

# Automatic User Profiling for Intelligent Tourist Trip Personalisation

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## ABSTRACT

We present a tourist itinerary recommendation algorithm that assists upcoming tourists by autonomously generating a personalised holiday plan according to their constraints. The system automatically builds a travel interest profile from the user's social media presence and recommends places tailored to the user's interests. Convolutional Neural Networks (CNN) classify the user's social media pictures into their respective travel category; Beach, Clubbing, Nature, Museums, Bars and Shopping. These determine their predominant travel interest topics. Then, two meta-heuristics, Particle Swarm Optimisation (PSO) and Genetic Algorithms (GA) use this computed travel profile to optimise a personalised plan. We evaluate the performance based on their plan quality and performance. The system was packaged into an application that allows users to connect with their social media accounts and generate a plan for a holiday in Malta. We assessed the effectiveness of implementing automatic personalisation in a holiday planning application through in-depth semi-structured interviews by comparing a personalised and a more generic itinerary.

## 1 Introduction

Leisure travelling is an impactful industry whose economic importance significantly improves each year, contributing to 10.4% of the global GDP in 2019 [26]. Despite this, planning for a trip to a foreign city requires a substantial amount of time-consuming research. As a result, people often rely on multiple data sources such as travel brochures, blogs and vlogs to form a holiday plan and retrieve the top-rated points of interests (POI) of a site. However, these mediums do not hold the resources to provide POIs tailored according to the traveller's preferences, and constraints and a tourist has to compile a timetable independently [5].

In literature, offering tourists a personalised route composed of POIs has been defined as the tourist trip design problem (TTDP). The TTDP comprises ranking and selecting POIs that might interest the user and create a feasible plan. This is an NP-hard problem where complete algorithms only manage to optimise with a small number of POIs. Therefore, many approximate algorithms, namely heuristic and meta-heuristic approaches, work to converge solutions with complex alternatives to this problem.

Nevertheless, the few existing systems that provide users with an itinerary or activity plan require a lengthy process of manually gathering the users' likes and constraints or information from past trips.

We will try to answer the following research question:

*Can a system automatically recognise a tourist's travel preferences and use this information to generate a personalised itinerary for a holiday?*

### 1.1 Aims and Objectives

We aim to build an application that generates a personalised holiday plan according to the user's travel dates and constraints. The following are the objectives:

- **Objective 1 (O1):** Investigate techniques to build travel interest profiles automatically from social media interactions.
- **Objective 2 (O2):** Explore different optimisation algorithms for building personalised travel itineraries using the generated travel interest profiles.
- **Objective 3 (O3):** Evaluate the performance of the personalised travel itinerary generator with real users through in-depth semi-structured interviews.

## 2 Background and Literature Review

This section first discusses automatic user profiling to represent travel preferences, then overview and formalise the TTDP research area.

### 2.1 User Preference Gathering

User profiles are a virtual representation of a user containing their characteristics [4]. In addition, some tourist planners make use of such a technique to personalise the results of their system. For example, Wörndl et al. [25] required the upcoming tourists to input their preferences manually by rating six categories on a scale of 0 to 5: *Sights and Museums, Night Life, Food, Outdoors and Recreation and Shopping*. Including a manual input of user preferences resulted in high user satisfaction since their timetable was very customised.

In 2018, Lim et al. [13] demonstrated how implementing personalisation in their algorithm, PersTours, helped portray real-life scenarios more accurately. The authors built a system where the tourist's level of interest in a specific category is dependant on their time spent at such POIs, relative to the average user. First, they gathered information from the user's past trips from the social media platform Flickr.

Then, they evaluated their algorithm using the Root-Mean-Square Error (RMSE), representing the time deviation of past trips and PersTours results from Flickr. Although their results show the PersTours outperforms other applications that use frequency-based user interest, this approach requires users to use Flickr and post information about their past trips on the platform.

