

Improve Temporal Awareness of LLMs for Sequential Recommendation

Zhendong Chu^{1*}, Zichao Wang², Ruiyi Zhang², Yangfeng Ji¹, Hongning Wang¹, Tong Sun²

¹University of Virginia

²Adobe Research

{zc9uy, yangfeng, hw5x}@virginia.edu, {jackwa, ruiyang, tsun}@adobe.com

Abstract

Large language models (LLMs) have demonstrated impressive zero-shot abilities in solving a wide range of general-purpose tasks. However, it is empirically found that LLMs fall short in recognizing and utilizing *temporal* information, rendering poor performance in tasks that require an understanding of sequential data, such as *sequential recommendation*. In this paper, we aim to improve temporal awareness of LLMs by designing a principled prompting framework inspired by human cognitive processes. Specifically, we propose three prompting strategies to exploit temporal information within historical interactions for LLM-based sequential recommendation. Besides, we emulate *divergent thinking* by aggregating LLM ranking results derived from these strategies. Evaluations on MovieLens-1M and Amazon Review datasets indicate that our proposed method significantly enhances the zero-shot capabilities of LLMs in sequential recommendation tasks.

1 Introduction

Large language models (LLMs) such as ones with commercially available APIs including ChatGPT (Achiam et al., 2023) and Claude¹ have emerged as one of the primary, if not the de facto, choices in a wide range of applications thanks to their remarkable capabilities in dealing with natural language and generalizing to various domains without further fine-tuning. In deed, an emerging trend is to use natural language as a uniform interface and leverage the LLMs to complete a task.

Following this trend, recent research has been exploring the use of LLMs for processing sequential data, with applications such as sequential recommendation (SRS) (Hou et al., 2023b; Bao et al., 2023), which require LLMs to comprehend temporal patterns within user historical interactions. In

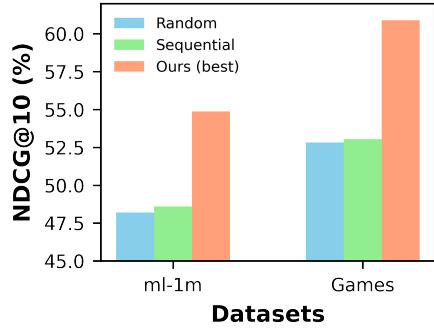


Figure 1: LLM-based sequential recommendation baselines show comparable performance even when historical interactions (Sequential) order is randomized (Random). Tempura significantly boosts performance by utilizing historical orders, i.e., temporal information.

the case of sequential movie recommendation, historical interactions such as users' movie watching records can be represented as natural language (i.e., movie titles and other meta data) for the LLMs to process and recommend the next movie, instead of item identifiers which are typically used in traditional recommender systems (Kang and McAuley, 2018; Sun et al., 2019). The extensive generalization ability and vast world knowledge (Wang et al., 2020; Singhal et al., 2023) of LLMs endow them with the potential to serve as a single model for many recommendation domains without fine-tuning, making it a general, capable, and easy-to-use alternative to traditional recommender systems that usually specialize in one selected domain and require extensive training or fine-tuning.

However, recent research shows that LLMs exhibit a limited sensitivity to temporal information in the input text, particularly in discerning changes in user interests (Hou et al., 2023b). In Figure 1, we compare the recommendation performance of LLM-based methods using randomized (denoted as **Random**) versus correctly ordered (denoted as **Sequential**) historical interactions on two widely-used SRS datasets. Both methods show similar

* Work done during an internship at Adobe Research.

¹<https://www.anthropic.com/index/clause-2>

performance, suggesting that LLMs are not effectively utilizing the temporal information present in the input text. This limitation stems from a lack of specialized mechanisms within LLMs to automatically recognize and utilize temporal information, which is crucial for understanding the context and progression within the data.

In this paper, we focus on improving LLMs' awareness and interpretation of temporal information, particularly within the SRS scenario. Temporal information is ubiquitous in real-world applications, such as recommender systems (McAuley, 2022), intelligent document processing (Fischer, 2001) and financial market analysis (Tsay, 2005). By effectively capturing and integrating this temporal aspect, we have the opportunity to significantly enhance the understanding of user preferences via LLMs, thus providing users with better recommendations that suit their backgrounds, needs, and preferences. This improvement is also important for boosting the effectiveness of LLMs in downstream applications, where accurate user preference modeling is crucial (McAuley, 2022). To this end, we design a principled prompting framework inspired by human cognitive process, which is training-free and domain agnostic. We name our approach as **Tempura** (phonetically similar to *Temporal Prompt*). Our main contributions are:

- We propose a principled method to construct in-context examples (Min et al., 2022) for sequential recommendation, by analyzing how Transformer-based SRS models (e.g., Kang and McAuley (2018)) learn to utilize temporal information.
- Inspired by the results in neuroscience (Nobre and Van Ede, 2018; Griffiths et al., 1998), we add explicit structure analysis in input sequences as additional prompts, particularly temporal cluster analysis, to enhance the temporal understanding capabilities of LLMs.
- We emulate the process of *divergent thinking* (Runco, 1991) by aggregating ranking results derived from various prompting strategies.
- We evaluate our method on MovieLens-1M and Amazon Review datasets, the results show that our proposed method significantly enhances the zero-shot capabilities of LLMs in sequential recommendation tasks.

