@ed.ac.uk providing details, and we will remove access to the work immediately and investigate your claim.

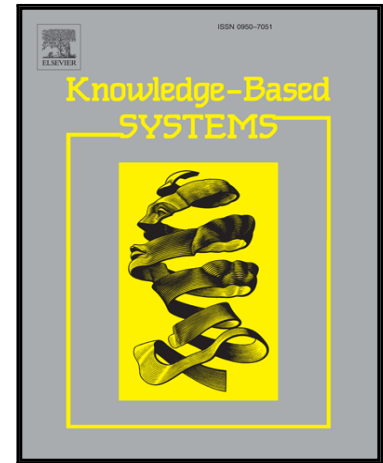


Accepted Manuscript

On the Predictive Analysis of Behavioral Massive Job Data Using Embedded Clustering and Deep Recurrent Neural Networks

Sidahmed Benabderrahmane, Nedra Mellouli, Myriam Lamolle

PII: S0950-7051(18)30157-6
DOI: [10.1016/j.knosys.2018.03.025](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.knosys.2018.03.025)
Reference: KNOSYS 4274



To appear in: *Knowledge-Based Systems*

Received date: 9 November 2017
Revised date: 16 March 2018
Accepted date: 17 March 2018

Please cite this article as: Sidahmed Benabderrahmane, Nedra Mellouli, Myriam Lamolle, On the Predictive Analysis of Behavioral Massive Job Data Using Embedded Clustering and Deep Recurrent Neural Networks, *Knowledge-Based Systems* (2018), doi: [10.1016/j.knosys.2018.03.025](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.knosys.2018.03.025)

This is a PDF file of an unedited manuscript that has been accepted for publication. As a service to our customers we are providing this early version of the manuscript. The manuscript will undergo copyediting, typesetting, and review of the resulting proof before it is published in its final form. Please note that during the production process errors may be discovered which could affect the content, and all legal disclaimers that apply to the journal pertain.

On the Predictive Analysis of Behavioral Massive Job Data Using Embedded Clustering and Deep Recurrent Neural Networks.

Sidahmed Benabderrahmane ^a, Nedra Mellouli ^b, Myriam Lamolle ^b.

(a): *The University of Edinburgh, School of Informatics, 10 Crichton Street, Edinburgh EH8 9AB, United Kingdom.*

sidahmed.benabderrahmane@gmail.com, Tel: 0044 131 651 5661

(b): *LIASD (EA 4383), University of Paris 8 Saint-Denis, IUT de Montreuil, France.*

Abstract

The recent proliferation of social networks as a main source of information and interaction has led to a huge expansion of automatic e-recruitment systems and by consequence the multiplication of web channels (job boards) that are dedicated to job offers disseminating. In a strategic and economic context where cost control is fundamental, it has become necessary to identify the relevant job board for a given new job offer has become necessary. The purpose of this work is to present the recent results that we have obtained on a new job board recommendation system that is a decision-making tool intended to guide recruiters while they are posting a job on the Internet. Firstly, the Doc2Vec embedded representation is used to analyse the textual content of the job offers, then the job applicant clickstreams history on various job boards are stored in a large learning database, and then represented as time series. Secondly, a deep neural network architecture is used to predict future values of the clicks on the job boards. Third, and in parallel, dimensionality reduction techniques are used to transform the clicks numerical time series into temporal symbolic sequences. Forecasting algorithms are then used to predict future symbols for each sequence. Finally, a list of top ranked job boards are kept by maximizing the clickstreams forecasting in both representations. Our experiments are tested on a real dataset, coming from a job-posting database of an industrial partner. The promising results have shown that using deep learning, the recommendation system outperforms standard multivariate models.

Keywords: Recommender System, Time Series, Deep Learning, Symbolic Sequences, Big Data, E-recruitment.

1. Introduction

This work concerns the recruitment market that is composed of three main players: the recruiter, who wishes to find the most suitable candidate with a desired profile; the candidate, looking for a job adapted to her/his profile and her/his professional perspectives; and the intermediaries, that mediate the relationship between the first two actors. Intermediaries in the labour market are the recruitment agencies, the temporary employment agencies, the human resources (HR) communication agencies, the press, the institutional networks, etc. Over the two last decades, another kind of intermediary appeared: the job boards (or job search websites). More formally, many job boards allow the dissemination of the job offers on different Web platforms (University websites, job social networks, business career websites, etc.). Since the arrival of the Internet, the use of web job boards has increased drastically. Between 2006 and 2009, the proportion of managerial positions that were diffused in the Internet has increased by 16%. In 2009, the Internet has been proved to be an essential medium for recruitment, with 82% of employment published therein [1]. Expanding the Internet media for recruitment has led to a multiplication of channels to find candidates. Current e-recruitment systems consider only a part of the recruitment process, concentrating on matching job offers with CVs. However, the selection of the most appropriate job board regarding an offer is also very important for the optimization of this fully digital recruitment process. This is our main contribution, in the SONAR research project (Sourcing and Automated Recruitment¹). At the moment, various questions arise concerning the selection criteria for the relevance of a job board. For example, is the job board relevant if the numbers of offers are increasing in it? Or, simply if the number of visits and/or the number of clicks to view the offers by potential candidates tend to grow compared to those observed in the past? Our main goal is to provide a tool which can help recruiters to (i) select the most relevant job boards for a new job offer, (ii) diffuse more effectively job offers, that is to say at the right place at the right time, (iii) provide tools to connect candidates and job offers automatically.

In this paper, we propose *Deep4Job*, a job offer recommendation system in which the main contributions concern: (a) the representation of the job offers textual documents in a new embedded space model that allows extracting latent

¹<http://sonar-project.com>

34 topics and for classifying business categories; (b) the consideration of contextual
 35 information such as the job applicants temporal behaviour through their clicks on
 36 different dissemination links as time series data; (c) by showing how interesting
 37 is the use of deep neural networks instead of the probabilistic models, to predict
 38 future clicks values; finally (d) by also proposing the use of symbolic tempo-
 39 ral sequences that are obtained from the clicks time series using dimensionality
 40 reduction methods to analyse the trajectories of the job applicants. These new
 41 contributions were evaluated on a real job offers database provided by an indus-
 42 trial partner, as illustrated in 1. The results seem to be very interesting compared
 43 to the state of the art collaborative filtering analysis.

44 In the next section, we will firstly give a global overview on the existing rec-
 45 ommendation systems with their advantages and limits, and afterward we will
 introduce the general architecture of our proposed Deep4Job system.

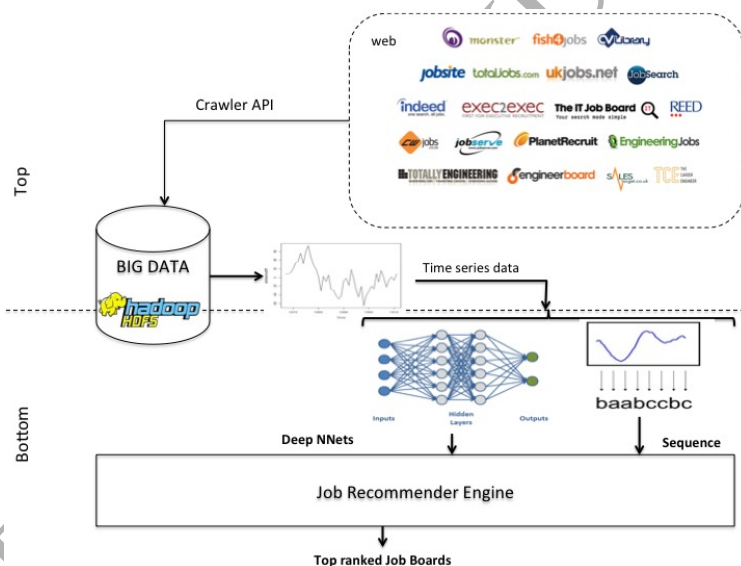


Figure 1: Top: The global architecture of the proposed recommender system with the used database. Job offers and their job boards are crawled from the Internet with appropriate APIs. Both textual content of the postings as well as the users' clickstreams are available. Bottom: Clickstreams data are later represented as time series, and new forecasting algorithms are used to predict future clicks values on each job board.

47 2. Related Work

48 2.1. Highlights on Recommender Systems

49 During the past decade, the variety and number of products and services pro-
50 vided by companies has increased dramatically. Companies produce a large num-
51 ber of products to meet the needs of customers. Although this gives more options
52 to customers, it makes it harder for them to process the large amount of infor-
53 mation provided by companies. Recommender systems are designed to help cus-
54 tomers by introducing products or services. These products and services are likely
55 preferred by users, based on their preferences, needs, and purchase history.
56 Nowadays, many people use recommender systems in their daily life for on-line
57 shopping, reading articles, or watching movies. Usually, a recommender system
58 recommends items either by predicting ratings or by providing a ranked list of
59 items for each user.

60 Roughly speaking, there are three types of recommendation systems (excluding
61 simple ranking approach) [2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7]: Content-based (CB) recommendation,
62 Collaborative filtering (CF), and Hybrid models.

63 A content-based recommendation system is a regression problem in which we
64 try to make a user-to-item rating prediction using the content of items as features.
65 On the other hand, for a collaborative filtering based recommendation system, we
66 usually do not know the content of features in advance, and by using the similar-
67 ity between different users (i.e. users may give similar ratings to the same items)
68 and the similarity between items (similar movies may be given similar ratings
69 by the users), we learn the latent features and make predictions on user-to-item
70 ratings at the same time. Therefore, after we learn the features of the items, we
71 can measure the similarity between items and recommend the most similar items
72 to users based on their previous usage information. Content-based and collabo-
73 rative filtering recommendation systems were the state of the art for the past 10
74 years ago. Apparently, there are many different models and algorithms to improve
75 the prediction performance. For instance, for the case in which we do not have
76 user-to-item rating information in advance, we can use the so-called implicit ma-
77 trix factorization and replace the user-to-item ratings with some preference and
78 confidence measures such as how many times the users click on the correspond-
79 ing items to perform collaborative filtering. Furthermore, we can also combine
80 content-based and collaborative filtering methods to utilize content as “side infor-
81 mation” to improve the prediction performance. This hybrid approach is usually
82 implemented by a “Learning to Rank” algorithm.

83 Other recent works considered the problems of data heterogeneity, data sparsity,
84 cold-start initialization, and items' dynamic evolution process [8, 9, 10]

85 2.2. *Deep Learning in Recommender Systems*

86 2.2.1. *A gentle introduction to deep learning*

87 Deep learning is a special field of machine learning, putting the focus on the
88 representation from the data, and adding successive learning layers to increase the
89 meaningful representation of the input data. The “deep” notion in deep learning is
90 not a reference to any kind of deeper understanding, rather it represents the great
91 number of successive layers of neural representations [11], i.e. how many layers
92 are used in the model for a suitable representation of data in the feature space.
93 Other frequent names are also used to designate deep learning, such as: layered
94 representations learning, or hierarchical representations learning [12]. In deep
95 learning, the learning layers are trained via neural networks. Similarly to neuro-
96 biology, the learning process is inspired by human brain understanding. However,
97 one should be aware of the pop-sciences articles, which claim that deep learning
98 works perfectly like our brains. Indeed this is the usual approximation made by
99 newcomers to the field [11]. Figure 2 gives a general framework of a deep neural
100 network. Data samples are used as input of the learning process. They are then
101 transformed through transformation layers that could be either embedding layers
102 for textual data analysis, or convolutional layers for image processing, or recurrent
103 layers for temporal and sequence data processing [13]. Finally, the transformed
104 data are learned with deep (a large number of) fully connected layers to produce
105 the output of the network.

106 By observing Fig. 2, we can see that deep learning is a complex process of
107 multi-stage data transformation, with the goal of mapping inputs to targets, which
108 is done by varying the weights of the network. The technical complexity resides
109 in the huge number of parameters that are modified during the learning process.

110 2.2.2. *Deep learning application domains*

111 In the few years since 2010, deep learning has revolutionized the machine
112 learning world, with very interesting results particularly in computer vision [14,
113 15, 16, 17] or Natural Language Processing (NLP) [18, 19, 20, 21, 22]. Break-
114 throughs have been observed in complex artificial intelligence problems such as
115 image classification for digit recognition [23], handwriting transcription [24], sig-
116 nal processing [25], web mining [26, 27], or even autonomous systems [28], etc.
117 Actually, deep learning is affecting everything from health-care to transportation
118 to manufacturing, and more. Companies are turning to deep learning to solve

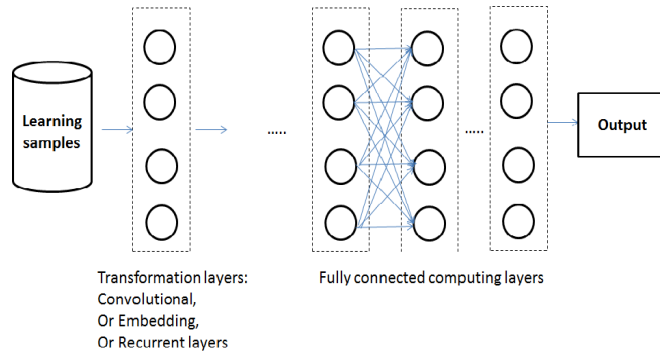


Figure 2: A deep neural network general model. Transformation layers could be either embedding layers for textual data, or convolutional layers for image processing or recurrent layers for temporal data processing. Transformed data are learned with deep fully connected layers.

119 hard problems, like speech recognition, object recognition, and machine trans-
 120 lation. One of the most impressive achievements in 2017 was AlphaGo beating
 121 the best Go player in the world. With the victory, Go joins checkers, chess, and
 122 Jeopardy as games in which machines have defeated human champions [29].