Nguyen et al. [16] developed an Android chat application called STSGROUP that gathers user's preferences and resolves conflicts between tourists by understanding the messages sent in a group chat. They provided an example of students travelling to South Tyrol (Italy), which gathered information such as the users' mood and recommended POIs from their conversations. Other users in the group chat rate their suggestions through a voting system as the system uses ranking and logistics to calculate the ideal group preferences in the background. As a result, 86.7% of the test users showed satisfaction with the suggestions.

The average internet user has gone from being a passive content absorber to a content producer through social media. TTDP solutions can use this advantage and provide a fully automated activity plan based on the user's characteristics. The following are some methods for user profiling and information gathering from the user's social media.

Instagram has a significant effect on the tourism industry. Sharing photos of amazing influence the way people choose their POIs [21]. Therefore, a system that uses tourist's social media photos could infer the user's preference.

Guntuku et al. [9] performed an analysis on the relationship between a user's characteristics and online images. They found that the media on the social media profile can predict the big five personality traits; conscientiousness, extraversion, neuroticism, agreeableness and openness. The performance graded by the Pearson correlations tests were 0.530 and 0.566 for prognosticating neuroticism and conscientiousness, respectively. Therefore, image classification techniques could aid a preference gathering system.

## 2.2 Single Route and Multi Route Planners

The Orienteering Problem (OP), introduced by Tsiligrdis [22], is the foundation of single route planners in observance of the sport, orienteering. There are various types of OPs that include different constraints, such as time windows and time dependency [8]. The OP can be represented as a travelling salesman problem with profits.

There are numerous Evolutionary Algorithms (EA) proposed to solve OP. EAs are algorithms based on natural evolution which use a fitness score to get to the best solution of a problem, in this case, the TTDP [8].

Particle Swarm Optimisation-based (PSO) systems provide prevalent OP solutions with fast computing time [27]. Sevkli et al. [29, 18] tested out two PSO variants: Strengthened Particle Swarm Optimization (StPSO) and Discrete Strengthened Particle Swarm Optimization (DStPSO). These two algorithms introduce pioneering particles, which first perform a local search-based technique called Reduce Variable Neighborhood Search (RVNS) between all the particles and then assign a random velocity. These PSO algorithms obtains either the best or competitive solutions compared with other algorithms such as Ant Colony and Genetic Algorithms when tested on the Tsiligrdis [22, 3] dataset.

A novel approach in 2018 by Kobeaga et al. [12] was able to achieve competitive solutions for medium-sized instances

of over 400 nodes and find new best-known solutions for large datasets using the steady-state genetic algorithm. The algorithm also implements a local search, which aims to reduce travel time. Santini et al. [17] introduced a heuristic algorithm based on adaptive extensive neighbourhood search. When they evaluated their system, results showed that EA solutions such as the Kobeaga's GA [12] found slightly more suitable solutions, while their algorithm had a lower average gap between many solutions.

In real-life scenarios, POIs have time constraints that allow them to be visited only during specific hours, such as opening and closing hours or public holiday constraints. Traditional OP is not able to cater for such problems. A single route variant of the OP which solves these issues is the Orienteering Problem with Time Windows (OPTW) [7].

Kantor et al. [11] provided the first attempt towards the OPTW [23]. They developed two algorithms; Insertion and depth-first search. The former algorithm solves the path by selecting a POI with the highest score over-insertion cost incrementally. On the other hand, the depth-first search algorithm gathers parallel tree-based solutions simultaneously and iteratively adds new POIs as long as they follow a set of constraints. Their evaluation showed significant improvements of the second algorithm over the insertion.

When travelling between two POIs, the travel time may depend on certain variable time constraints such as the traffic levels and waiting time [10]. The Time-Dependent Orienteering Problem (TDOP) introduced by Fomin et al. [6] is the single route variant of OP, which considers these scenarios since traditional OP and OPTW does not [8]. In 2011, Abbaspour et al. [1] provide a solution for the Time-Dependent Orienteering Problem with Time Windows, which combines the two previously mentioned OP variants (TDOP and OPTW). They propose two adaptive genetic algorithms and multi-modal shortest pathfinding evaluated in the city of Tehran.