2 Related Works

LLMs for recommendation. Recently, the use of LLMs in recommendation systems has garnered

significant research interest due to their capability to comprehend and encapsulate a user's preferences and past interactions through natural language (Fan et al., 2023; He et al., 2023). Current LLM-based recommender systems are primarily designed for rating prediction (Kang et al., 2023; Bao et al., 2023) and sequential recommendation tasks (Wang and Lim, 2023; Hou et al., 2023b; Xu et al., 2024). In both tasks, a user's previous interactions with items, along with other optional data like the user profile or item attributes, are concatenated to formulate a natural language prompt. This is then fed into an LLM with options for no fine-tuning (Wang and Lim, 2023), full-model fine-tuning (Chen, 2023) or parameter-efficient fine-tuning (Bao et al., 2023). Liu et al. (2023a) designs a series of prompts to evaluate ChatGPT's performance over five recommendation tasks. Wang et al. (2023) develops a ChatGPT-based agent to improve recommendation ability by using tools such as SQL and Web search. Contrary to existing works that focus on the tentative evaluation of LLMs' ability in recommendation, we focus on improving the LLM's inefficacy of utilizing temporal information by designing temporal-aware prompting strategies.

Sequential recommendation. Sequential recommendation (SRS) (Hidasi et al., 2015; Kang and McAuley, 2018) aims to predict the next interacted items based on historical interaction sequences. Early works follow the Markov assumption (Rendle et al., 2010), by designing various neural network models to capture user preference within interaction sequences, including Recurrent Neural Network (Hidasi et al., 2015; Li et al., 2017), Convolutional Neural Network (Tang and Wang, 2018), Transformer (Kang and McAuley, 2018; Sun et al., 2019), Graph Neural Network (Chang et al., 2021; Wu et al., 2019). However, most of these approaches are developed based on item IDs (Kang and McAuley, 2018) or attributes (Zhang et al., 2019) defined on specific domains, making it difficult to be generalized to other domains. Recently, Hou et al. (2023a), Hou et al. (2022) and Li et al. (2023) propose to learn unified item representations for SRS based on pretrained language models. They follow the paradigm that pretraining an unified text-based sequence encoder on source domains and then fine-tune the encoder on the target domain. However, all aforementioned methods need massive user interaction sequences on a specific domains and can not be easily transfer to unseen domains. In contrast, we propose utilizing

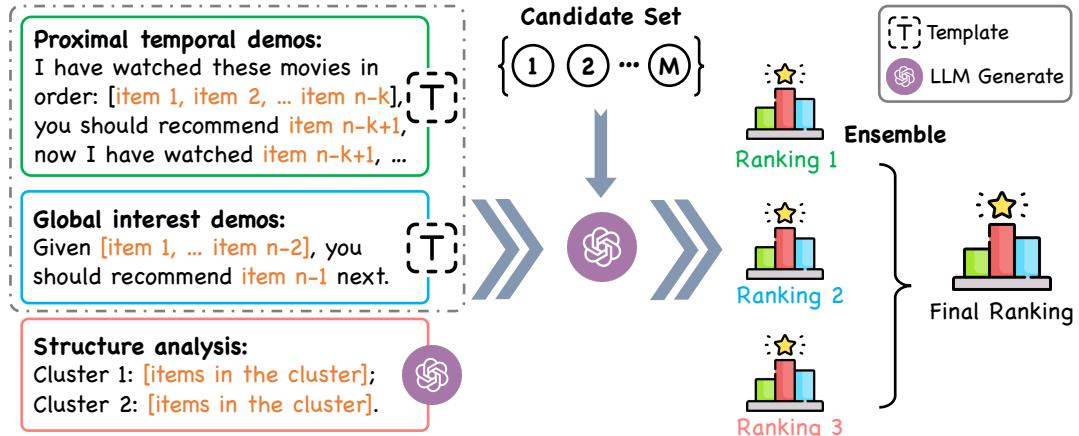


Figure 2: An illustrative overview of Tempura. We learn sequential recommendation via two kinds in-context demonstrations. Explicit cluster structure analysis is conducted to improve the temporal understanding capabilities of LLMs. Each prompting strategy independently generates a respective ranking by LLMs (marked by different colors). Rankings from different prompting strategies are aggregated to form the final ranking.

LLMs to establish a domain-agnostic learning process for sequential recommendation systems. Our approach is training-free and readily generalizable to unseen domains using only prompts.