123 2.2.3. Deep learning recommender examples

124 Recently, deep learning technologies have seen considerable growth with many
 125 cases of application in the area of recommendation. Donghyun et al. in [30] pro-
 126 posed a context-aware recommendation model, in which a convolutional matrix
 127 factorization (ConvMF) integrates convolutional neural network (CNN) into prob-
 128 abilistic matrix factorization (PMF). The system captures contextual information
 129 of documents and enhances the rating prediction accuracy. Yin Zheng et al. in
 130 2016 [31] proposed CF-NADE, a neural autoregressive architecture for collabora-
 131 tive filtering tasks, which is inspired by the Restricted Boltzmann Machine (RBM)
 132 based CF model and the Neural Autoregressive Distribution Estimator (NADE).
 133 This method is a tractable distribution estimator for high dimensional rating binary
 134 vectors. It tackles sparsity of the rating matrix. The performance of CF-NADE
 135 was tested on 3 real world benchmarks: MovieLens 1M, MovieLens 10M and
 136 Netflix database. Young-Jun et al. in their work presented in [32] proposed a
 137 song recommendation system that is based on language modeling and collabora-
 138 tive filtering combined with recurrent neural networks RNNs, to take into account
 139 the user's interaction and their contextual information for making the recommen-
 140 dation efficient. Strub et al. in [33] presented a recommender system using a

141 stacked denoising Autoencoders Neural Network in which a loss function was
142 adapted to input data with missing values. The main objective of their work was
143 to alleviate the cold start problem by integrating side information, because when
144 very little information is available on a user or item, Collaborative Filtering will
145 have difficulties in inferring its ratings. Note that, these models are not full deep
146 architectures but one hidden layered neural architecture for CF. Van den Oord
147 et al. in [34] tackled the problem of sound recommendation in social networks.
148 They proposed to use a latent factor model for recommendation, and predict the
149 latent factors from audio when they cannot be obtained from usage data. Their
150 method used deep convolutional neural networks on the Million Song Dataset,
151 for extracting local features from audio signals and aggregating them into a bag-
152 of-words (BoW) representation. In [35], Almahairi et al. presented a work in
153 which they have shown how a collaborative filter-based recommender system can
154 be improved by incorporating side information, such as natural language reviews,
155 as a way of regularizing the derived product representations. Instead of using a
156 classical topic modeling of reviews (such as latent Dirichlet allocation (LDA)),
157 the models they proposed are based on neural networks. Zheng et al. in [36] pro-
158 posed DepCoNN, a Deep Cooperative Neural Network, to learn item properties
159 and user behaviours jointly from review text. The proposed model consists of two
160 parallel neural networks coupled in the last layers. One of the networks focuses
161 on learning user behaviours exploiting reviews written by the user, and the other
162 one learns item properties from the reviews written for the item. A shared layer
163 is introduced on the top to couple these two networks together. The model was
164 tested on several databases, for instance Yelp, which is a large-scale dataset con-
165 sisting of restaurant reviews, and Amazon product reviews. Covington et al. in
166 [37] proposed a sophisticated video recommender system on YouTube. The user
167 preferences and search history are embedded into a latent space and then fed into
168 the deep neural networks with additional side information such as demographics,
169 geography, etc. The model generates a few best recommendations by assigning a
170 score to each video according to a desired objective function using a rich set of
171 features describing the video and user. The highest scoring videos are presented
172 to the user, ranked by their score. The searched tokens on the platform as well
173 as the watched videos are represented in an embedding space, and used later in a
174 deep neural network to recommend new videos.

175 2.2.4. *E-recruitment recommender systems*

176 Recommender systems in automatic recruitment platforms allow HR agents
177 to advertise a job offer on the relevant job board, which may attract the best

178 candidates in a small temporal period. Actually, there are several thousands of
179 dedicated job boards for broadcasting job offers, for instance Monster, indeed,
180 iquesta, jobsite, parisjob, etc. Some of them charge subscription fee. Conse-
181 quently, searching and identifying the best job board for a new job offer can be
182 considered as a challenging and hard task. To this aim, several recommendation
183 systems have been presented in the literature. These systems are generally clas-
184 sified into three main categories: textual recommendation systems [38], collab-
185 orative filtering recommendation systems, and hybrid recommendation systems
186 [39],[40].

187 In the textual-based recommendation systems, the content of the job offers are
188 analysed with the information provided by users to identify the semantic content.
189 To that aim, two kinds of semantic analysis exist: the approaches based on ontolo-
190 gies [41] and those based on text mining [1].

191 Whatever the approach used in the purely textual recommendation systems, they
192 have the weakness since they require manual annotations by the recruiters and the
193 candidates to describe both the job offers and the CVs. Nevertheless, the volume
194 and the complexity of the processed data are quite large and do require the use of
195 highly optimized algorithms.

196 Collaborative filtering systems are based on the analysis of the opinions of a group
197 of users. Their opinions are considered similar to those of an active identified
198 user. These recommendation systems can target CVs only from related informa-
199 tion (such as the title). The use of items certainly reduces the mass of processed
200 data but with a loss of precision. As for hybrid systems, they combine the two
201 previously mentioned categories.

202 In this context, other works focused on the analysis of the impact of the implicit
203 relevance feedback on job recommender system. In particular, Hutterer et al. in
204 [42] proposed some methods for monitoring and integrating the feedback of the
205 users. Their project mainly focused on the Austrian job boards for which the
206 recommendation system was designed. Basically the model remains simple and
207 deeply dependent on the category of the jobs. In the same spirit, authors in [43] ex-
208 plore a specific approach to employ implicit negative feedback and assess whether
209 it can be used to improve recommendation quality.

210 Most of these recommendation systems could be improved if the temporal infor-
211 mation related to the job boards were taken into account. To that aim, we propose
212 in this work, *Deep4Job*, a deep learning job offers recommender system, in which
213 we are considering both temporal information relative to the dissemination and
214 the clicks on job offers, as well as their textual content. We would like to show
215 the importance of the temporal aspect of the job offers' dissemination process on

216 different job boards, by creating a robust predictive model based on the quantity of
217 the clicks on the job offers' URLs by job applicants, which represent their true be-
218 haviour on the web. We suggest representing this variation of the clicks, with time
219 series data, for highlighting the trends and the seasonality in the recruitment pro-
220 cess. The textual content of the job offers are used to discover latent semantic top-
221 ics, using deep learning, word embedding and machine learning clustering. The
222 time series data are used as learning samples to train a model for predicting future
223 behavior of job applicants to support the recommender system. The forecasting
224 is done with deep learning Long Short Term Memory neural networks (LSTM)
225 [44]. A complementary solution suggests representing the numerical time series
226 data, as temporal symbolic sequences, using efficient dimensionality reduction
227 methods [45, 46]. The main interest of these transformations is the exploitation
228 of robust symbolic data mining and natural language processing techniques to
229 predict future symbols in a sequence. In the following section we will show the
230 global architecture of *Deep4Job* recommender system, and present the learning
231 database, as well as the global representation of our data. Section 4 presents the
232 word embedding model that is used to discover potential projections and homoge-
233 neous clusters among the job offer textual documents. Section 5 presents the deep
234 learning architecture that is used to forecast future click values on the numerical
235 time series data. Section 6 presents the time series symbolic encoding approaches,
236 followed by the deep learning model that is used to forecast future click values on
237 the symbolic sequences. In section 7 we present the series of results that we have
238 obtained when evaluating the model. Finally section 8 concludes this work with
239 discussions and future perspectives.

240 **3. Deep4Job: Using word embedding, Deep Learning and Temporal Sequences** 241 **for Job Offers Recommendation**

242 *3.1. Project context and description of the Big Database*

243 This work is the result of our participation in a FUI² project called SONAR
244 (Sourcing and Automated Recruitment³), with an industrial partner (MultiPosting
245 ⁴) that is a leader in the French job market, which has provided us a big archive
246 of job offers, that were disseminated in different job board websites, and also the
247 relative quantity of their visits (clicks) by users (job applicants). The job boards in

²financed by the French government's FUI program

³<http://sonar-project.com>

⁴<http://www.multiposting.fr/>

248 this database DB are different and have multiple categories (social networks, spe-
249 cific to a category of business, with charge, with subscription, ... etc.). The hetero-
250 geneous big database saves the job offers and their relative job boards in both rela-
251 tional and NoSql schemas in a Hadoop cluster. The data concern backup archive
252 of job offers, which were disseminated on different job boards (i.e. the textual
253 content of the offers as json entries in a MongoDB), and also the relative quantity
254 of their visits and clicks by users as a relational database (DB). The recorded data
255 concern also candidates and their relative profiles on social networks (LinkedIn,
256 Facebook, ...). The job boards in this archive are different and have multiple cat-
257 egories: social networks (e.g. LinkedIn), specific to a category of business (e.g.
258 www.lesjeudis.com for IT jobs), free or with subscription (e.g. www.keljob.com),
259 specific to a region (e.g. www.regionsjob.com), etc. The archives represent more
260 than a six-year follow-up of data, that were scrapped from the Internet, and con-
261 tain about ten thousand of job boards and more than three million of job offers and
262 their daily relative clicks in these job boards, plus social networks posts, altogether
263 making more than 3 TB of disk size. Each job board in our DB receives a lot of
264 posting job offers each day. Fig. 3 gives an example of the top 10 most important
265 job boards and their relative quantity of job offers which they disseminate. As
266 illustrated, we have more than 1,6 million job ads from Facebook, approximately
267 1,2 million from Work4Us, about 600 thousand ads from Oodle, etc.

268 The global architecture of the proposed recommender system is illustrated in fig-
269 ure 4. The series of information in the database concern the textual content of the
270 job offers and the temporal information of the job applicants behaviour. Thus, the
271 first step in the system concerns the preparation and the formatting of these het-
272 erogeneous data. As a second step, we will use embedded layers of deep neural
273 networks to represent the textual job offer documents in a sub dimensional word
274 embedding space. Then we will apply a clustering procedure to discover similar
275 classes among this representation of the job offers. After that, we consider each
276 cluster of job offers separately, and create clicks time series data that can also
277 be transformed to symbolic sequences using two dimensionality reduction tech-
278 niques. Finally, forecasting algorithms are used to predict future clicks on the job
279 offers, allowing the system to select the job boards in which the expected clicks
280 can be maximized. All these general steps will be presented in detail in the next
281 sections.

282 3.2. Job Offers Textual Representation

283 Each Job offer document in our database is represented as a list of structured
284 items that includes the title of the job, the description, the required skills, the lo-

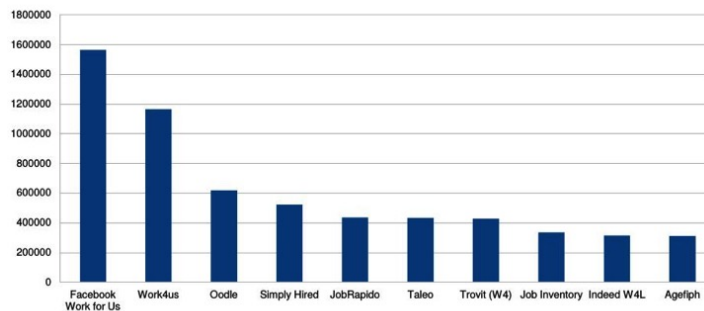


Figure 3: Example of some important job boards and their relative quantity of job offers which they disseminate.

285 cation, the salary, and so on. Each item is then transformed as a vector of frequent
 286 terms it contains. In addition, we have a job classification vocabulary, which is
 287 given by a public French organization that is called ROME code ⁵. Therefore, it
 288 is necessary to represent these data adequately to process them with neural net-
 289 works.

290 Text is one of the most widespread forms of sequence data. It can be understood
 291 either as a sequence of characters, or a sequence of words, albeit it is most com-
 292 mon to work at the level of words. The deep learning sequence processing models
 293 that we will use to process the job offers, are able to leverage text to produce a
 294 basic form of natural language understanding, sufficient for applications ranging
 295 from document classification, sentiment analysis, author identification, or even
 296 question answering (in a constrained context) [11]. Deep learning for natural lan-
 297 guage processing is simply pattern recognition applied to words, sentences, and
 298 paragraphs, in much the same way that computer vision is simply pattern recog-
 299 nition applied to pixels. Like all other neural networks, deep learning models do
 300 not take as input raw text; they only work with numerical tensors. The Vector-

⁵<http://www.pole-emploi.fr/candidat/le-code-rome-et-les-fiches-metiers-@/article.jspz?id=60702>

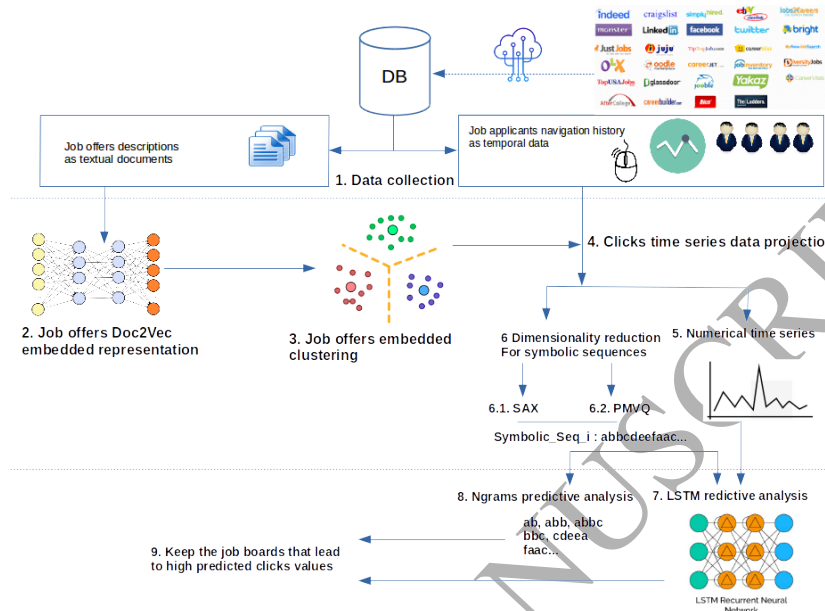


Figure 4: The global architecture of the job boards recommender system.

301 ization of text is the process of transforming text into numeric tensors. This can
 302 be done in multiple ways: (i) by segmenting text into words, and transforming
 303 each word into a vector; (ii) by segmenting text into characters, and transforming
 304 each character into a vector; (iii) by extracting "n-grams" of words or characters,
 305 and transforming each n-gram into a vector. "N-grams" are overlapping groups
 306 of multiple consecutive words or characters. Collectively, the different units into
 307 which one can break down text (words, characters or n-grams) are called "tokens",
 308 and breaking down text into such tokens is called "tokenization". All text vector-
 309 ization processes consist in applying some tokenization scheme, then associating
 310 numeric vectors with the generated tokens. These vectors, packed into sequence
 311 tensors, are what gets fed into deep neural networks. There are multiple ways to
 312 associate a vector to a token. In this work we have used two major ones: one-hot
 313 encoding of tokens, and token embeddings (typically used exclusively for words,
 314 and generally called "word embeddings") [11, 47]. In the remainder of this paper,
 315 these techniques will be explained and we will show concretely how to use them
 316 to go from raw text to a tensor that we can send to the Keras API for deep network
 317 learning.

318

319 3.3. Clickstreams Representation with Time Series

320 The job offers in our DB are periodically broadcast in one or more job boards
 321 on a given date. An offer disseminated in a job board has a finite life cycle. In
 322 such temporal periods, the number of clicked links of the job offers in different
 323 job boards can be easily known. Therefore, the daily number of clicks associ-
 324 ated within an offer and job boards is available. This number can be known on
 325 different time scales: weekly, monthly, semi-annually, or even annually. We de-
 326 note by T , the period or the time scale associated to the considered number of
 327 clicks. To formulate such data representation, in particular the number of clicks,
 328 we consider a job board, noted JB , as a set of offers o_j on a given period T :
 329 $JB_T = \bigcup o_j$ for $j = 1, \dots, p$

330 For each job board, we then introduce a ratio X^{JB_T} calculated as the total
 331 number of relative clicks of offers in this job board in a period T : $X^{JB_T} = \frac{nb.click}{|JB_T|}$

332 In the following of this paper, we consider T as a discrete interval $[1, N]$. Since
 333 the relative clicks are numerical values, we can consider the ratio $X_t^{JB_T}$ as a tem-
 334 poral observation of the clicks given at the time t . Having a series of observations
 335 $X_1^{JB_T}, X_2^{JB_T}, \dots, X_N^{JB_T}$ on a fixed period T , we propose the definition of previ-
 336 sions on a date N with a time series of observations, to estimate $\hat{X}^{JB_T}(N, h)$ on
 337 future dates within a given horizon h .