The solutions available from what we discussed in the previous sections can only generate a single efficient path for a tourist's holiday. The Team Orienteering Problem (TOP) [2] is a variant of the OP, which allows for solving the TTDP with multiple days [20]. The system generates a full itinerary for the tourist, with a maximum total score of all routes [10].

Several solutions use PSO-based algorithms to solve the TOP. Muthuswamy et al. [15] developed a discrete version of the PSO (DPSO) which can generate  $n$  routes where  $2 \leq n \leq 4$ . The algorithm consists of two procedures; Random initialisation of  $n-1$  routes. The  $n^{\text{th}}$  route is based on partial randomness and the current score divided by the current distance of each particle after updating the velocity. The particles use RVNS and 2-opt techniques to communicate with each other as local search techniques. The authors evaluated their work by comparing the algorithm to seven TOP heuristics in which DPSO performed competitively across all applied benchmark data sets [7].

A few years later, Dang et al. wrote another PSO inspired algorithm (PSOiA) for the TOP. They evaluated their work using an interval graph model, which showed how to examine a more extensive search space faster [8].

Besides swarm-based algorithms, an algorithm by Sylejmani et al. [19] used the trajectory-based tabu search to solve a Multi Constrained Team OPTW. Their system followed three steps in order to generate an activity plan: a new activity is added as a node to the trip using *Insert*, a

node is exchanged with a new activity using *Replace* and two nodes swap with each other using *Swap*.

### 2.3 Conclusion

We have concluded that it is possible to gather characteristics from social media throughout this research. Therefore, we will introduce this technology to generate user profiles as part of a constraint with the objective function of the optimisation algorithm.

Since the evolutionary algorithms, PSO and GA, resulted in competing solutions on the Tsiglidres Dataset and are used in novel solutions [27, 24], we will compare both algorithms to see which one to use as the baseline for our TDOPTW application.

## 3 Methodology

This section will elaborate user-profiling methods, the itinerary generator and the implementation used to build this application. Figure 1 outlines the overall process of our personalised itinerary generation framework.

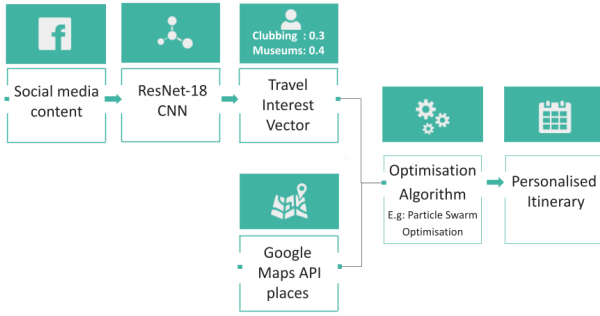


Figure 1: Personalised itinerary generator

### 3.1 Generating the User Profile

Many people are present on social media posting pictures of their travel moments [14]. For this reason, we opted to build a user profile from the user’s online presence. A travel interest vector is made up a vector of six integer values

$$\langle v_0, v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4, v_5 \rangle$$

representing the user profile. Each element represents the following POI categories 0 Beach, 1 Nature, 2 Shopping, 3 Museums, 4 Clubbing and 5 Bars.

At the start of the application, the travel interest vector is initialised with zero values, and the app increments a category whenever the user’s content matches.  $v_0$  to  $v_3$  represents morning categories and  $v_4, v_5$  represent evening categories. After the data collection process is complete, the vector values are normalised independently.

Facebook’s API that allows users to connect Facebook and Instagram accounts and request content from the user with their permission. The app requests the photos and the liked pages used to populate the user’s travel interest vector.

**Transforming the liked pages into the travel interest vector:** The API’s documentation contains a whole list of possible page categories. The app iterates through all of these user’s liked page categories and increments a value in the travel interest vector whenever the Facebook result matches. For example, if a user likes a page with class ‘DJ’, the user’s

clubbing vector value is incremented, and if a page is labelled as a ‘Mountain’, increments the user’s nature vector value.