3 Methodology

In this section, we introduce Tempura in detail. As shown in Figure 2, Tempura consists of three major components: 1) a in-context learning module that learns sequential recommendation tasks from sequences of historical interactions; 2) a temporal structure analysis module that enhances the model’s understanding by explicitly integrating cluster structures within the sequences; 3) a prompt ensemble module that aggregates recommendation results from various prompting strategies. We begin with the definition of notations to be used in our technical discussions.

3.1 Problem Definition

Given a user’s historical interactions $\mathcal{H} = \{i_j\}_{j=1}^n$, ordered chronologically up to timestamp n , the task of sequential recommendation involves ranking a set of *candidate* items $\mathcal{C} = \{i_j\}_{j=1}^m$ for the subsequent timestamp $n + 1$. Items of higher interest are expected to be ranked at more prominent positions. In practice, candidate items are typically selected from the entire item set \mathcal{I} , where $m \ll |\mathcal{I}|$, through candidate generation models (Covington et al., 2016). Further, we follow the approach of Hou et al. (2022) by associating each item i with a descriptive text t_i , which could be the item’s name and its attributes or properties.

Different from training-based SRS models, we

leverage general-purpose LLMs (e.g., ChatGPT) to solve the recommendation task in an instruction-following paradigm (Wei et al., 2021). Specifically, for each user, we construct a history prompt from the user’s historical interactions \mathcal{H} , and a candidate item prompt from the candidate item set \mathcal{C} . The aforementioned prompts are concatenated along with an instruction that explicitly describes the recommendation task, forming the final prompt for LLMs. LLMs are anticipated to generate rankings of \mathcal{C} , reflecting user preferences, in accordance with the format specified by the instruction. A post-hoc text parser is employed to convert the natural language rankings generated by LLMs into structured ranked lists, which is used to calculate the ranking metrics (Hou et al., 2023b).

3.2 Sequential Recommendation via In-Context Learning

Given the vast scale of LLMs, fine-tuning domain-specific models becomes impractical. Thus, we propose to learn sequential recommendation via in-context learning, offering a training-free approach that can be easily adapted across various domains by leveraging the world knowledge and comprehension capabilities of LLMs (Hou et al., 2023b; Harte et al., 2023). To this end, we first analyze the learning process of training-based SRS models, and then mapping it onto the principles of constructing effective in-context demonstrations.

The key distinction between SRS and other recommender systems lies in the SRS model’s requirement to not only identify a user’s preferences based on historical user-item interactions but

also to track the evolution of the user’s interests over time. Training-based SRSs depend on learning from large-scale user-item interaction data via GRUs (Hidasi et al., 2015) or Transformers (Sun et al., 2019). We utilize In-Context Learning (ICL) (Min et al., 2022) as a training-free alternative to learn a SRS model. We follow Dai et al. (2022) to analyze the learning process of training-based SRSs. Given the historical interaction sequence of an user, a trained Transformer-based SRS, such as SASRec (Kang and McAuley, 2018), can be represented as,

$$\mathcal{F}_{\text{SASRec}}(\mathbf{x}_n) = (W_0 + \Delta W)\mathbf{x}_n. \quad (1)$$

where W_0 is the initialized parameter matrix, ΔW is the update matrix and \mathbf{x}_n is the representation of a candidate item. The output of $\mathcal{F}_{\text{SASRec}}$ is the score of the examined candidate item. In the back-propagation algorithm, ΔW is computed by accumulating the outer products of historic item representations \mathbf{x}_i^T and the error signals e_i of their corresponding outputs:

$$\Delta W = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \mathbf{e}_i \otimes \mathbf{x}_i', \quad (2)$$

where error signals e_i is the prediction error on the historic item \mathbf{x}_i' . Thus, the trained SASRec can also be rewritten into,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{F}_{\text{SASRec}}(\mathbf{x}_n) &= (W_0 + \Delta W)\mathbf{x}_n \\ &= W_0\mathbf{x}_n + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} (\mathbf{e}_i \otimes \mathbf{x}_i')\mathbf{x}_n \\ &= W_0\mathbf{x}_n + \text{LinAtt}(E, X', \mathbf{x}_n), \end{aligned}$$

where $\text{LinAtt}(V, K, \mathbf{q})$ denotes the linear attention operation, in which we regard error signals E as values and interacted items X' as keys, and the current input \mathbf{x}_n as the query. The learning process of the SASRec model can be explained as the model predicting the next item in a sequence based on preceding items and updating itself based on the prediction error. The trained SASRec model is designed to update user preferences as the sequence expands, effectively tracking the evolution of the user’s interests.