338 The objectives of the temporal analysis in our study are multiple. For instance,
 339 it concerns the prevision of future realization of a random variable X^{JB_T} using the
 340 previously observed values $X_1^{JB_T}, X_2^{JB_T}, X_N^{JB_T}$ for each job board JB . To that
 341 aim, we will use univariate time series only, and we notice the variable X^{JB_T} by
 342 x_t which is observed at time t . Fig. 5 gives an example of a time series of a
 343 given job board, where values x_t are the daily clicks ratios of all job offers which
 344 were disseminated in this job board, between 2008 until 2014 (2190 days, i.e. the
 345 length of the series).

346 3.4. Deep4Job Recommendation Algorithm

347 The proposed recommender system *Deep4Job*, has two major stages (see Fig.
 348 6), namely (i) learning the predictive model phase (the left frame), and (ii) the on-
 349 line recommendation phase (execution, in the right frame of Fig. 6). During the
 350 learning process, there are two main steps. Firstly, job offer documents are repre-
 351 sented in a sub-dimensional space for topics discovery and business classification.
 352 Embedding deep networks are used to train the neuronal model and represent the
 353 documents in an embedded space. Then the projected job offers in this space are
 354 classified in order to regroup similar job offers on the basis of their textual content,

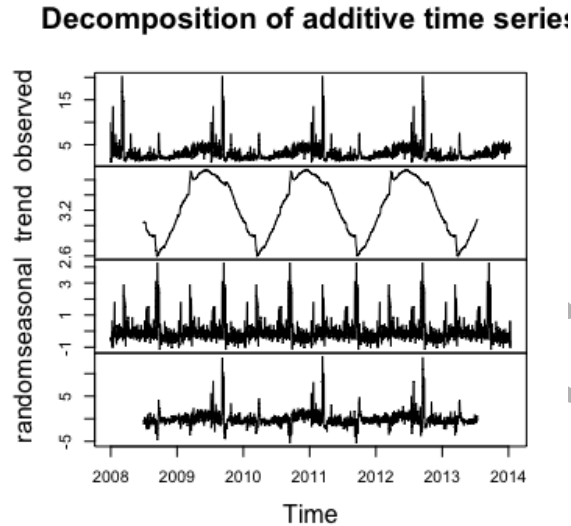


Figure 5: Example of the variation of the users clickstreams on some posting job offers which were disseminated in a job board.

and the similarity between the embedded vectors. The idea is to create a topology
of job offer classes, that belong to similar job categories. The exact number of
clusters can be obtained using the state of the art agglomerative clustering opti-
mization techniques (e.g. Silhouette Index). Secondly, for each obtained cluster
of job offers, and considering each job board in the DB, we build at each step of
the algorithm, the clicks time series vectors (see Step 2 in Fig. 6) that represent
the temporal behaviour of a job board by considering only the job offers that are
disseminated in it, and belong to the current embedded cluster $\zeta^{posting}$. In other
words, the observations (data points) of such time series are the ratio of clicks
which were obtained through the job applicants URL visits on the offers that be-
long to the considered cluster, and which are daily clicked in this job board during
a certain periodicity. Then, for each time series, a predictive model is learned, and
future values of click ratios are predicted within a given horizon h (an average of
5 days). Finally, the job board(s) maximizing the different predicted ratio values
are considered the most appropriate for the dissemination of the offers belonging
to the considered cluster. A hash table is then created, containing key / values as
cluster of offers, and the winner job boards.

During the recommendation step, and having a new incoming job offer, we want

373 to disseminate it in the relevant job boards. Firstly the embedded representation
374 of this job offer is created and is projected in the learned embedded space model
375 to identify the closest class of job offers previously obtained. Thereafter, and vis-
376 iting the hash table, this new job offer is recommended in the job boards that were
377 associated to the closest cluster of job offers.

378 The contributions that concern the forecasting of future values of the clickstreams,
379 use two complementary methods. The first one is based on the use of long short
380 term memory (LSTM) deep neural network [48, 49] applied on the clicks nu-
381 merical time series data. The second contribution suggests the transformation of
382 the numerical time series to symbolic temporal sequences. Then symbolic data
383 mining techniques such as N-grams [50] or sequence analysis are used to predict
384 future symbols which represent a quantification of the clickstreams. Job Board
385 time series data are the input of these two complementary methods (see Figure 1,
386 Bottom, and figure 4, steps 4, 5 and 6). Future clickstream values are predicted
387 with each method, and top ranked job boards, i.e. those which maximize at best
388 the clicks, are kept for recommending new job offers.

389 Our idea is to consider each job category (cluster) as being different from the other
390 ones hence analysing them separately. Thus the cluster of job offers in IT for in-
391 stance, will be used as a homogeneous class to create the vectors of time series
392 that will be used to make the prediction in this business category. This intuitive
393 hypothesis was proposed here following many discussions with the HR experts
394 who advised us to make the model mostly specific to each job category.

395 Each method, i.e., the embedding representation of the job offers and their cluster-
396 ing, the numerical time series forecasting, and the symbolic sequences prediction,
397 are detailed in the next sections with the same order and separately to make this
398 article easy to read.

399 **4. Deep Learning and Doc2Vec for Job Offers Clustering**

400 *4.1. Embedded representation of job offers*

401 As reported antecedently, we need to represent the textual job offer documents
402 in a numerical way to make their manipulation with deep neural networks possi-
403 ble. One-hot encoding is the most common, and basic way to turn a token (word)
404 into a vector. It consists in associating a unique integer index to every word, then
405 turning this integer index i into a binary vector of size N , the size of the vocabu-
406 lary, that would be all-zeros except for the i th entry, which would be 1.

407 Another popular and powerful way to associate a vector with a word is the use
408 of "word vectors", also called "word embeddings". While the vectors obtained

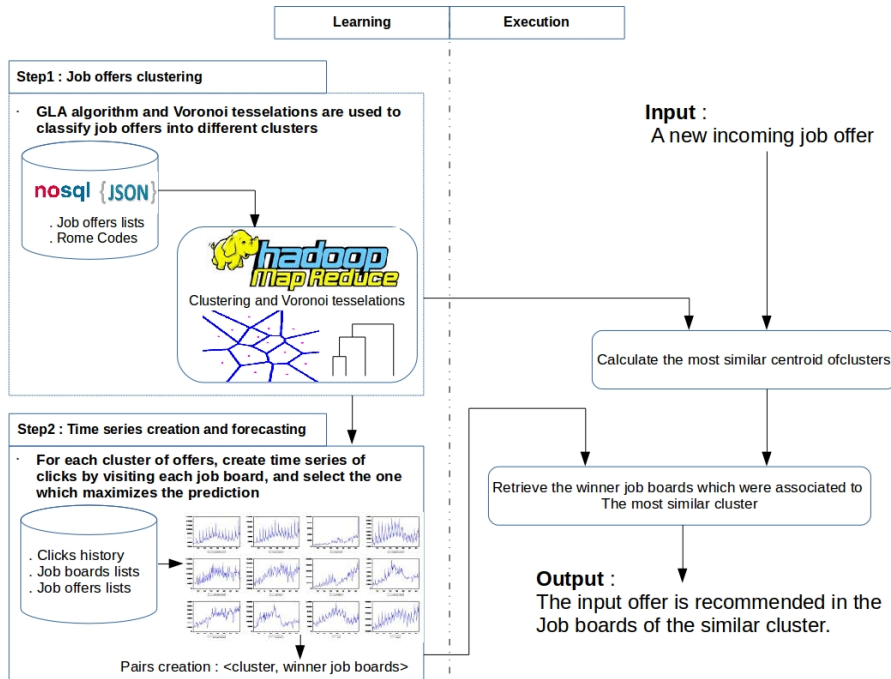


Figure 6: Overview on the clickstreams forecasting algorithm.

409 through one-hot encoding are binary, sparse (mostly made of zeros) and very
 410 high-dimensional (same dimensionality as the vocabulary), "word embeddings"
 411 are low-dimensional floating point vectors (i.e. "dense" vectors, as opposed to
 412 sparse vectors) [11, 47]. It is common to see word embeddings that are 256-
 413 dimensional, 512-dimensional, or 1024-dimensional when dealing with very large
 414 vocabularies. On the other hand, one-hot encoding generally leads to vectors that
 415 are 20,000-dimensional or higher (capturing a vocabulary of 20,000 token in this
 416 case). Therefore, word embedding can pack more information into far less di-
 417 mensions. Fig. 7 gives an example of representing a text with numerical values.

418
 419 There are two ways to use word embeddings: (i) learn word embeddings
 420 jointly with the main task (e.g. in our case for job offer documents classification),
 421 (ii) load pre-trained word embeddings into the model. The simplest way to asso-
 422 ciate a dense vector to a word would be to pick the vector at random. The problem
 423 with this approach is that the resulting embedding space would have no structure
 424 and no semantic relationship. For instance, the words "job" and "work" may end

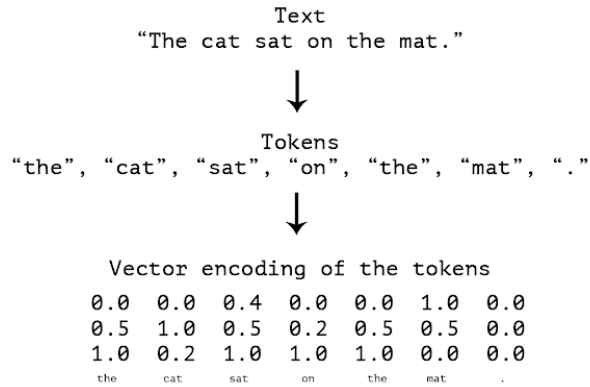


Figure 7: From text to tokens to vectors [11].

425 up with completely different embeddings, even though they are interchangeable
 426 in most sentences. It would be very difficult for a deep neural network to make
 427 sense of such a noisy, unstructured embedding space. To get a bit more abstract,
 428 the geometric relationships between word vectors should reflect the semantic re-
 429 lationships between these words. Word embeddings are supposed to map human
 430 language into a geometric space. For instance, in a reasonable embedding space,
 431 we would expect synonyms (e.g. job and work) to be embedded into similar word
 432 vectors, and in general we would expect the geometric distance (e.g. L2 distance)
 433 between them to be related to their semantic distance, that is to say words mean-
 434 ing very different things would be embedded to points far away from each other,
 435 while related words would be closer.

436 4.2. *Word2vec and Doc2Vec representation of Job Offers*

437 Natural language modelling technique like Word Embedding is used to map
 438 words or phrases from a vocabulary to a corresponding vector of real numbers.
 439 As well as being amenable to processing by Machine Learning (ML) algorithms,
 440 this vector representation has two important and advantageous properties: (i) Di-
 441 mensionality Reduction - it is a more efficient representation, and (ii) Contextual
 442 Similarity - it is a more expressive representation. Previous works on Bag of
 443 Words (BoW) approach have shown that it often produces huge, very sparse vec-
 444 tors, where the dimensionality of the vectors representing each document is equal
 445 to the size of the supported vocabulary [27, 11]. Word Embedding aims to create
 446 a vector representation with a much lower dimensional space. In our case, Word
 447 Embedding is used for semantic parsing of job offers, to extract meaning from text

448 to enable natural language understanding, and documents semantic classification.
 449 The vectors created by Word Embedding preserve the similarities, thus words that
 450 regularly occur nearby in text will also be in close proximity in vector space. Fig.
 451 8 gives an example of an intuitive representation of some job titles in a word em-
 452 bedding space. Theoretically, jobs that belong to the same fields are supposed to
 453 be close to each other in the produced space model. Later, jobs represented with
 454 these titles are to be classified in the same clusters (e.g. data scientist and deep
 455 learning expert are in the same cluster of computer scientist jobs). This is the
 456 main interest of word embedding implementation in the first step of our learning
 algorithm.

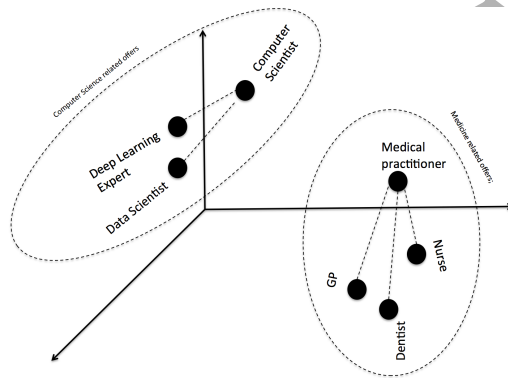


Figure 8: Example of a Word2vec representation of job offers.

457 One of the best known algorithms for producing word embedding models is
 458 Word2vec. This framework initially proposed by Mikolov et al. [20, 18, 22, 21]
 459 is based on their previous contribution called CBoW (Continuous Bag of Words).
 460 This model uses encoders neural networks to generate embeddings of a target
 461 word from an input context. While a language model is only able to look at the
 462 past words for its predictions, as it is evaluated on its ability to predict each next
 463 word in the corpus, a model that just aims to generate accurate word embeddings
 464 does not suffer from this restriction. Mikolov et al. thus use both the n words
 465 before and after the target word w_t to predict it as depicted in Fig. 9. They call
 466 this method the continuous bag-of-words (CBOW), as it uses continuous repre-
 467 sentations whose order is of no importance. The CBOW model tries to optimize
 468 an objective function defined as:
 469

$$J_{\theta} = \frac{1}{T} \log p(w_t | w_{t-n}, \dots, w_{t-1}, w_{t+1}, \dots, w_{t+n}) \quad (1)$$

470 Instead of feeding n previous words into the model, the model receives a win-
 471 dow of n words around the target word w_t at each time step t . In the deep neural
 472 network, this probability is calculated through the softmax layer(exp):

$$p(w_t|w_{t-n}, \dots, w_{t-1}, w_{t+1}, \dots, w_{t+n}) = \frac{\exp(h^T v'_{w_t})}{\sum_{w_i \in V} \exp(h^T v'_{w_i})} \quad (2)$$

473 where, h is the intermediate state vector which is the word embedding v_{w_t} of the
 474 input word w_t of a vocabulary V .

475 The second contribution of Word2Vec is the Skip-Gram model (Fig. 10) which
 476 allows to do the inverse of CBoW, taking an input word and attempting to predict
 477 the words in the context. The skip-gram objective function sums the log probabili-
 478 ties of the surrounding n words to the left and to the right of the target word w_t
 479 to produce the following objective:

$$J_{\theta} = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \sum_{-n \leq j \leq n} \log p(w_{t+j}|w_t) \quad (3)$$

480 Similarly the skip-gram model computes $p(w_{t+j}|w_t)$, with the softmax layer as:

$$p(w_{t+j}|w_t) = \frac{\exp(v_{w_t}^T v'_{w_{t+j}})}{\sum_{w_i \in V} \exp(v_{w_t}^T v'_{w_i})} \quad (4)$$

481

482 Another word embedding algorithm worth knowing about is GloVe, which works
 483 slightly differently by accumulating counts of co-occurrences.

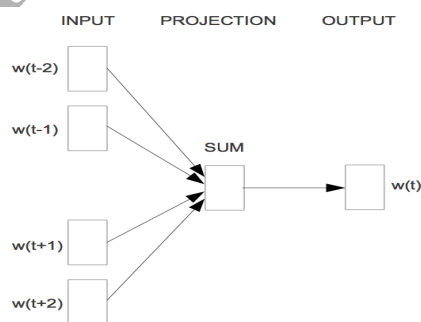


Figure 9: Continuous bag-of-words (Mikolov et al., 2013).