**Transforming the user’s photos into the travel interest vector** Convolutional Neural Networks have become a standard for classifying an image because of their high accuracy [28]. Therefore, we decided to test out two approaches for classifying the photos into the app’s six categories.

Zhou et al. [28] trained several CNNs for scene recognition and generic deep scene features for visual identification. However, the places365 models are not explicitly trained on the six categories of our application. Therefore, we need to carefully map the 365 categories with our six application’s categories. That is why we introduced a Tensorflow Keras sequential model, explicitly trained on the six application’s categories to compare.

The pretrained places365 models are pretrained models trained on the places365-standard dataset of about 1.8 million images to classify an image into 365 different scene categories. We used the Resnet places365 models, Resnet-18 and Resnet-50 since they achieved the highest top-5 validation accuracy on the places365 dataset. The Resnet 18 comprises 18, and the Resnet 50 comprises 50 convolutional layers. They both converge to an output layer representing the 365 output categories.

The Tensorflow Keras sequential model contains three convolutional layers with a rectified linear unit (ReLU) activation function. A pooling layer follows each to lower the input volume’s spatial dimension for the upcoming layers. The first layer is a rescaling layer that resizes an image to 180×180 pixels. The final layer represents a flattening layer and two dense layers to reduce the outputs to the six application categories, and another representing ‘None’.

The dataset contains 3600 public internet images representing the seven classes: Beach, Nature, Museums, Shopping, Clubbing and Bars and None. The tensor library provides tools to Split the dataset into a training and validation set Distribute the photos into batches of 32 Cache the dataset to memory to prevent I/O blocking All of the images were resized to 180x180 pixels, and the RGB values were normalised from zero to one. Since the dataset is small compared to the places 365 models, the training process is prone to overfitting. Data augmentation generates additional samples using random transformations on the dataset. We also added a dropout layer to the model randomly drops sets the input values of the neuron. These two techniques help the model avoid overfitting.

### 3.2 Producing the activity plan

The problem of our itinerary planner algorithm is mathematically formulated as follows. A tourist trip is made up of some pre-defined user constants alongside the travel interest vector. The predefined constants are:

$M$ :	The number of travelling days.
$C$ :	The activity pace.

The objective function of our itinerary planner is:

$$\text{MAX} \sum_{m=0}^M (S_{D_m} + S_{E_m})$$

where:

$m$	Travelling day ( $m=1,2,\dots, M$ )
$D_m$	Morning section of day number $m$
$E_m$	Evening section of day number $m$
$S_{D_m}$	Score of the morning section $D_m$
$S_{E_m}$	Score of the evening section $E_m$

A day is made up of the morning  $D_m$  section and the evening  $E_m$  section. The timetable suggests a POI in the morning, then somewhere to eat, and the rest is dependant on the activity pace  $C$ . That is why the morning section is made up of  $C + 2$  tourist attractions. The evening section suggests a place to eat and a POI; therefore, the evening section is just made up of 2.

$$D_m = Y_i + Y_f + C(Y_i) \text{ and } E_m = Y_f + Y_j$$

$i$	Morning attraction ( $i = 1, \dots, n_1$ )
$j$	Evening attraction ( $j = 1, \dots, n_2$ )
$f$	Food Place ( $f = 1, \dots, n_3$ )
$Y_{i f j}$	Number of times POI is visited.

#### Constraints

$\sum_{m=0}^M \sum_{i=0}^{n_1} Y_i \leq 1$	Ensures morning POIs not visited more than once.
$\sum_{m=0}^M \sum_{j=0}^{n_2} Y_j \leq 1$	Ensures evening POIs not visited more than once.

The score  $S_{D_m}$  or  $S_{E_m}$  is calculated using

$$S_{D_m|E_m} = \frac{1}{T} + R + V$$

where:

$T$	Distance between POIs of day $m$
$R$	Average rating of POIs of day $m$
$V$	How much POIs match with the user's travel interest vector.