Let $\mathbf{q} = W_Q\mathbf{x}_n$ represent the attention query vector for the input candidate item \mathbf{x}_n . An ICL-based SRS can be represented as,

$$\mathcal{F}_{\text{ICL}}(\mathbf{q}) = (W_{\text{ZSL}} + \Delta W_{\text{ICL}})\mathbf{q}$$

where $W_{\text{ZSL}} = W_V X (W_K X)^T$ is the initialized parameters to be updated and $W_{\text{ZSL}}\mathbf{q}$ is the attention result in zero-shot learning (ZSL) setting, where no demonstration are given. X denotes the input representations of query tokens before \mathbf{x}_n , such as the task description of sequential recommendation. Based on the results of Dai et al. (2022), the second term can be rewritten into,

$$\Delta W_{\text{ICL}}\mathbf{q} = \text{LinAtt}(W_V X', W_K X', \mathbf{q}),$$

where X' denotes the input representations of demonstrations. Here we observe a similar form between $\mathcal{F}_{\text{SASRec}}$ and \mathcal{F}_{ICL} , where $W_V X'$ can be explained as the error signal from historic items. This analogy illustrates that by utilizing historic items as in-context demonstrations, an LLM can learn to capture the temporal information within the sequence of historical interactions. Hou et al. (2023b) discussed using the last item in the history as an in-context demonstration. Based on our analysis, this method is equivalent to training the SASRec model solely with the last historical interaction, a practice insufficient for capturing the dynamic nature of historical interactions. Thus, we are motivated to use several historical interactions as demonstrations to improve the temporal awareness of LLMs.

Proximal temporal demonstrations (PCL). Based on the above principle, we design the following prompt to learn to capture temporal information via ICL,

Proximal temporal demonstrations

I have watched these movies in order: [item 1, item 2, ... item n-k], you should recommend item n-k+1, now I have watched item n-k+1, ... Now recommend a new movie to me.

Placeholders, highlighted in orange, structure the input for our model. The first placeholder captures the initial $n - k$ historic items, serving as the *context* for inferring user preferences. The subsequent placeholder is designated for the $n - k + 1$ item, illustrating the next item to be recommended based on the current context. Following this, we inform the LLM that the $n - k + 1$ item has been interacted with, indicating that the $n - k + 2$ item is the next recommendation target. This setup is repeated to create k -shot demonstrations. We utilize the most recent k items as demonstrations to capture the proximal interest of the user. We denote this prompting strategy as PCL.

Global interest demonstrations. In previous studies (Kang and McAuley, 2018; Hou et al., 2023b), the number of historic items was constrained by the limited input length of models. Thus the whole interaction history is typically truncated and the most recent items are remained. Empirically, we also observed that extending the context window has limited impact on improving performance and may even detract from it. The reason could be: 1) the prolong context distract LLMs (Liu et al., 2023b); 2) too old history has little impact on the current user interest in the SRS scenario. However, simply omitting distant historic items risks overlooking users’ long-term interests. Hence, we randomly sample a subset of historic items from the whole history sequence to retain user’s global interest. Specifically, we use the same template as PCL, but the context is filled with randomly sampled historic items. Similarly, we incorporate the most recent items as in-context examples. We denote this prompting strategy as GCL.

3.3 Temporal Structure Analysis

It has been recognized in the neuroscience area that the human brain is more sensitive to temporal structures (Nobre and Van Ede, 2018; Griffiths et al., 1998) - “*Embedded relationships among the attributes of events over different timescales carry predictions that guide proactive sensory and motor preparation in the brain*”. Only providing item sequences may make it difficult for LLM to identify and utilize temporal patterns inside the sequence. Thus, we are motivated to explicitly provide temporal structures to LLM. Specifically, we conduct cluster analysis on the item sequence according to two criteria: items that are (1) *temporally proximate* and (2) *share similar features* should be clustered. In practice, we also use LLMs to complete the cluster tasks and find it can provide reasonable cluster results. The results are used as additional input to the LLM for ranking.

Structure analysis prompt

I have watched these movies in order: [item 1, item 2, ... item n]. Analyze the clusters within the history. Two criteria: 1) Similar items should be clustered together; 2) Temporal close similar items should be clustered.

3.4 Prompt Ensemble

The most straightforward way to combine various prompting strategies is to concatenate them and

use the resulted long prompt. However, this approach risks exceeding the context length limitations of LLMs. Moreover, it has been observed that LLMs may lose important information within overly lengthy prompts (Liu et al., 2023b). To effectively utilize different prompting strategies, we propose ensembling the respective ranking outcomes derived from each. In this approach, we create several LLM sessions and obtain ranking lists with different prompts. Following Hou et al. (2023b), we explicitly define the output format for the ranking results produced by LLMs, and subsequently extract the ranking list using a post-hoc text parser. These ranking lists are aggregated to obtain the final ranking, as the process shown in Figure 2. Existing research also highlights the benefits of collaboration among multiple LLMs (Wu et al., 2023). Specifically, we assign scores to each rank in the ranking list. For instance, in a ranking list of 20 items, the item in the 1st place receives 20 points, the 2nd place item gets 19 points, and so on, decreasing by one point per rank. Finally, we sum the scores for each item across all rankings.