484

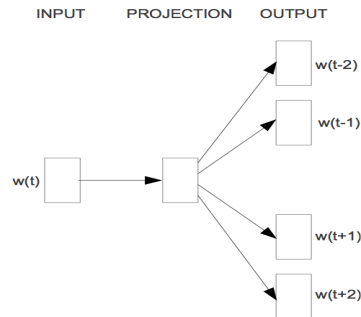


Figure 10: Skip-gram (Mikolov et al., 2013)

485 In 2014, Doc2vec that is an adaptation of Word2Vec, was introduced by Mikolov
 486 [20, 18, 22, 21] as a set of approaches to represent documents as fixed length low
 487 dimensional vectors that are document embeddings. Recent deep learning and
 488 NLP works have claimed that doc2vec outperforms other embedding schemes.
 489 Note that Word2vec is a three layers neural network with one input, one hidden
 490 and an output layer. The idea of CBOW architecture, one of the word2vec based
 491 algorithms, is to learn word representations that can predict a word given its sur-
 492 rounding words. The input layer corresponds to signals for context (surrounding
 493 words) and output layer correspond to signals for predicted target word. Doc2Vec
 494 explores the word context observation by adding additional input nodes represent-
 495 ing documents as additional context. Each additional node can be thought of just
 496 as an id for each input document.

497 Doc2vec is a shallow neural net. Before implementing our embedding mode, we
 498 set up a work-flow as it is illustrated in Fig. 11. This process starts reading the
 499 job offer documents from the Hadoop HDFS disks and then applies successive
 500 analysis like tokenization, encoding, and embedding learning.

501 Once all NLP pre-processing terminated we used the corpus of job offers to
 502 represent each document in the Doc2Vec space model. To that aim, we have
 503 used a deep learning API implemented in Gensim open source library⁶. Fig. 12
 504 represents the architecture of the neural network that was used to produce the em-
 505 bedding representation. The neural network takes as input each document as a
 506 sequence of words. As reported in the previous paragraphs, each word is repre-
 507 sented as an encoding numeric vector. The documents sequences are then padded

⁶<https://radimrehurek.com/gensim/models/doc2vec.html>

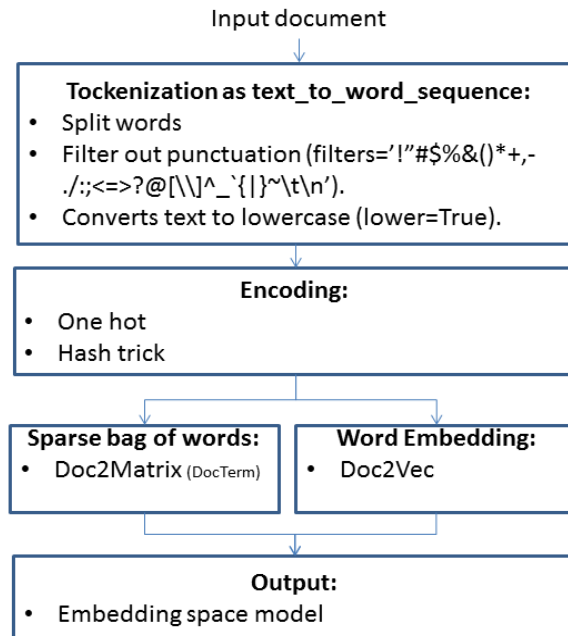


Figure 11: The followed workflow to produce the embedding of the job offer textual documents.

508 to a fixed-length sequence. The network has an embedding layer that produces the
 509 embedded representation of all job offer vectors. One important thing to note is
 510 that one can now infer a vector for any piece of text without having to re-train the
 511 model by passing a list of words to the `model.infer_vector` function implemented
 512 in Gensim. This vector can then be compared with other vectors via any similarity
 513 measure.

514

515 Once the embedding representation of the job offers terminated, we followed
 516 the first step of our learning algorithm, by classifying the documents vectors in
 517 different clusters, in-order to extract the emerging topics from the database. As
 518 we have explained it previously, the idea is to create a projection sub-space of job
 519 offers for performing the clicks forecasting using the job offers present in each
 520 embedded cluster.

521 Since each document is represented through a numerical embedding vector, we
 522 have tested a lot of clustering algorithms: Hierarchical, K-Means, and PAM (Par-
 523 titions Around Medoids). The expected numbers of clusters were evaluated with
 524 a lot of well-known clustering optimization techniques, such as Silhouette Index,

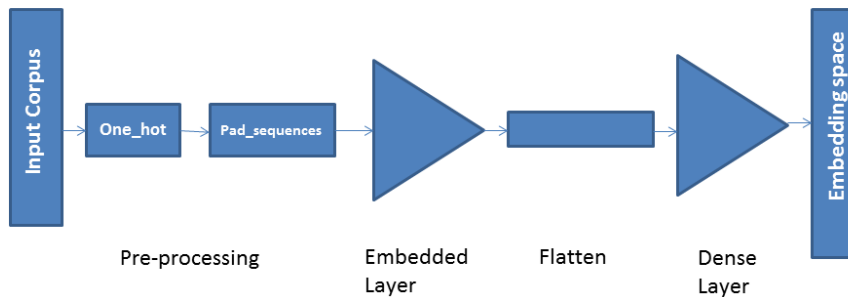


Figure 12: The architecture of the neural network that was used to produce the embedding representation of the job offer documents.

525 or Dunn Index, that compute the homogeneity of each clusters (i.e. the intra-set
 526 similarity) regarding the optimal separation (i.e. the inter-set similarity) [51]. The
 527 clustering results are presented in the evaluation section.

528 5. Deep Learning and Numerical Time Series For Clickstreams Forecasting

529 5.1. Preliminaries

530 The estimation of future values in a time series is a very interesting topic in
 531 data mining and machine learning. It is commonly done using past values of the
 532 same data. Given a job board time series, the forecasting here refers to the process
 533 of calculating one of several values ahead $\hat{X}^{JB_T}(N, h)$, using just the information
 534 given by the past values of the time series, $\hat{X}^{JB_T}(N, h) = \mathbf{f}(X_1^{JB_T}, X_2^{JB_T}, \dots, X_N^{JB_T})$.
 535 Time series prediction issues are a difficult type of predictive modelling problem.
 536 Unlike regression predictive modelling, time series also add the complexity of se-
 537 quence dependence among the input variables. In our context, we are interested
 538 by the prediction of clickstreams of the job applicants on different job boards. A
 539 powerful type of neural network designed to handle sequence dependencies are
 540 called recurrent neural networks (RNN) [47] [52]. They have the ability to con-
 541 nect previous information to the present task, such as using previous clicks values
 542 during the forecasting. However, the main drawback of RNN is that it is very
 543 difficult to get them to store information for long periods of time [53]. The Long
 544 Short-Term Memory Networks or LSTM network is a type of recurrent neural
 545 network used in deep learning because very large architectures can be success-
 546 fully trained. They were introduced by Hochreiter and Schmidhuber [49] as an
 547 improvement of RNNs, and were refined and popularized by many researchers in

548 machine learning. Fig. 13 gives an example of a memory cell in a LSTM neural
 549 network.

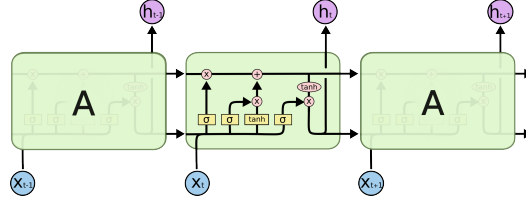


Figure 13: Example of a memory cell in a LSTM neural network.

550 It contains some multiplicative gates to keep constant error flow through the
 551 internal states of the special units. The three multiplicative gates are Input (I),
 552 Output (O) and Forget (F) gates. Their main role is to prevent memory contents
 553 from being perturbed by irrelevant inputs and outputs. The gates are used to save
 554 important information for each hidden layer from its previous layer, and vice versa
 555 with forget gates.

556 The simple version of a recurrent neural network owns an internal state h_t which
 557 is a summary of the sequence seen until the previous time step ($t-1$) and it is used
 558 together with the new input x_{t-1} [54], [49]:

$$h_t = \sigma(W_h x_t + U_h h_{t-1} + b_h) \quad (5)$$

$$y_t = \sigma(W_y h_t + b_y) \quad (6)$$

559 where W_h and U_h are respectively the weight matrices for the input and the inter-
 560 nal state, W_y is the weight matrix for producing the output from the internal state,
 561 and the two b_y and b_h values are bias vectors.

562 The learning capability of this kind of RNNs is limited by the vanishing gradient
 563 problem, which prevent the learning of long term dependencies. Long Short-Term
 564 Memory (LSTM) has been hence proposed as a variant of RNN with the explicit
 565 intent of preventing the vanishing gradient, and it is defined by the following equa-
 566 tions [54],[49]:

$$f_t = \sigma(W_f x_t + U_f h_{t-1} + b_f) \quad (7)$$

$$i_t = \sigma(W_i x_t + U_i h_{t-1} + b_i) \quad (8)$$

$$o_t = \sigma(W_o x_t + U_o h_{t-1} + b_o) \quad (9)$$

569

$$c_t = \sigma(W_c x_t + U_c h_{t-1} + b_c) \quad (10)$$

570

$$s_t = f_t \cdot s_{t-1} + i_t \cdot c_t \quad (11)$$

571

$$h_t = \tanh(s_t) \cdot o_t \quad (12)$$

572 where i_t , f_t , o_t are, respectively, the input, forget and output gates, with values
 573 between 0 and 1, which decide what part of the input, of the previous hidden
 574 state and of the candidate output should flow through the network. The vanishing
 575 gradient is due to the derivative of the \tanh function that is always strictly less
 576 than 1. In LSTM, the derivatives depend also on the gates, so that they are not
 577 anymore limited.

578 5.2. Architecture of the LSTM

579 The proposed Deep4Job clickstreams time series forecasting method is de-
 580 scribed in Algorithm 1. It takes as input the list of job boards, and a dictionary of
 581 the embedding clusters, where for each cluster we have the list of its job offers.
 582 The algorithm starts reading the time series of the clickstreams variation of the
 583 job offers that are disseminated in a job board JB_i and present in a cluster C_j .
 584 For each cluster of job offers, we will have then as much time series as the num-
 585 ber of job boards. Then the algorithm applies the LSTM deep neural network,
 586 to train the temporal model on the time series and calculate $forecast(JB_i)_h$ the
 587 future values of clicks in an horizon h (average of 5 days). A maximum value of
 588 the forecasted clickstreams $Maxclick$ is calculated and its associated job board is
 589 identified as the winner job board, which will be associated in a hash table to the
 590 considered cluster. The algorithm may generate a list of winner job boards on the
 591 ranked list of the predicted time series. This is the case when many job boards
 592 have led to similar $Maxclick$ values during the forecasting.

593 We have implemented our predictive model using Keras deep learning library to
 594 address the time series forecasting problem. The network has a visible input layer,
 595 2 LSTM layers of size 32 units, each of which followed by 3 drop out layers, and
 596 2 fully connected layers of size 64 units. The architecture is displayed in Fig.
 597 14. The selection of the best architecture is still heuristic, even though we have
 598 tested very deep networks with more LSTM layers. However, the results were
 599 approximately close to those obtained with this architecture. The default sigmoid
 600 activation function is used for the LSTM blocks. The network is trained for 200

601 epochs and a batch size of 1 to 10 is used in the input. A sliding window of
 602 length 8 is used to address the problem as a regression. Concerning this look-
 603 back window we did several experiments and we found $w = 8$ as a best tuning
 604 parameter. The output of the network makes an estimation of the forecasting and
 605 the algorithm attempts to keep the maximum value $Maxclie = forecast(JB_i)_h$
 606 and hence the good job board JB_i . The reader can access to the freely available
 607 code in our repository, in-order to test and evaluate the model ⁷.
 608 For breaking down the over-fitting problems, we have used the dropout technique.
 609 This machine learning approach consists in randomly zeroing-out input units of
 610 layers in order to break happenstance correlations in the training data that the
 611 layers are exposed to. It has been known that applying dropout before a recur-
 612 rent layer hinders learning rather than helping with regularization. In the case of
 613 LSTM networks, a temporally constant dropout mask is applied to the inner acti-
 614 vations of the layers, in order to properly propagate its learning error through time
 615 [11].
 616 The obtained results as well as the impact of the deep learning predictive network
 on the recommender system will be presented in the evaluation section.

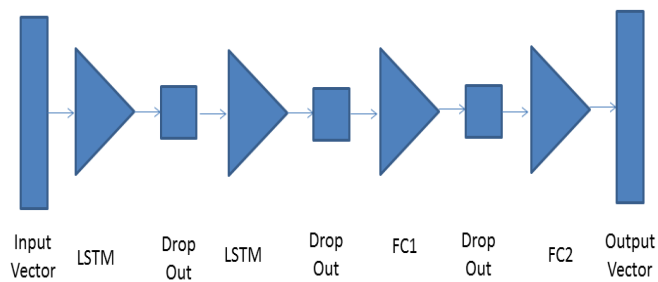


Figure 14: Overview on the architecture of the deep neural network implemented in our algorithm. An input layer is followed by 2 LSTM layers and 2 fully connected layers. Drop out layers were used to avoid over-fitting problem during the training.

617

⁷<https://gitlab.com/opencver91/dl>

Algorithm 1 Deep learning algorithm for numerical time series Clicks forecasting in each job-board.

Require: A collection of clusters C_{off} containing similar job offers, and a list of job boards JB , and an horizon value h .

Ensure: The appropriate job boards which maximize the predicted value of clicks ratio.

Begin

$Maxclick = 0$

By considering a cluster of job offers C_{off} at each time

for each jobboard JB_i in database DB **do**

for each instant $t \in \Delta_t$ **do**

 Calculate the ratio $x(t) = \frac{|clicks|}{|C_{off}|}$.

end for

 Construct time series $X(JB_i) = \{x(t) | t \in \Delta_t\}$.

 Apply moving average filter on $X(JB_i)$ to reduce noises.

 Use LSTM deep neural net to calculate $forecast(JB_i)_h$ future values of clicks in an horizon h .

if $Maxclick \leq forecast(JB_i)_h$ **then**

$Maxclick = forecast(JB_i)_h$

 WinnerJobBoadsList.Add(JB_i)

end if

end for

return Map(C_{off} , WinnerJobBoadsList).

End

618 **6. Deep Learning and Temporal Sequences For Clickstreams Forecasting**

619 *6.1. Preliminaries*

620 Predictive models with symbolic sequences concern generally 4 types of prob-
621 lems [47]: Sequence prediction, Sequence Classification, Sequence generation,
622 Sequence-to-sequence Prediction. These models are different from set-based ma-
623 chine learning problems since in a sequence, the order of the observations is ex-
624 plicitly imposed.

625 Sequence prediction models, also known as sequence learning, involve the predic-
626 tion of the next value for a given input sequence. They are still a big challenge in
627 pattern recognition and machine learning. Weather forecasting is a good example
628 of sequence prediction.

629 Sequence classification involves predicting a class label for a given input se-
630 quence. DNA sequence mining or sentiment analysis is a good example of se-
631 quence classification.

632 Sequence generation involves generating a new output sequence that has the sim-
633 ilar features as the input sequence. Text generation or handwrite prediction are
634 good examples of sequence generation.