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#### Algorithm 1: Particle Swarm Optimisation

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```

iter = x ;
count = 0 ;
particles = RandomBiasInitialiser(); ;
bestParticle = particle[0] ;
while count > x do
    i = 0 ;
    maxScore = 0 ;
    while i <= particles.length do
        /* Updating personal best */
        if particles[i].score >
            particles[i].personalBest.score then
            particles[i].personalBest =
                particles[i].position;
        /* Updating global best */
        if particles[i].score > maxScore then
            maxScore = particles[i].score ;
            bestParticle = particles[i].position ;
        i = i + 1 ;
        /* Calculate new position */
        particle[i].calculateNewPosition() ;
    return bestParticle

```

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### 3.2.1 Optimisation Algorithms

PSO and GAs are two meta-heuristics that use a population to converge to a fit solution. Therefore, they require an initial random generation of possible timetables. In our algorithm, we introduce a method of randomisation bias. With this technique, the randomness of the initial population is weighted based on the place's rating and the place's number of ratings. This bias gives a head start to the algorithm rather than just starting optimising from purely random itineraries, highly likely to be of bad quality.

In PSO, the whole population is referred to as the swarm, whilst a single member a particle in this case representing a timetable solution. Each particle uses its current position, personal best and global best to calculate its new position. After a few iterations have passed, particles use their velocity and move towards the optimum position. We demonstrate the framework of our PSO algorithm in algorithm 1.

Genetics algorithms use biological terms to describe their attributes. For example, a timetable solution in population is referred to as a chromosome [1].

In PSO, the algorithm optimises by allowing each particle to move closer to the global best every iteration. In comparison, in GAs, first, the best chromosomes known as the elites are selected from each iteration. Then, three techniques, namely selection, mutation, and crossover, are applied to generate the next population.

We used the `geneticalgorithm2` package <sup>1</sup>, which allowed us to use the same score function and the random bias to initialise the particles. The algorithm has 7 parameters. The parents portion represents the number of parents who will reproduce and create the next generation. The mutation probability determines the chance a POI in a chromosome will be replaced by a random value to which the algorithm will converge less quickly and explore more of the search space. The crossover probability will affect the chance that part of its solution goes to the child. Finally, the elite ratio determines how much of the best chromosomes in an iteration make it to the next iteration. There are many types of crossovers techniques. In this algorithm, we explored *one point*, *two point*, *uniform* and *shuffle crossover*. The algorithm produced the following steps:

- Step 1:** Initialise the first population using random bias.
- Step 2:** Select the best chromosomes from the population.
- Step 3:** Select the elite particles that will make it to the next iteration.
- Step 3:** Apply Crossover, Mutation and Selection on the population.
- Step 4:** Check if the number of iterations has exceeded.

### 3.2.2 In-Depth Semi-Structured Interviews

Twenty participants used our application and asked them several questions. The target audience of our interviews were a balance between people who feel social media profile does or does not reflect their itinerary preferences. The interview starts by generating two itineraries; a personalised itinerary and an itinerary where the travel interest vector is ignored. However, the participants were not told which one was which. The order of timetables was mixed to avoid anchor bias. First, we discussed what the interviewee looks for in a holiday to check whether this matches their travel interest vector. We asked them to review both timetables