4 Experiments

In this section, to fully demonstrate the effectiveness of Tempura in improving temporal awareness of LLMs, we conduct a set of extensive experiments to study the following research questions: (1) Can Tempura improve LLM’s performance on sequential recommendation compared to other methods? (2) Can Tempura enhance the sensitivity of LLMs to temporal information in the input data? (3) How do factors like history length, the number of in-context examples or the choice of backbone LLMs influence the effectiveness of Tempura?

4.1 Setup

Datasets. The experiments are conducted on three widely-used public sequential recommendation datasets: (1) the movie rating dataset MovieLens-1M (Harper and Konstan, 2015) (**ML-1M**) where user rated movies are regarded as interactions, (2) one category from the Amazon Review dataset (Ni et al., 2019) named **Games** where reviews are regarded as interactions, and (3) another category from Amazon Review dataset named **Kindle**. We sort the interactions of each user by timestamp, with the oldest interactions first, to construct the corresponding interaction sequences. The movie or product titles are used as the descriptive text of

Table 1: Performance comparison on ML-1M and Amazon Review datasets. We highlight the best performance in **bold**. N@K denotes NDCG@K.

Method	ML-1M				Games			Kindle		
	N@1	N@5	N@10	N@1	N@5	N@10	N@1	N@5	N@10	
BM25	4.00	13.14	20.53	16.50	30.09	37.19	6.50	18.07	24.96	
UniSRec	9.00	20.08	26.72	19.50	34.86	40.82	5.00	16.21	25.03	
VQ-Rec	9.50	19.52	27.11	5.50	16.76	25.27	4.30	14.22	23.58	
Sequential	21.43	42.57	48.59	24.12	47.26	53.03	10.20	27.96	33.72	
RF	26.56	45.99	51.27	25.63	50.02	53.72	11.11	28.77	35.71	
ICL	26.40	47.51	53.32	26.00	49.68	53.63	13.07	30.82	36.41	
Cluster	27.00	45.82	52.04	26.15	47.41	52.39	13.20	25.77	34.07	
PCL	29.16	48.44	54.21	29.00	51.56	55.11	11.55	29.45	36.46	
GCL	30.50	48.53	53.26	32.00	51.61	56.63	10.00	31.45	36.67	
PCL + Cluster	30.50	48.35	54.88	35.50	53.89	58.74	12.00	30.15	38.23	
Tempura	31.50	48.64	54.49	39.00	56.51	60.95	14.00	32.17	37.59	

an item.

Evaluation configurations. Following existing works (Kang and McAuley, 2018; Sun et al., 2019; Hou et al., 2023b), we apply the leave-one-out strategy for evaluation. For each interaction sequence, the last item is used as the ground-truth item. We adopt the widely used metric NDCG@N to evaluate the ranking performance over the given candidate set \mathcal{C} where $N \leq |\mathcal{C}|$. In the remainder of this paper, unless otherwise specified, $|\mathcal{C}|$ is set to 20. The candidate set consists of one ground-truth item and 19 randomly sampled negative items.

Baselines. We consider three prompt-based baselines discussed in (Hou et al., 2023b): **Sequential prompting**: Arrange the historical interactions in chronological order. **Recency-focused prompting (RF)**: In addition to the sequential interaction records, a sentence is additionally added to emphasize the most recent interaction. **In-context learning (ICL)**: Similar to PCL, but only use the most recent historic item as the in-context example. We also consider three methods designed for domain generalization: **BM25** (Robertson et al., 2009) ranks items according to the textual similarity between candidates and historic items. **UniS-Rec** (Hou et al., 2022) equips textual item representations with an MoE-enhanced adaptor for domain fusion and adaptation. **VQ-Rec** (Hou et al., 2023a) learns vector-quantized item representations, which can map item text into a vector of discrete indices (i.e., item codes) and use them to retrieve item representations from a code embedding table in recommendations. Additionally, we report the results with each single prompting strategy, as well as the

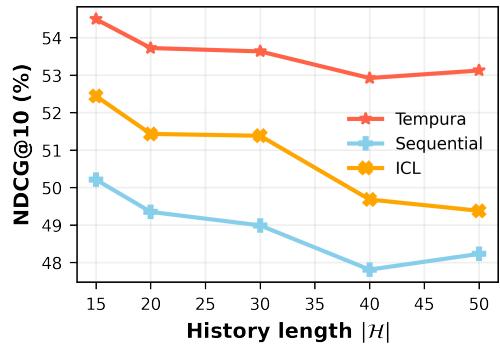


Figure 3: Performance vs. history length $|\mathcal{H}|$ (ML-1M).

results from ensembling PCL and cluster analysis.