635 Sequence to sequence prediction (or *seq2seq*) is an extension of sequence pre-
636 diction models. Rather than predicting a unique value, a new sequence of length
637 greater or equal to one is predicted. So-far multi-step time series forecasting is an
638 example of *seq2seq* learning.

639 As in the previous section, we want to consider the clickstreams predictive model
640 with an alternative way, using symbolic sequences instead of numerical time se-
641 ries. The symbolic encoding of time series with dimensionality reduction methods
642 attempts to model trajectories of job applicants through their past visits and clicks,
643 and might be useful to highlight their global behaviour for estimating what new
644 job offers they want to apply for in the future. The remainder of this section
645 presents firstly the two used time series encoding methods (SAX and PMVQ),
646 then will show how it is possible to forecast future clicks with symbolic sequences
647 using both probabilistic N-grams and deep learning.

648 *6.2. Definitions*

649 Nowadays, sources of information increased dramatically in different life do-
650 mains, due to the availability of sensors in different systems. Time series data are
651 occurring almost everywhere in various domains from medical (EEG, ECG, blood
652 pressure), aerospace (satellite data), finance and business (stock market), meteo-
653 rology (variation in temperature or pressure), sociology (crime figures, number

654 of arrests), and others [55][56, 57]. Time series (TS) data mining methods are
 655 actually involved in many applications such as classification, clustering, similar-
 656 ity search, motif discovery, anomaly detection, and others [58, 56]. In practice,
 657 multi valued numerical TS suffer from high dimensionality, which is not conve-
 658 nient in the storage of this kind of data and the computational complexity of their
 659 manipulation. Such difficulties led to propose solutions involving dimensional-
 660 ity reduction. Many discretization methods have been proposed in the literature
 661 to encode time series in symbolic strings [59][60][61][62]. Among these meth-
 662 ods, there is Fourier transform, PCA (Principal Component Analysis), Wavelet
 663 transform, SAX (Symbolic Aggregate Approximation) [61] and PMVQ (Parallel
 664 Multi-resolution Vector Quantization) [57]. All these methods have their advan-
 665 tages and some inconveniences. However, in a past work we have made an exhaus-
 666 tive evaluation, and have shown that SAX and PMVQ are very popular methods
 667 since they have been widely used for similarity search and clustering purposes
 668 [57]. We will present in a first step SAX and PMVQ methods, and then will show
 669 their involvement in our symbolic prediction application. Each predicted sym-
 670 bol is a quantification of the users' clicks on job offers. Hence we will study the
 671 behavioral trajectories of job applicants throughout these new representations.

672 6.3. Time Series Symbolic Aggregate Approximation: SAX

673 SAX maps a time series $T = (X_1^{JB_T}, X_2^{JB_T}, \dots, X_N^{JB_T})$ to a sequence of symbols
 674 from an alphabet of size $a = |\Sigma|$ [61]. The first step of this approach is to divide
 675 the time series of length n in w (codeword) frames of equal size and compute the
 676 mean value of the data falling within the window frame, and a vector of these
 677 values becomes the data-reduced representation. The sum of these averages is
 678 based on the PAA transformation (Piecewise Aggregate Approximation) where
 679 the i^{th} element is $C_i = \frac{w}{n} \sum_{j=\frac{n}{w}(i-1)+1}^{\frac{n}{w}i} X^{JB_T}$. It should be noted that, before applying
 680 PAA, each time series is normalized to zero mean and standard deviation of 1, to
 681 avoid comparing time series with different offsets and amplitudes.

682 In the second stage, each segment is symbolized by strings of an alphabet. The
 683 conversion of the PAA representation of a time series into SAX is based on pro-
 684 ducing symbols that correspond to the time series features with equal probability.
 685 Keogh et al. [61] have shown that usually, the time series data follow a Normal
 686 distribution. With the normal distribution we can easily choose areas of equal size
 687 on the Gaussian curve, which define the breakpoints (quantiles) [61]. The same
 688 authors used a lookup table to determine breakpoints that divide a Gaussian dis-
 689 tribution in an arbitrary number of equitable regions. The number of breakpoints

690 β_i is related to the size of the alphabet a (codebook), where *number (breakpoints)*
 691 $= \text{alphabet size} - 1$.

692 The interval between two successive breakpoints is assigned to a symbol of the
 693 alphabet, and each segment of the PAA within this interval is discretized by this
 694 symbol.

695 Fig. 15 gives an example of a numerical time series and its relative SAX se-
 696 quence. In this example, the codeword length $w=8$ (8 window positions or splits
 697 along time dimension), and the codebook length $a = 3$ (three symbols of the al-
 698 phabet). The SAX sequence of this series is *CBCCBAAB*. It appears clearly
 699 that such representation is very useful since data acquisition and their representa-
 700 tion in numerical time series can intimately engender errors related to sensors or
 701 the acquisition protocol. It also appears evidently that with symbolic sequences,
 702 we can take the advantage of the robustness of the symbolic data mining and nat-
 703 ural language processing methods, such as similarity search, pattern discovery,
 frequent motifs mining, behavioral trajectories construction, etc.

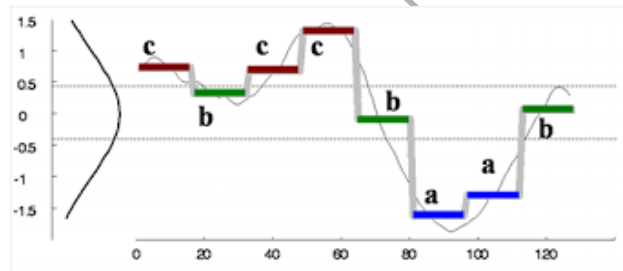


Figure 15: Example of a time series encoding to a SAX sequence. First, parameters such as the codeword (window length) as well as the codebook (number of symbols) are defined by the user. The temporal data are split down with a factor of codeword. At each position of the window, the mean value is calculated and then encoded with a symbol.

704

705 6.4. Time Series Parallel Multi-Resolution Vectors Quantization: PMVQ

706 Vector Quantization (VQ) is a wavelet transform that has been widely used in
 707 image processing for color image compression [63]. It is based on the extraction
 708 of the perceptual spatial correlation through wavelet transforms. Given a time se-
 709 ries $T = (X_1^{JB_T}, X_2^{JB_T}, \dots, X_N^{JB_T})$ with $X_i^{JB_T} \in R^N$ is the data point representing
 710 the relative click quantity of job applicants on the job offers at a date (i) in the
 711 job board JB . We define a vector quantizer Q of size K and dimension N as a
 712 mapping function of the data points $X_i^{JB_T}$ in one of the K output generated points

713 Y_j from C where: $C = \{Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_K\}$ where $Y_j \in R^N$. Here C is called the code-
 714 book (CB) and Y is the codeword (CW).

715 Our implementation of the PMVQ method for the clicks time series symbolic rep-
 716 resentation is given in Fig. 16. First, job boards time series are extracted from the
 717 big database, and split down as subsequences of a given length that equals (CW)
 718 code word parameter (top right in Fig. 16). The obtained subsequences are cluster-
 719 ed in different groups of a given size (CB) that represents the code book. The
 720 parameter CB represents the number of clusters of the parallel hadoop-based parti-
 721 tioning algorithm (bottom right of Fig. 16). After that, a sliding window alongside
 722 the original time series is analysed, and each position in the series is compared to
 723 the content of the learned CB. The most similar label of the clusters is identified
 724 as the symbolizing alphabet of the current window position. In other terms, the
 725 subsequence representing the current position of the sliding window is compared
 726 to the subsequences of CB which represent the centroids of the clusters, and then
 727 the pointed subsequence is labeled by the identifier of the most similar centroid.
 728 Parameters such as codeword (window length) as well as codebook (number of
 729 symbols) are defined by the user [57, 62].

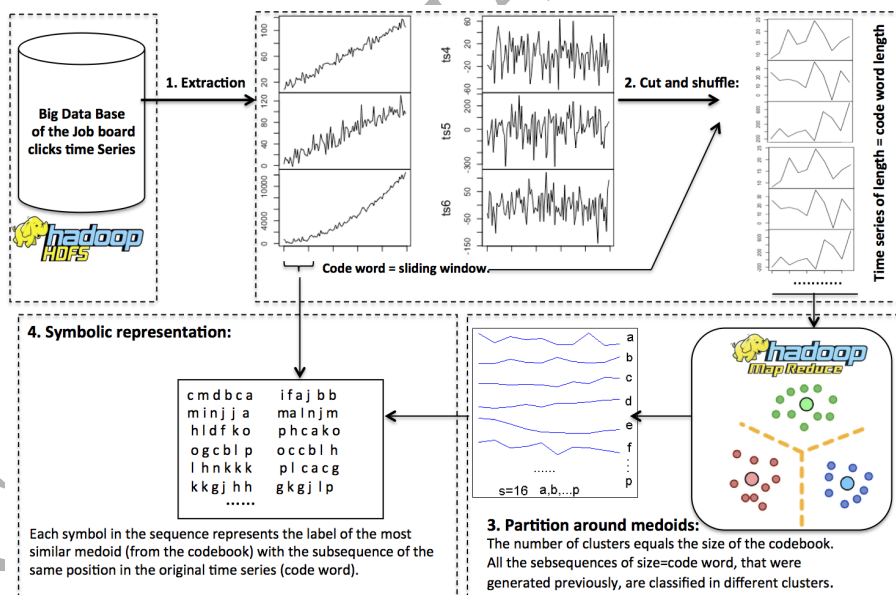


Figure 16: Implementation of the PMVQ method for time series symbolic representation.

730 6.5. Clicks Symbolic Time Series Prediction:

731 6.5.1. Prediction with N-grams

732 As illustrated in bottom of Fig. 1, each time series representing job boards
 733 will be encoded as a SAX or PMVQ symbolic sequence. The inputs of the en-
 734 coding function are a job board series, the codeword (w), and the codebook (a).
 735 Note that the couple (w, a) is called the encoding resolution. Having a symbolic
 736 sequence of length w that we call S_w , Algorithm 1 is modified so that the predic-
 737 tion function becomes $forecast(JB_i)_h = predict(future_symbol|S_w)$. The task
 738 of this sequence prediction function consists of forecasting the next symbol of
 739 a sequence based on the previously observed symbols. Recall that the predicted
 740 symbol represents in our case a future quantification of a clickstream value. To
 741 that aim, we propose here the use of Q-grams for generating sub-sequences from
 742 each sequence.

743 An n -gram is a succession of n characters or n words. A q -gram is a sub sequence
 744 of q consecutive characters in a given sequence. The n -gram method in our case
 745 will index and save all possible sub-sequences of length n .

746 The n -gram method was used by Claude Shannon who considered that it is possi-
 747 ble to estimate the likelihood of observing a new symbol using the past observed
 748 symbols of a word. This modeling is a Markov model of order n where only the
 749 n last observations are used to predict future symbols [64].

750 For instance, having a symbolic sequence ($AABAACAAB$) of length $k \leq n$, the
 751 probability of having an element at position i depends only on the $n - 1$ precedent
 752 elements, so that: $P(w_i|w_1, \dots, w_{i-1}) = P(w_i|w_{i-(n-1)}, w_{i-(n-2)}, \dots, w_{i-1})$. For ex-
 753 ample with $n = 3$ we will have: $P(w_i|w_1, \dots, w_{i-1}) = P(w_i|w_{i-2}, w_{i-1})$. With the
 754 precedent sequence $AABAACAAB$ we can have the possible n -grams depicted
 755 in table 1.

756 We can observe from the sequence the following occurring probabilities: $P(AAB) =$
 757 2 , $P(ABA) = 1$, $P(BAA) = 1$, $P(AAC) = 1$, $P(ACA) = 1$, etc. Hence we
 758 can estimate $P(B|AA) = \frac{P(AAB)}{P(AA)} = \frac{2}{3}$, and $P(C|AA) = \frac{P(AAC)}{P(AA)} = \frac{1}{3}$. Thus whenever
 759 we have the motif AA in a sequence we can expect the probability of having in
 760 the future the symbol B as $2/3$, and a symbol C with a probability $1/3$. As in
 761 the numerical time series case, the algorithm tries to identify the job board which
 762 will satisfy $Maxclic = forecast(JB_i)_h$. Here the variable $Maxclic$ is a symbol
 763 instead of a real value. For instance, regarding the SAX sequence displayed in
 764 Fig. 15, the greater values are those with the symbol C as breakpoint. Hence job
 765 boards that yield to predictions of sequences terminating with the symbol C are
 766 kept for recommendation, since it represents in this example the greater quantifi-

Table 1: The possible n-grams from the symbolic sequence *AABAACAAB*.

n=1	n=2	n=3	n=4	n=5
A	AA	AAB	AABA	AABAA
B	AB	ABA	ABAA	ABAAC
C	BA	BAA	BAAC	BAACA
	AC	AAC	AACA	AACAA
	CA	ACA	ACAA	ACAAB
		CAA	CAAB	

767 cation of the clicks. We consider all the n-grams of a sequence of a given job
 768 board as a database of sub-sequences. This database will be used as a training
 769 set of the sequence predictor that is implemented in [65]⁸. The results of the
 770 prediction and the recommendation are discussed in the evaluation section.

771 6.5.2. Prediction with Deep Neural Networks

772 Sequence prediction in deep learning is a different issue from the other class of
 773 machine learning problems. It is mandatory to have an order on the observations
 774 that should be respected along the sequence during the learning process.

775 For our job offers symbolic time series forecasting we have considered Seq2Seq
 776 prediction model in which Encoder-Decoder LSTM are used to predict click-
 777 streams symbols. The architecture includes one layer for reading the input sym-
 778 bolic sequence and encoding it into a fixed length vector, in-order to learn the
 779 relationship between the symbols. The second layer (also known as the decoder)
 780 is used for decoding the pre-processed vectors to predict one or a set of symbols
 781 (sub-sequence). We implemented our model under Keras API (as in the case of
 782 numerical time series forecasting). The sources are given in the git repository of
 783 the project.

784 The architecture of the deep network used in Fig. 14 was also used here for sym-
 785 bolic trajectories prediction. However, we added additional layers to do one hot
 786 encoding of the input symbolic sequences. This involves converting each sym-
 787 bol of SAX or PMVQ to a binary vector. The decoder layer does the inverse, by
 788 converting the output vectors back into symbols. Results are presented in the next

⁸<https://github.com/tedgueniche/IPredict>

789 section for the remaining evaluation of our recommender system.

790 **7. Evaluation and Results Discussion**

791 In this section we will show the results of the evaluation of the different con-
792 tributions that we have made in this paper. The assessment protocol involves in
793 a first step the evaluation of the Doc2Vec job offers clustering. In a second step
794 we will show the evaluation of the forecasting models on the numerical time se-
795 ries, as well as the symbolic sequences. Finally we will show the impact of each
796 contribution on the recommendation system.