<sup>1</sup><https://pypi.org/project/geneticalgorithm2/>

and which one they think was more personalised. The interviewees were then shown their automatically generated characteristics and asked to review. Finally, we discussed some considerations and future improvements regarding automatic preference gathering from social media.

## 4 Results and Evaluation

This section will evaluate the image classification technique for automatic user profiling, the itinerary generation algorithm and the performance of the whole application and its effects through the interviews.

### 4.1 Automatic User Profiling

We trained the Keras Sequential model using the NVIDIA Tesla K80 GPU provided by Google Colab. At 16 epochs, the model starts to overfit as the validation loss starts to increase. The testing dataset consists of 500 images manually gathered using the Unsplash API.

When comparing the Resnet 50, Resnet 18 and Keras Sequential model, the Resnet 50 achieved the best average accuracy, precision and recall. The Resnet 50 achieved the highest F1 score on the testing dataset with an average F1 score of 76.29. So we decided to use it as our baseline for the tourist itinerary generation application.

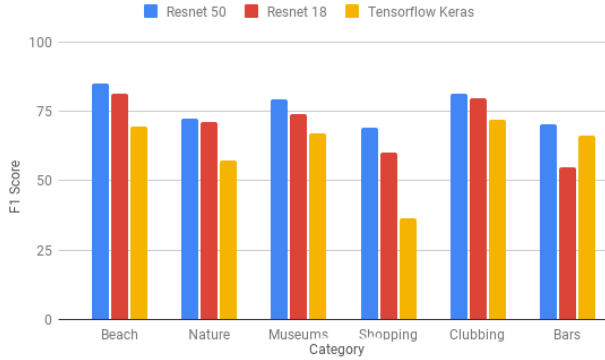


Figure 2: F1 score of the three models

### 4.2 Itinerary Optimisation Algorithms

We generated 50 random constraints and tested them out on the PSO and GA algorithm. Figure 4 shows how the number of particles affects the score. For 100 population members, both algorithms achieve similar average scores. However, the difference in score is not proportional to the average time taken to complete a single day, as shown in figure 3. Since other users will use the application, we did not want the generation's time to affect the user experience. The difference between the average score of 50 and 100 particles for PSO is only 0.5, this variant provides the best balance of time and score so it is chosen for our application.

### 4.3 In-depth Semi-structured Interviews

From all of the twenty interviews, fifteen people preferred the personalised itineraries and gave valid reasons. However, three out of the people who selected the non-personalised itinerary stated that they think their social media presence does not reflect their travel preferences.

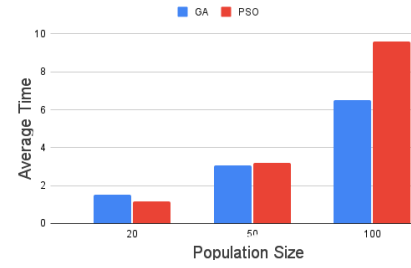


Figure 3: Average time spent for 50 iterations

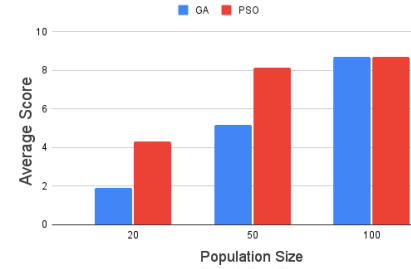


Figure 4: Average score achieved for 50 iterations

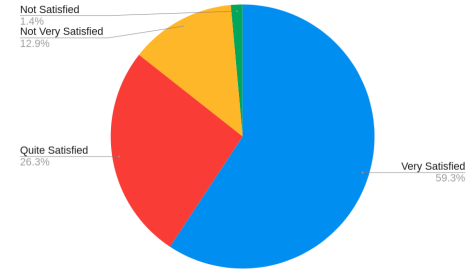


Figure 5: Satisfaction Rating of The Gathered Characteristics.

It was noted that the more active a person is on social media, the more precise the characteristics are, which leads to a more reliable travel itinerary. From all of the characteristic categories, seven interviewees mentioned that their 'museums' category was deemed too high compared to their liking. They like to follow science-related online content but do not usually visit many museums when on holiday. Figure 5 shows that most of the preferences gathered belong to users who felt very satisfied with the overall results.

## 5 Conclusion and Future Work

We have introduced an automatic preference gathering technique to a TTDP solution that produces an activity plan through the user's social media photos and pages they follow. As a result, the system can produce personalised results within a few seconds. An additional approach targets individuals who do not feel their online presence represents their travel preferences, such as gathering using Natural Language techniques to scan the user's text posts. Although there is always room for further development, we form the basis to show how an automatic preference gathering system can further assist a travel application to achieve satisfactory results.

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