Training-based methods such as Kang and McAuley (2018); Sun et al. (2019) are not considered as baselines because: (1) They are designed based on item IDs, which can not be generalized to new domains with new ID spaces. (2) Our research focuses on improving the temporal awareness of LLMs, as evidenced by improved performance in sequential recommendations. Thus, our goal is not necessarily to develop a state-of-the-art sequential recommendation method.

Implementation details. Considering economic and efficiency factors, we follow (Hou et al., 2023b; Xu et al., 2024) to randomly sample 200 users along with their historical interactions for each dataset. Unless specified, we use the Azure OpenAI API gpt-3.5-turbo². We set history length $|\mathcal{H}|$ as 15 and use the most recent 5 interactions as demonstrations in PCL. We found the length of the

²<https://azure.microsoft.com/en-us/pricing/details/cognitive-services/openai-service/>

Table 2: Performance of Tempura with randomized items, clusters and correctly ordered inputs.

	Item-R	Cluster-R	Correct
ML-1M	51.78	52.47	54.49
Games	51.83	54.18	60.95
Kindle	34.13	33.92	37.59

history significantly affects performance; therefore, we also searched for the optimal $|\mathcal{H}|$ for baselines. Empirically, $|\mathcal{H}| = 10$ yielded the best results for baselines in general. All the reported results are the average of three repeat runs to reduce the effect of randomness.

Main results. We present the results on three datasets in Table 1. We can observe our prompting strategies in the third group improves upon existing baselines across all metrics. It is interesting to observe that PCL outperforms ICL significantly, where more demonstrations are used in PCL but ICL only use the last interaction as demonstration. This observation align with our analysis that more demonstrations are needed to learn to utilize temporal information in historical interaction sequences. Although the Cluster strategy exhibits limited performance on its own, it can significantly enhance performance when combined with other strategies in an ensemble. Additionally, we provide a case study of cluster analysis results in Section 4.4. By comparing individual prompting strategies with two ensemble-based methods, we find that ensembling consistently enhances performance by leveraging the strengths of different strategies. This suggests that different strategies emphasize various aspects, resulting in complementary results.

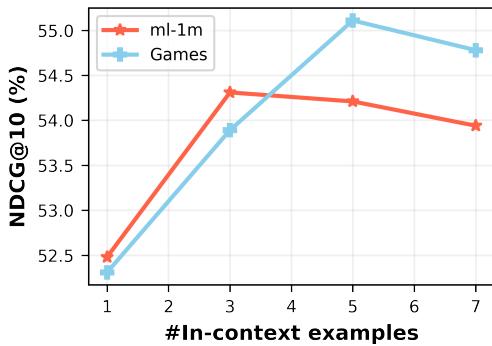


Figure 4: Impact of #in-context examples in PCL. Several more examples can improve performance.

4.2 Sensitivity of Temporal Information

In this paper, we aim to improve temporal awareness by designing temporal-aware prompting strate-

gies. To evaluate whether these proposed strategies effectively capture and utilize temporal information within historical interaction sequences, we compare the performance with randomized and correctly ordered histories. We hypothesize that an approach adept at utilizing temporal information should demonstrate superior performance with correctly ordered history. Specifically, our manipulation occurs at two levels: the item level and the cluster analysis level. At the item level, we alter the order of individual items, while at the cluster analysis level, we rearrange the order of clusters derived from cluster analysis. We present the results in Table 2. After randomizing the history, performance on all the datasets drop significantly. This phenomenon indicates that understanding and effectively utilizing temporal information within historical interaction sequences is crucial for capturing and predicting users' future interests.

4.3 Ablation Study

Impact of history length. It has been reported in Hou et al. (2023b) that increasing the number of historical user behaviors does not improve the ranking performance, but even negatively impacts the ranking performance. To study the impact of history length on Tempura, we vary the history length $|\mathcal{H}|$ used for constructing the prompt from 15 to 50. We compare Tempura with the standard baseline Sequential and the best performing baseline ICL. Here history length $|\mathcal{H}|$ is the maximum allowed history length, the real history length could be shorter. We did not include the results on Games and Kindle since the user interaction history on these two datasets is short.

The results are reported in Figure 3. We observe that utilizing a longer history does not improve performance; in fact, it results in decreased performance on the ML-1M dataset. We hypothesize that the extensive history distracts LLMs, making it difficult for baselines to understand the evolution of user interests. By using temporal-aware prompts and the prompt ensemble strategy, Tempura demonstrates robust performance even with long historical interaction sequences.

Impact of the number of in-context examples. We utilize a user's historic items as in-context demonstrations to understand the temporal information in his / her behavior sequence. It is important to understand how many examples are needed. To this end, we study the performance with different number of examples in PCL. We keep the total

Table 3: Case study of structure analysis in the historical interaction sequence.