797 *7.1. Evaluation of the Doc2Vec-Embedded job offers clustering*

798 We present here the results of the job offers clustering. Recall that we have
799 used Doc2Vec embedding representation for the projection of the job offers in
800 an embedded space model. It was generated using Gensim API implementation
801 of Doc2Vec. Then partitions around medoids as well as hierarchical clustering,
802 methods were used to cluster job offers vectors. The inputs of Gensim are the
803 three million textual documents that represent the job offers. For each document,
804 we repeated the cleaning and tokenization procedures as illustrated in Fig. 11.
805 Fig. 17, 18 and 19 show some dendrograms that were produced with hierarchical
806 clustering using 1000, 10000 and 50000 random job offers documents through
807 their embedded vectors. We didn't depict the dendrogram of the 3 million doc-
808 uments since it is not readable. The dendrogram can give a good clue on the
809 partitioning clustering such as K-means or PAM algorithms. Indeed our global
810 aim is to find the optimum number of clusters of our job offers documents, to
811 make emerging the topics in our database. The optimum number of clusters can
812 be obtained using the silhouette index method. In our case and after repeating
813 the clustering process many times, we have observed that with $k = 663$, we ob-
814 tained steady partitions of the textual job offers documents. These clusters will
815 be then used for generating the time series and making possible the forecasting
816 procedures.

817 *7.2. Evaluation of the LSTM Networks for Numerical Time Series Forecasting*

818 In this section we present the results of our experimentations on the LSTM
819 neural networks that were implemented using Keras library. Each job board in the
820 database is represented as a time series of 6 years (length= 6x365). Each series
821 is divided into 2 subsets, 67% for training the LSTM model and 33% for the
822 validation. Results are given in Fig. 20. Each job board is represented as a time

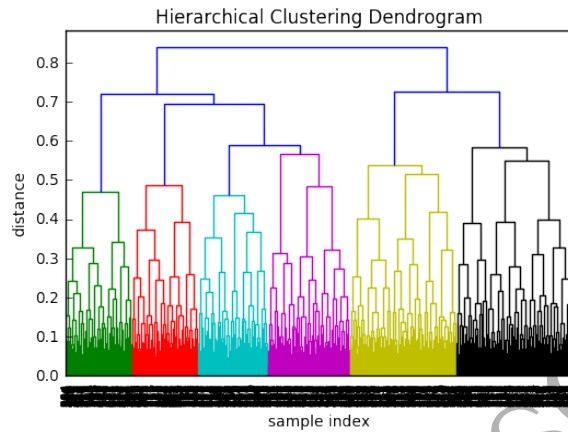


Figure 17: Dendrogram of some randomly chosen 1000 job offers documents using the similarity of their Doc2Vec representation.

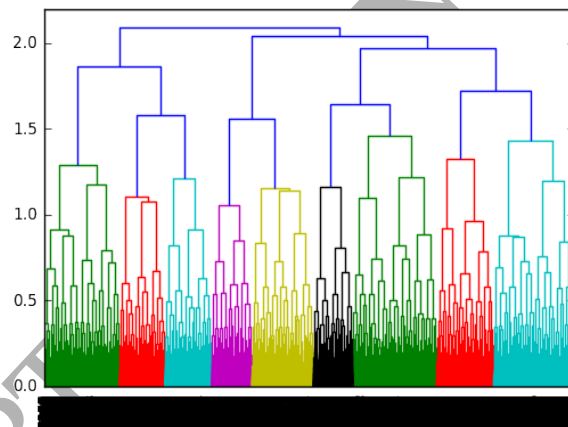


Figure 18: Dendrogram of some randomly chosen 10000 job offers documents using the similarity of their Doc2Vec representation..

823 series which is the input in the network. In blue we have the original data, green
 824 points represent the model fitted during the training, and red points represent the
 825 prediction of future clickstreams. We can observe that the predicted values in
 826 red fit well with the original time series in blue. To quantify these results, Fig. 21
 827 gives an overview on the variation of the training error with the LSTM deep neural
 828 network using one job board from the precedent figure. Error values decrease after
 829 small number of iterations. This observation was checked for different job boards.

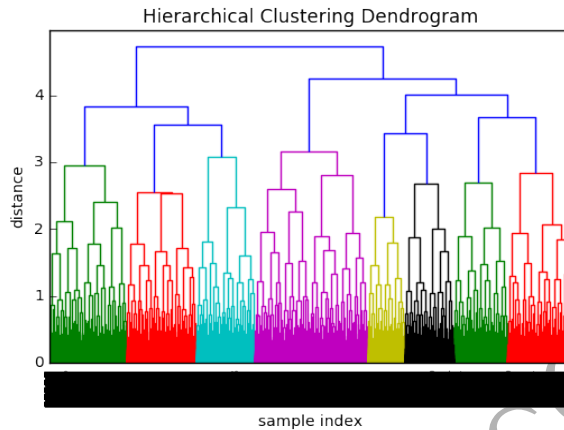


Figure 19: Dendrogram of some randomly chosen 50000 job offers documents using the similarity of their Doc2Vec representation..

830 For going a step forward in our evaluation, we calculated for each job board in
 831 the training DB the RMSE between the predicted values and the real time series
 832 data. Results are shown in Fig. 22. Error values are fluctuating with a global
 833 average of 0.14 which is very acceptable for a forecasting model.

834 7.3. Evaluation of the prediction with SAX and PMVQ Temporal Sequences

835 In this section we present the results of our experimentations that concern the
 836 use of the symbolic sequences for analysing the job applicant's trajectories in the
 837 database, and the prediction of future clickstreams symbols in the sequences. We
 838 have implemented both SAX and PMVQ dimensionality reduction methods using
 839 the same time series data.

840 Each job board time series is represented hence as a SAX and PMVQ sequence.
 841 Different resolutions, i.e. codeword and codebook values, were tested. Table 2
 842 shows the used values in our experiment, which were in concordance with what
 843 were proposed in [61][57]. We expect that using high resolutions (large code-
 844 word splits, and great symbol codebook) the compression would be lossless, and
 845 inversely with small resolutions. For instance, with 1000 time series and using
 846 both SAX and PMVQ encoding methods, and for 8 resolutions we can obtain
 847 $1000 \times 2 \times 8 = 16000$ symbolic sequences to train the models.

848 Fig. 23 and Fig. 24 illustrate the spectral representation of some job boards with
 849 the two encoding methods when producing the symbolic series. It is a new and
 850 innovative representation that we propose to have a global overview on the time

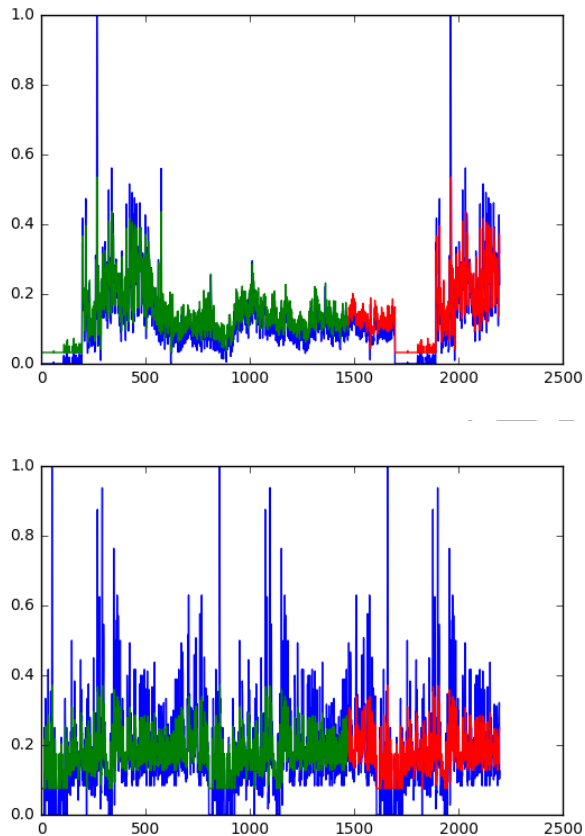


Figure 20: Some results of the training and test over the LSTM neural networks. Each job board is a time series which is the input the network. In blue we have the original clickstreams time series data, green points represent the model fitted during the training, and red points represent the prediction of future clickstreams.

851 series database, and for visually analysing the trajectories of the job applicants.
 852 Each vertical line represents a job board symbolic sequence. Each pixel of the
 853 line represents the quantification of the clicks with the encoding method.

854 Recall that we firstly applied N-grams as a first predictive method on the sym-
 855 bolic sequences. The global average RMSE values between the predicted sym-
 856 bols and real symbols in the sequence, are displayed in table 3 for each resolution.
 857 We can observe that the highest resolutions 7 and 8 have generated good RMSE
 858 for both encoding methods, with slight good results with PMVQ (0.25), whereas

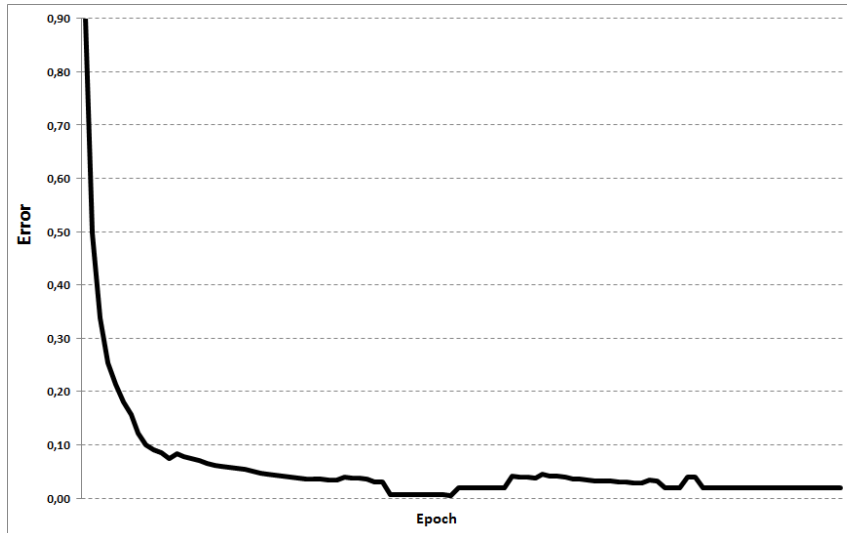


Figure 21: Variation of the error during the training of the LSTM neural network on a job board time series (Epoch 1 to 200). Error values decrease after small iterations.

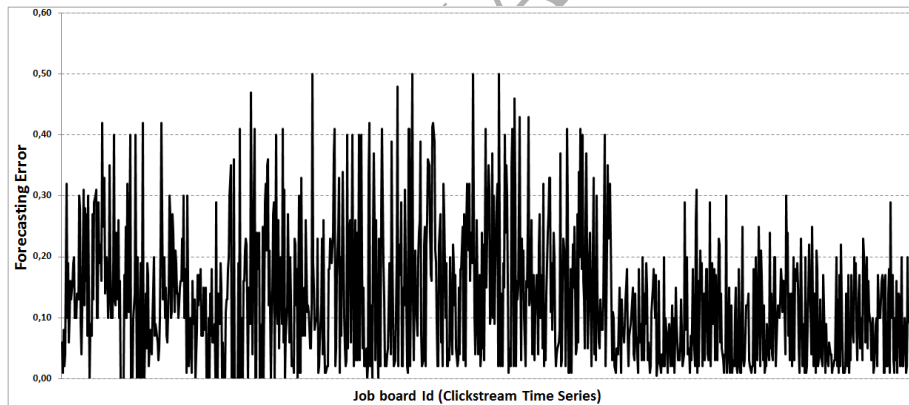


Figure 22: Variation of the prediction error using the LSTM deep neural network. The RMSE error is calculated between the predicted values and the real time series data. X-axis: job boards identifiers in the DB. Y-axis: the RMSE values.

859 small resolutions have led to bad predictions. The simplest way to interpret these
 860 observations is that with low resolutions, the symbolic encoding is lossy. By
 861 consequence the forecasting may have weaknesses due to the low discriminative
 862 power that may exist between the observed sequences. These results confirm
 863 what we have already observed in a previous work on sensors data classification,

Table 2: The used resolutions for the temporal sequences generation. Values are varying from high resolutions (high codeword splits, and high symbol codebook) to small resolutions.

Resolution	Codeword	Codebook
1	8	8
2	8	16
3	128	8
4	128	16
5	256	8
6	256	16
7	512	8
8	512	16

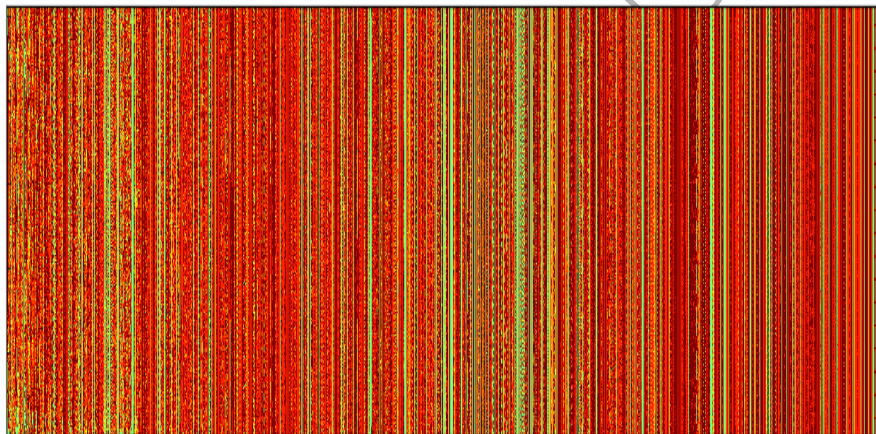


Figure 23: Spectral representation of some job boards with the SAX symbolic series. Each vertical line represents a job board symbolic sequence. Each pixel of the line represents the quantification of the clicks with SAX.

864 where we have shown that with high resolutions we can expect good classification
865 and vice-versa [57].

866
867 To enhance the analysis we continued our evaluation protocol by testing the
868 same symbolic sequences database on the proposed seq2seq deep neural network
869 for sequence prediction that we have presented in the previous sections as a sec-
870 ond predictive model on the symbolic sequences. Fig. 25 gives an example of the
871 variation of the loss function, during the training of the deep neural network, on a
872 PMVQ symbolic sequence of a given job board clicks data. Prediction error tends

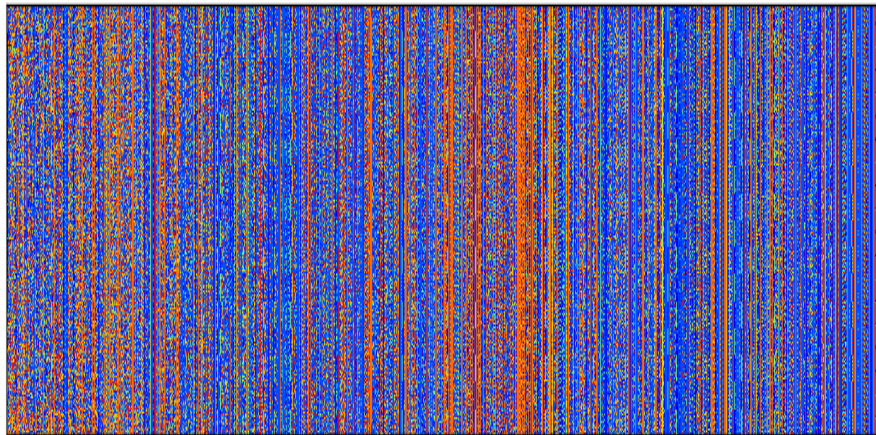


Figure 24: Spectral representation of some job boards with the PMVQ symbolic series. Each vertical line represents a job board's symbolic sequence. Each pixel of the line represents the quantification of the clicks with PMVQ.

Table 3: The obtained average RMSE values during the prediction with N-grams, for each resolution.