Cluster 1: [Mad Max - PlayStation 4, Metal Gear Solid V: The Phantom Pain - PlayStation 4].
Cluster summary: Action games on PlayStation 4.
Cluster 2: [Star Wars: Battlefront - Standard Edition - PlayStation 4, Fallout 4 - PlayStation 4, Just Cause 3 - PlayStation 4, Far Cry Primal - PlayStation 4 Standard Edition].
Cluster summary: Open-world action games on PlayStation 4.
Cluster 3: [Tom Clancy’s The Division - PlayStation 4, Uncharted 4: A Thief’s End - PlayStation 4, Homefront: The Revolution - PlayStation 4, Deus Ex: Mankind Divided - PlayStation 4].
Cluster summary: Action games with a focus on story and/or multiplayer on PlayStation 4.
Cluster 4: [Rise of the Tomb Raider: 20 Year Celebration - PlayStation 4, Dishonored 2 - PlayStation 4, Resident Evil 7: Biohazard - PS4 Digital Code, Horizon Zero Dawn - PlayStation 4, Tom Clancy’s Ghost Recon Wildlands - PlayStation 4].
Cluster summary: Single-player action shooting games with a focus on exploration and/or stealth on PS4.
Target item: Prey - Pre-load - PS4 Digital Code First-person action-adventure shooting game

length of the user’s history as 15 and use the latest k items as examples, setting k to values in the set [1, 3, 5, 7]. We report the results on the ML-1M and Games datasets in Figure 4. We can observe more examples can boost the performance significantly than only one demonstration. As we analyzed in Section 3.2, LLMs learn to utilize temporal information by learning to predict a series of historical items. However, it is not always the case that more is better. It is observed that a slight performance drop with more examples. We speculate that longer prompts may cause distraction for LLMs.

Results on GPT-4. More advanced LLMs, like GPT-4 (Achiam et al., 2023), demonstrate enhanced capabilities in knowledge, understanding, and reasoning. Therefore, we evaluate the sequential recommendation performance using GPT-4 to determine if Tempura can also augment GPT-4’s capabilities. We present the results in Table 4. It has been observed that GPT-4 exhibits a robust capacity for sequential recommendation, even when employing the most standard prompting strategy, Sequential. Notably, the improvement is most significant on the Kindle dataset, leading to the hypothesis that GPT-4 possesses extensive knowledge about Kindle books. The performance improvement with GPT-4 shows its strong ability in understanding and utilizing temporal information. By applying Tempura, the performance can be further improved when the backbone LLM is more powerful.

4.4 Case Study

We present an example result from the cluster analysis conducted on the Games dataset. We employ gpt-3.5-turbo to cluster historic items using the

Table 4: Performance with GPT-4 (NDCG@10). Tempura can further improve the performance when the backbone LLM is more powerful.

Method	ML-1M	Games	Kindle
Sequential	55.75	66.43	57.65
ICL	54.82	67.84	54.72
Tempura	58.39	68.13	58.59

prompt discussed in Section 3.2. The historic items was successfully clustered into 4 clusters, accompanied by a generated summary for each cluster. It can be easily observed that the user’s most recent interest lies in action shooting games. With this analysis, the target item can be easily identified since it is a first-person action-adventure shooting game, aligning with the user’s latest interest.

5 Conclusion

In this paper, we focus on improving the temporal awareness of LLMs through the study of the sequential recommendation problem. Specifically, we introduce two kinds of prompting strategies: one to learn sequential recommendations via in-context learning and another to explicitly analyze the temporal structures in historical interaction sequences. An ensemble strategy is adopted to aggregate results from various prompting strategies. Our study demonstrates that by incorporating specific prompting strategies, LLMs can significantly improve in capturing and utilizing temporal information. This advancement not only strengthens the capabilities of LLMs in sequential recommendation tasks but also opens up new avenues for applying these models in time-sensitive domains.

Limitations

Firstly, although LLMs demonstrate notable capabilities in sequential recommendation, their performance still does not match that of training-based methods (Xu et al., 2024; Hou et al., 2022; Kang and McAuley, 2018). The reason could be that dataset-specific biases, which can be captured by trained models, are not inherently stored within LLMs. We leave combining prompt-based methods and training-based methods as an important future work. Secondly, considering the latency and costs in LLM inference, deploying LLM-based recommender systems could be cost-inefficient. However, LLMs provide a powerful and explainable protocol to understand complex human behaviors in real-world recommender systems, making LLM-based systems a valuable complement to existing methodologies.

References

Josh Achiam, Steven Adler, Sandhini Agarwal, Lama Ahmad, Ilge Akkaya, Florencia Leoni Aleman, Diogo Almeida, Janko Altenschmidt, Sam Altman, Shyamal Anadkat, et al. 2023. Gpt-4 technical report. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2303.08774*.

Keqin Bao, Jizhi Zhang, Yang Zhang, Wenjie Wang, Fuli Feng, and Xiangnan He. 2023. Tallrec: An effective and efficient tuning framework to align large language model with recommendation. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2305.00447*.