Res.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
SAX RMSE	0.55	0.5	0.45	0.39	0.4	0.33	0.31	0.30
PMVQ RMSE	0.5	0.45	0.42	0.39	0.39	0.3	0.27	0.25

873 to zero after 200 epochs which is a good clue for convergence.

874 As in the previous case we have split down the sequences between learning and
 875 validation sub-sequences to make comparison between predicted and real sym-
 876 bols. Fig. 26 and Fig. 27 show the variation of the prediction accuracies which
 877 were obtained with deep LSTM on the SAX and PMVQ job board sequences re-
 878 spectively. The results concern sequences of resolution 8 since we obtained weak
 879 RMSE errors using this resolution. We can observe here that with PMVQ the pre-
 880 diction of future clicks quantification symbols is more efficient than SAX method.
 881 A global accuracy average of 0.89 was observed for PMVQ versus 0.73 for SAX.
 882 We have calculated the accuracy averages for the remaining resolutions (R1 to R8)
 883 with SAX and PMVQ, and the results are given in Fig. 28. Here we can also see
 884 that PMVQ is more efficient for predicting new symbols than SAX. Moreover, we
 885 can observe that with deep neural networks the prediction results are better than

886 those obtained with N-grams.

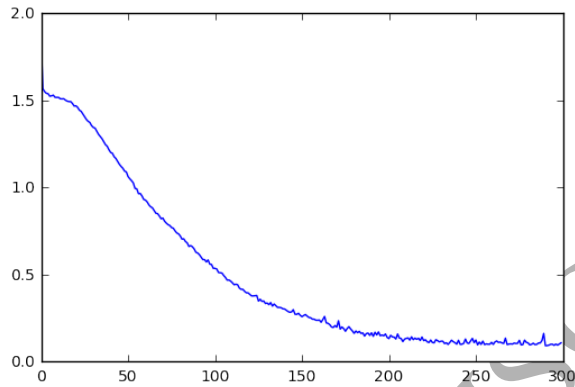


Figure 25: Variation of the loss function during the training of the deep neural network on a symbolic sequence. Prediction error tends to zero after 200 epochs.

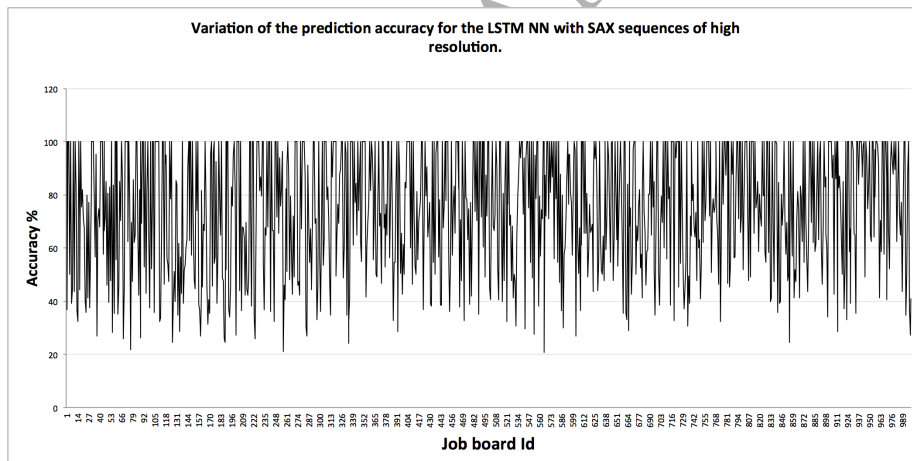


Figure 26: Variation of the prediction accuracy obtained with deep LSTM on the SAX job boards sequences. X axis: job boards IDs representing the SAX symbolic sequences of the clicks. Y axis: prediction accuracy on each job board. Results concern sequences of resolution 8.

887 7.4. Evaluation of Deep4Job During the Recommendation

888 As our work concerns a job offers recommender system that uses many tempo-
 889 ral prediction models, we decided to evaluate the impact of each proposed tech-
 890 nique on the recommendation performances of Deep4Job, that means for both

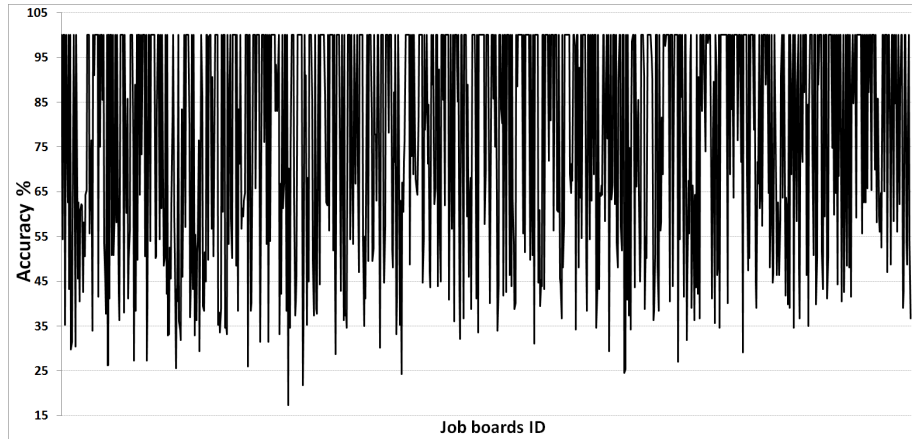


Figure 27: Variation of the prediction accuracy obtained with deep LSTM on the PMVQ job boards sequences. X axis: job boards IDs representing the PMVQ symbolic sequences of the clicks. Y axis: prediction accuracy on each job board. Results concern sequences of resolution 8.

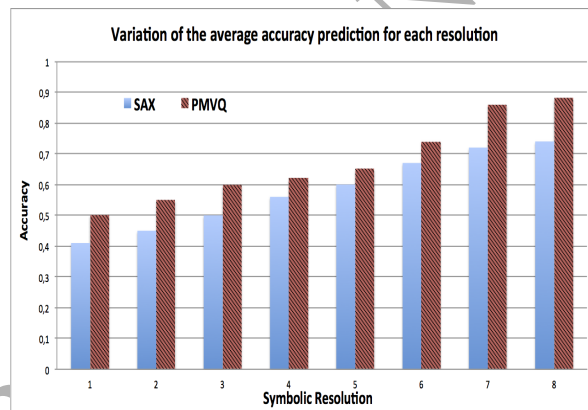


Figure 28: Average accuracy values of the prediction with the deep neural networks using the symbolic sequences of the job boards. Results are displayed for each resolution (R1 to R8) with SAX and PMVQ.

891 neural networks-based numerical time series prediction (Deep4Job LSTM-NN)
 892 as well as the symbolic sequences using the best resolution that equals 8 (with
 893 smallest RMSE) for SAX and PMVQ. The results are compared to a collabora-
 894 tive filtering (CF) method which corresponds to a baseline implementation of
 895 a previous work that we have proposed in [40]. This CF implementation is a
 896 memory-based approach, where the job offer documents are represented as vec-

897 tors of frequent terms (TF), and the similarity between items is calculated with a
 898 weighted cosine measure. We have used a ground truth validation dataset of job
 899 offers with their supposed best job boards in which they should be disseminated.
 900 Processes were repeated in 10-fold cross validation, and the results are displayed
 901 in Table 4. The average F1-Score observed with deep learning and the numerical
 902 time series prediction equals 95% (Deep4Job LSTM Num TS column). The
 903 F1-Score results of the deep learning prediction using both PMVQ and SAX en-
 904 coding methods are equal to 0.90 and 0.85 respectively (Deep4Job LSTM PMVQ
 905 and SAX Sym TS in Table 4). The results concerning N-grams prediction method
 906 for PMVQ and SAX are equal to 0.83 and 0.79 respectively (called Deep4Job
 907 NGrams PMVQ and SAX Sym TS in Table 4). The average F1-Score for the
 908 baseline recommender collaborative filtering (CF) is equal to 91%.

909 The first observation that we can make is that using the LSTM neural nets, the rec-
 910 ommendation performances have been improved significantly compared to clas-
 911 sical used methods (CF). The second observation concerns the high F-scores val-
 912 ues when using numerical time series rather than symbolic sequences prediction.
 913 Even though the encoding methods reduce the dimensionality and the complexity
 914 of the data, the loosed information can penalise the performance of the recom-
 915 mender system. We can also see that deep learning (LSTM) prediction methods
 916 are very efficient compared to other prediction techniques such as N-grams. This
 917 is also a confirmation of what we asserted in the state of the art section where we
 918 have discussed the robustness and the strength of the new deep learning methods
 919 compared to the classical machine learning approaches. These satisfactory results
 920 come as a support to our preliminary idea with which we wanted to show that
 921 it is possible to improve the efficiency of a job offer recommendation system by
 922 analysing the temporal behaviour of job applicants, through their historical navi-
 923 gation data on the Internet. This work is also a pioneer example of the usefulness
 924 of the deep learning paradigm with a job offer recommender system, which is at
 925 our best knowledge the first work that includes this technology in such application.

Table 4: Evaluation of the recommendation results.

Algorithm	Deep4Job LSTM Num TS	Deep4Job LSTM-PMVQ R8 Sym TS	Deep4Job LSTM-SAX R8 Sym TS	Deep4Job NGrams-PMVQ R8 Sym TS	Deep4Job NGrams-SAX R8 Sym TS	Baseline CF
F1-Score	0.95	0.90	0.85	0.83	0.79	0.91

926

927 **8. Conclusion and Perspectives**

928 In this work, we have presented *Deep4Job*, a big data recommendation system
929 based on the temporal prediction of the clickstreams with time series representa-
930 tion. The system analysis the historical behavior of job applicants in the Internet.
931 We have shown how it was possible to use Doc2Vec embedding representation for
932 extracting topics from large scale job offer documents. Then, we have proposed
933 many prediction algorithms, using deep learning methods. We have implemented
934 two complementary forecasting methods. The first approach uses LSTM neural
935 networks (LSTM-NN) with numerical clicks time series data, while the second
936 one uses multiple resolution time series symbolic encoding in the context of job
937 offers dissimination. The proposed system suggests the recommendation of post-
938 ing job offers in the top ranked job boards which may maximize at best the pre-
939 diction of future clicks values. Each approach was separately evaluated on real
940 datasets obtained from our industrial partner. The results were compared with the
941 state of the art collaborative filtering recommender system. *LSTM-NN* Deep neu-
942 ral networks showed good performances compared to the rest of the methods.
943 As future work, we envisage including job applicants reviews on job market so-
944 cial networks such as Linked-in or job forums, in-order to take into account the
945 sentiment analysis during the process of decision making. Indeed we want to use
946 such information as a feedback that can be used to endorse the job boards recom-
947 mendation. We also envisage to adapt and improve other prediction techniques
948 that were used in the financial prediction problems [66].

949 **Acknowledgment**

950 The authors would like to thank Multiposting start-up for data sharing.
951 Thanks to Dr. James Cheney for proofreading the article

952 **Funding**

953 This work was supported by the French government and Ile de France region
954 under a grant for FUI SONAR Project (FUI-AAP15-SONAR) for automatic re-
955 cruitment tasks.

956 **Availability:**

957 The sources and the additional materials are available in <https://gitlab.com/opencver91/dl>.

958 **Compliance with Ethical Standards**

959 The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest.

960 Ethical approval: This article does not contain any studies with human participants
961 or animals performed by the author.

962 **References**

- 963 [1] J. Sgula. *Fouille de données textuelles et systèmes de recommandation appliqués*
964 *aux offres d'emploi diffuses sur le web*. PhD thesis, CEDRIC Laboratory,
965 Paris, France, 2012.
- 966 [2] Xu Yu, Yan Chu, Feng Jiang, Ying Guo, and Dunwei Gong. Svms classifica-
967 tion based two-side cross domain collaborative filtering by inferring intrinsic
968 user and item features. *Knowledge-Based Systems*, 141(Supplement C):80 –
969 91, 2018.
- 970 [3] Haifeng Liu, Zheng Hu, Ahmad Mian, Hui Tian, and Xuzhen Zhu. A
971 new user similarity model to improve the accuracy of collaborative filtering.
972 *Knowledge-Based Systems*, 56(Supplement C):156 – 166, 2014.
- 973 [4] Charu C. Aggarwal. *Recommender Systems: The Textbook*. Springer Pub-
974 lishing Company, Incorporated, 1st edition, 2016.
- 975 [5] Mariem Bambia, Mohand Boughanem, and Rim Faiz. Exploring current
976 viewing context for TV contents recommendation. In *2016 IEEE/WIC/ACM*
977 *International Conference on Web Intelligence, WI 2016, Omaha, NE, USA,*
978 *October 13-16, 2016*, pages 272–279. IEEE Computer Society, 2016.
- 979 [6] Mohamed Nader Jelassi, Sadok Ben Yahia, and Engelbert Mephu Nguifo.
980 Étude du profil utilisateur pour la recommandation dans les folksonomies.
981 In Nathalie Pernelle, editor, *IC 2016 : 27es Journées francophones*
982 *d'Ingénierie des Connaissances (Proceedings of the 27th French Knowledge*
983 *Engineering Conference), Montpellier, France, June 6-10, 2016.*, pages 181–
984 192, 2016.
- 985 [7] recommender systems. [http://www.datasciencecentral.com/](http://www.datasciencecentral.com/profiles/blogs/5-types-of-recommenders)
986 [profiles/blogs/5-types-of-recommenders](http://www.datasciencecentral.com/profiles/blogs/5-types-of-recommenders). Accessed: 2010-
987 09-30.

- 988 [8] Da Cao, Liqiang Nie, Xiangnan He, Xiaochi Wei, Jialie Shen, Shunxiang
989 Wu, and Tat-Seng Chua. Version-sensitive mobile app recommendation. *Inf.*
990 *Sci.*, 381(C):161–175, March 2017.
- 991 [9] Da Cao, Xiangnan He, Liqiang Nie, Xiaochi Wei, Xia Hu, Shunxiang Wu,
992 and Tat-Seng Chua. Cross-platform app recommendation by jointly model-
993 ing ratings and texts. *ACM Trans. Inf. Syst.*, 35(4):37:1–37:27, July 2017.
- 994 [10] Da Cao, Liqiang Nie, Xiangnan He, Xiaochi Wei, Shunzhi Zhu, and Tat-
995 Seng Chua. Embedding factorization models for jointly recommending
996 items and user generated lists. In *Proceedings of the 40th International ACM*
997 *SIGIR Conference on Research and Development in Information Retrieval*,
998 *SIGIR '17*, pages 585–594, New York, NY, USA, 2017. ACM.
- 999 [11] F. Chollet. *Deep Learning with Python*. Manning Publications Company,
1000 2017.
- 1001 [12] Yann LeCun, Yoshua Bengio, and Geoffrey E. Hinton. Deep learning. *Nature*,
1002 521(7553):436–444, 2015.
- 1003 [13] Neeraj Kumar, Ruchika Verma, and Amit Sethi. Convolutional neural net-
1004 works for wavelet domain super resolution. *Pattern Recognition Letters*,
1005 90(Supplement C):65 – 71, 2017.
- 1006 [14] Alex Krizhevsky, Ilya Sutskever, and Geoffrey E. Hinton. Imagenet clas-
1007 sification with deep convolutional neural networks. In *Proceedings of the*
1008 *25th International Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems*,
1009 *NIPS'12*, pages 1097–1105, USA, 2012. Curran Associates Inc.
- 1010 [15] Karen Simonyan and Andrew Zisserman. Very deep convolutional networks
1011 for large-scale image recognition. *CoRR*, abs/1409.1556, 2014.
- 1012 [16] Andrej Karpathy and Li Fei-Fei. Deep visual-semantic alignments for
1013 generating image descriptions. *IEEE Trans. Pattern Anal. Mach. Intell.*,
1014 39(4):664–676, April 2017.
- 1015 [17] Max Jaderberg, Karen Simonyan, Andrew Zisserman, and Koray
1016 Kavukcuoglu. Spatial transformer networks. In *Proceedings of the*
1017 *28th International Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems*,
1018 *NIPS'15*, pages 2017–2025, Cambridge, MA, USA, 2015. MIT Press.

- 1019 [18] Tomas Mikolov, Wen-tau Yih, and Geoffrey Zweig. Linguistic regularities
1020 in continuous space word representations. In *HLT-NAACL*, pages 746–751,
1021 2013.
- 1022 [19] Tomas Mikolov. Recurrent neural network based language model. In *Inter-*
1023 *speech*, volume 2, page 3, 2010.
- 1024 [20] Tomas Mikolov, Ilya Sutskever, Kai Chen, Greg S Corrado, and Jeff Dean.
1025 Distributed representations of words and phrases and their compositionality.
1026 In *Advances in neural information processing systems*, pages 3111–3119,
1027 2013.
- 1028 [21] Razvan Pascanu, Tomas Mikolov, and Yoshua Bengio. On the difficulty of
1029 training recurrent neural networks. In *International Conference on Machine*
1030 *Learning*, pages 1310–1318, 2013.
- 1031 [22] Armand Joulin, Edouard Grave, Piotr Bojanowski, and Tomas Mikolov. Bag
1032 of tricks for efficient text classification, 2016. cite arxiv:1607.01759.
- 1033 [23] Christian Szegedy, Wei Liu, Yangqing Jia, Pierre Sermanet, Scott Reed,
1034 Dragomir Anguelov, Dumitru Erhan, Vincent Vanhoucke, and Andrew Ra-
1035 binovich. Going deeper with convolutions. In *Computer Vision and Pattern*
1036 *Recognition (CVPR)*, 2015.
- 1037 [24] Kaiming He, Xiangyu Zhang, Shaoqing Ren, and Jian Sun. Deep residual
1038 learning for image recognition. In *2016 IEEE Conference on Computer Vi-*
1039 *sion and Pattern Recognition, CVPR 2016, Las Vegas, NV, USA, June 27-30,*
1040 *2016*, pages 770–778. IEEE Computer Society, 2016.
- 1041 [25] Aäron van den Oord, Sander Dieleman, Heiga Zen, Karen Simonyan, Oriol
1042 Vinyals, Alex Graves, Nal Kalchbrenner, Andrew W. Senior, and Ko-
1043 ray Kavukcuoglu. Wavenet: A generative model for raw audio. *CoRR*,
1044 abs/1609.03499, 2016.
- 1045 [26] Changliang Li, Bo Xu, Gaowei Wu, Saike He, Guanhua Tian, and Hongwei
1046 Hao. Recursive deep learning for sentiment analysis over social data. In
1047 *Proceedings of the 2014 IEEE/WIC/ACM International Joint Conferences on*
1048 *Web Intelligence (WI) and Intelligent Agent Technologies (IAT) - Volume 02,*
1049 *WI-IAT '14*, pages 180–185, Washington, DC, USA, 2014. IEEE Computer
1050 Society.

- 1051 [27] Yoshua Bengio, Réjean Ducharme, Pascal Vincent, and Christian Janvin. A
1052 neural probabilistic language model. *J. Mach. Learn. Res.*, 3:1137–1155,
1053 March 2003.
- 1054 [28] Vishnu Nath and Stephen E. Levinson. *Autonomous Robotics and Deep*
1055 *Learning*. Springer Publishing Company, Incorporated, 2014.
- 1056 [29] David Silver, Aja Huang, Chris J. Maddison, Arthur Guez, Laurent Sifre,
1057 George van den Driessche, Julian Schrittwieser, Ioannis Antonoglou, Veda
1058 Panneershelvam, Marc Lanctot, Sander Dieleman, Dominik Grewe, John
1059 Nham, Nal Kalchbrenner, Ilya Sutskever, Timothy Lillicrap, Madeleine
1060 Leach, Koray Kavukcuoglu, Thore Graepel, and Demis Hassabis. Master-
1061 ing the game of Go with deep neural networks and tree search. *Nature*,
1062 529(7587):484–489, jan 2016.
- 1063 [30] Donghyun Kim, Chanyoung Park, Jinho Oh, Sungyoung Lee, and Hwanjo
1064 Yu. Convolutional matrix factorization for document context-aware recom-
1065 mendation. In *Proceedings of the 10th ACM Conference on Recommender*
1066 *Systems*, RecSys '16, pages 233–240, New York, NY, USA, 2016. ACM.
- 1067 [31] Yin Zheng, Bangsheng Tang, Wenkui Ding, and Hanning Zhou. A neural
1068 autoregressive approach to collaborative filtering. In *Proceedings of the 33rd*
1069 *International Conference on International Conference on Machine Learning*
1070 *- Volume 48*, ICML'16, pages 764–773. JMLR.org, 2016.
- 1071 [32] Young-Jun Ko, Lucas Maystre, and Matthias Grossglauser. Collaborative
1072 recurrent neural networks for dynamic recommender systems. In Robert J.
1073 Durrant and Kee-Eung Kim, editors, *Proceedings of The 8th Asian Confer-*
1074 *ence on Machine Learning*, volume 63 of *Proceedings of Machine Learn-*
1075 *ing Research*, pages 366–381, The University of Waikato, Hamilton, New
1076 Zealand, 16–18 Nov 2016. PMLR.
- 1077 [33] Florian Strub, Romaric Gaudel, and Jérémie Mary. Hybrid recommender
1078 system based on autoencoders. In *Proceedings of the 1st Workshop on Deep*
1079 *Learning for Recommender Systems*, DLRS 2016, pages 11–16, New York,
1080 NY, USA, 2016. ACM.
- 1081 [34] Aäron van den Oord, Sander Dieleman, and Benjamin Schrauwen. Deep
1082 content-based music recommendation. In *Proceedings of the 26th Interna-*
1083 *tional Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems - Volume 2*,
1084 NIPS'13, pages 2643–2651, USA, 2013. Curran Associates Inc.

- 1085 [35] Amjad Almahairi, Kyle Kastner, Kyunghyun Cho, and Aaron Courville.
1086 Learning distributed representations from reviews for collaborative filtering.
1087 In *Proceedings of the 9th ACM Conference on Recommender Systems, Rec-*
1088 *Sys '15*, pages 147–154, New York, NY, USA, 2015. ACM.
- 1089 [36] Lei Zheng, Vahid Noroozi, and Philip S. Yu. Joint deep modeling of users
1090 and items using reviews for recommendation. In *Proceedings of the Tenth*
1091 *ACM International Conference on Web Search and Data Mining, WSDM*
1092 *'17*, pages 425–434, New York, NY, USA, 2017. ACM.
- 1093 [37] Paul Covington, Jay Adams, and Emre Sargin. Deep neural networks for
1094 youtube recommendations. In *Proceedings of the 10th ACM Conference on*
1095 *Recommender Systems, RecSys '16*, pages 191–198, New York, NY, USA,
1096 2016. ACM.
- 1097 [38] Gediminas Adomavicius and Alexander Tuzhilin. Toward the next genera-
1098 tion of recommender systems: A survey of the state-of-the-art and possible
1099 extensions. *IEEE Trans. on Knowl. and Data Eng.*, 17(6):734–749, June
1100 2005.
- 1101 [39] Mamadou Diaby and Emmanuel Viennet. Développement d’une applica-
1102 tion de recommandation d’offres demploi aux utilisateurs de facebook et
1103 linkedin. In *Atelier Fouille de Données Complexes de la 14e Conférence In-*
1104 *ternationale Francophone sur l’Extraction et la Gestion des Connaissances*
1105 *(EGC'14)*, Rennes, jan 2014.
- 1106 [40] Sidahmed Benabderrahmane, Nedra Mellouli, Myriam Lamolle, and Patrick
1107 Paroubek. Smart4job: A big data framework for intelligent job offers broad-
1108 casting using time series forecasting and semantic classification. *Big Data*
1109 *Research*, 7:16–30, 2017.
- 1110 [41] V. Radevski, Z. Dika, and F. Trichet. Common: A framework for developing
1111 knowledge-based systems dedicated to competency-based management. In
1112 *Information Technology Interfaces, 2006. 28th International Conference on,*
1113 pages 419–424, 2006.
- 1114 [42] Matthias Hutterer. *Enhancing a Job Recommender with Implicit User Feed-*
1115 *back*. PhD thesis, University of Wien, May 2011.
- 1116 [43] Danielle H. Lee and Peter Brusilovsky. *User Modeling, Adaptation, and Per-*
1117 *sonalization: 17th International Conference, UMAP 2009, formerly UM and*

- 1118 *AH, Trento, Italy, June 22-26, 2009. Proceedings*, chapter Reinforcing Rec-
1119 ommendation Using Implicit Negative Feedback, pages 422–427. Springer
1120 Berlin Heidelberg, Berlin, Heidelberg, 2009.
- 1121 [44] Eleni Tsironi, Pablo Barros, Cornelius Weber, and Stefan Wermter. An anal-
1122 ysis of convolutional long short-term memory recurrent neural networks for
1123 gesture recognition. *Neurocomputing*, 268:76–86, 2017.
- 1124 [45] Jessica Lin, Eamonn J. Keogh, Li Wei, and Stefano Lonardi. Experiencing
1125 SAX: a novel symbolic representation of time series. *Data Min. Knowl.*
1126 *Discov.*, 15(2):107–144, 2007.
- 1127 [46] Alessandro Camerra, Jin Shieh, Themis Palpanas, Thanawin Rakthanmanon,
1128 and Eamonn J. Keogh. Beyond one billion time series: indexing and min-
1129 ing very large time series collections with i SAX2+. *Knowl. Inf. Syst.*,
1130 39(1):123–151, 2014.
- 1131 [47] Brownlee Jason. *Deep Learning With Python*. 2006.
- 1132 [48] Yuzhen Lu and Fathi M. Salem. Simplified gating in long short-term memory
1133 (LSTM) recurrent neural networks. *CoRR*, abs/1701.03441, 2017.
- 1134 [49] Sepp Hochreiter and Jürgen Schmidhuber. Long short-term memory. *Neural*
1135 *Comput.*, 9(8):1735–1780, November 1997.
- 1136 [50] William M. Fisher. A statistical text-to-phone function using ngrams and
1137 rules. In *Proceedings of the 1999 IEEE International Conference on Acous-*
1138 *tics, Speech, and Signal Processing, ICASSP '99, Phoenix, Arizona, USA,*
1139 *March 15-19, 1999*, pages 649–652, 1999.
- 1140 [51] Brijnesh J. Jain. Consistency of mean partitions in consensus clustering.
1141 *Pattern Recognition*, 71(Supplement C):26 – 35, 2017.
- 1142 [52] Xueliang Liu. Deep recurrent neural network for protein function prediction
1143 from sequence. *CoRR*, abs/1701.08318, 2017.
- 1144 [53] Zachary Chase Lipton. A critical review of recurrent neural networks for
1145 sequence learning. *CoRR*, abs/1506.00019, 2015.
- 1146 [54] Mattia Antonino Di Gangi, Salvatore Gaglio, Claudio La Bua, Giosuè Lo
1147 Bosco, and Riccardo Rizzo. A deep learning network for exploiting posi-
1148 tional information in nucleosome related sequences. In Ignacio Rojas and

- 1149 Francisco M. Ortuño Guzman, editors, *Bioinformatics and Biomedical En-*
1150 *gineering - 5th International Work-Conference, IWBBIO 2017, Granada,*
1151 *Spain, April 26-28, 2017, Proceedings, Part II*, volume 10209 of *Lecture*
1152 *Notes in Computer Science*, pages 524–533, 2017.
- 1153 [55] Gaber Mohamed et al. Mining data streams: a review. *SIGMOD Rec.*,
1154 34(2):18–26, 2005.
- 1155 [56] Anthony Bagnall, Jason Lines, Aaron Bostrom, James Large, and Eamonn J.
1156 Keogh. The great time series classification bake off: a review and experi-
1157 mental evaluation of recent algorithmic advances. *Data Min. Knowl. Discov.*,
1158 31(3):606–660, 2017.
- 1159 [57] Sidahmed Benabderrahmane, Rene Quiniou, and Thomas Guyet. Evaluating
1160 distance measures and times series clustering for temporal patterns retrieval.
1161 In James Joshi, Elisa Bertino, Bhavani M. Thuraisingham, and Ling Liu, edi-
1162 tors, *Proceedings of the 15th IEEE International Conference on Information*
1163 *Reuse and Integration, IRI 2014, Redwood City, CA, USA, August 13-15,*
1164 *2014*, pages 434–441. IEEE, 2014.
- 1165 [58] Ralanamahatana ChotiratAnn et al. Mining time series data. In Oded
1166 Maimon and Lior Rokach, editors, *DMKD Handbook*, pages 1069–1103.
1167 Springer US, 2005.
- 1168 [59] Kin-Pong Chan and A.W.-C. Fu. Efficient time series matching by wavelets.
1169 In *Data Engineering, 1999. Proceedings., 15th International Conference on,*
1170 pages 126–133, 1999.
- 1171 [60] Chakrabarti Kaushik and Keogh Eamonn et al. Locally adaptive dimen-
1172 sionality reduction for indexing large time series databases. *ACM TDS.*,
1173 27(2):188–228, June 2002.
- 1174 [61] Jessica Lin and Eamonn Keogh et al. A symbolic representation of time
1175 series, with implications for streaming algorithms. In *In Proceedings of the*
1176 *8th ACM SIGMOD RIDMKD Workshop*, pages 2–11. ACM Press, 2003.
- 1177 [62] Vasileios Megalooikonomou, Qiang Wang, Guo Li, and Christos Faloutsos.
1178 A multiresolution symbolic representation of time series. In *ICDE*, pages
1179 668–679, 2005.

- 1180 [63] J. B. Macqueen. Some methods of classification and analysis of multivariate
1181 observations. In *Proceedings of the 5th Berkeley Symp. on MSP*, pages 281–
1182 297, 1967.
- 1183 [64] Nicolas Turenne. *Analyse de données textuelles sous R*. editions COLLEC-
1184 TION SCIENCES COGNITIVES, 2016.
- 1185 [65] Open data mining library, howpublished = [http://www.
1186 philippe-fourrier-viger.com/spmf/index.php?link=
1187 documentation.php#cptplus](http://www.philippe-fourrier-viger.com/spmf/index.php?link=documentation.php#cptplus).
- 1188 [66] Yauheniya Shynkevich, T. Martin McGinnity, Sonya A. Coleman, Ammar
1189 Belatreche, and Yuhua Li. Forecasting price movements using technical
1190 indicators: Investigating the impact of varying input window length. *Neuro-
1191 computing*, 264:71–88, 2017.