Jianxin Chang, Chen Gao, Yu Zheng, Yiqun Hui, Yanan Niu, Yang Song, Depeng Jin, and Yong Li. 2021. Sequential recommendation with graph neural networks. In *Proceedings of the 44th international ACM SIGIR conference on research and development in information retrieval*, pages 378–387.

Zheng Chen. 2023. Palr: Personalization aware llms for recommendation. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2305.07622*.

Paul Covington, Jay Adams, and Emre Sargin. 2016. Deep neural networks for youtube recommendations. In *Proceedings of the 10th ACM conference on recommender systems*, pages 191–198.

Damai Dai, Yutao Sun, Li Dong, Yaru Hao, Zhifang Sui, and Furu Wei. 2022. Why can gpt learn in-context? language models secretly perform gradient descent as meta optimizers. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2212.10559*.

Wenqi Fan, Zihuai Zhao, Jiatong Li, Yunqing Liu, Xiaowei Mei, Yiqi Wang, Jiliang Tang, and Qing Li. 2023. Recommender systems in the era of large language models (llms). *arXiv preprint arXiv:2307.02046*.

Gerhard Fischer. 2001. User modeling in human-computer interaction. *User modeling and user-adapted interaction*, 11:65–86.

Timothy D Griffiths, Christian Büchel, Richard SJ Frackowiak, and Roy D Patterson. 1998. Analysis of temporal structure in sound by the human brain. *Nature neuroscience*, 1(5):422–427.

F Maxwell Harper and Joseph A Konstan. 2015. The movielens datasets: History and context. *Acm transactions on interactive intelligent systems (tiis)*, 5(4):1–19.

Jesse Harte, Wouter Zorgdrager, Panos Louridas, Asterios Katsifodimos, Dietmar Jannach, and Marios Fragkoulis. 2023. Leveraging large language models for sequential recommendation. In *Proceedings of the 17th ACM Conference on Recommender Systems*, pages 1096–1102.

Zhankui He, Zhouhang Xie, Rahul Jha, Harald Steck, Dawen Liang, Yesu Feng, Bodhisattwa Prasad Majumder, Nathan Kallus, and Julian McAuley. 2023. Large language models as zero-shot conversational recommenders. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2308.10053*.

Balázs Hidasi, Alexandros Karatzoglou, Linas Baltrunas, and Domonkos Tikk. 2015. Session-based recommendations with recurrent neural networks. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1511.06939*.

Yupeng Hou, Zhankui He, Julian McAuley, and Wayne Xin Zhao. 2023a. Learning vector-quantized item representation for transferable sequential recommenders. In *Proceedings of the ACM Web Conference 2023*, pages 1162–1171.

Yupeng Hou, Shanlei Mu, Wayne Xin Zhao, Yaliang Li, Bolin Ding, and Ji-Rong Wen. 2022. Towards universal sequence representation learning for recommender systems. In *Proceedings of the 28th ACM SIGKDD Conference on Knowledge Discovery and Data Mining*, pages 585–593.

Yupeng Hou, Junjie Zhang, Zihan Lin, Hongyu Lu, Ruobing Xie, Julian McAuley, and Wayne Xin Zhao. 2023b. Large language models are zero-shot rankers for recommender systems. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2305.08845*.

Wang-Cheng Kang and Julian McAuley. 2018. Self-attentive sequential recommendation. In *2018 IEEE international conference on data mining (ICDM)*, pages 197–206. IEEE.

Wang-Cheng Kang, Jianmo Ni, Nikhil Mehta, Maheswaran Sathiamoorthy, Lichan Hong, Ed Chi, and Derek Zhiyuan Cheng. 2023. Do llms understand user preferences? evaluating llms on user rating prediction. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2305.06474*.

Jiacheng Li, Ming Wang, Jin Li, Jinmiao Fu, Xin Shen, Jingbo Shang, and Julian McAuley. 2023. Text is all you need: Learning language representations for sequential recommendation. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2305.13731*.

Jing Li, Pengjie Ren, Zhumin Chen, Zhaochun Ren, Tao Lian, and Jun Ma. 2017. Neural attentive session-based recommendation. In *Proceedings of the 2017 ACM on Conference on Information and Knowledge Management*, pages 1419–1428.

Junling Liu, Chao Liu, Renjie Lv, Kang Zhou, and Yan Zhang. 2023a. Is chatgpt a good recommender? a preliminary study. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2304.10149*.

Nelson F Liu, Kevin Lin, John Hewitt, Ashwin Paranjape, Michele Bevilacqua, Fabio Petroni, and Percy Liang. 2023b. Lost in the middle: How language models use long contexts. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2307.03172*.

Julian McAuley. 2022. *Personalized machine learning*. Cambridge University Press.

Sewon Min, Xinxi Lyu, Ari Holtzman, Mikel Artetxe, Mike Lewis, Hannaneh Hajishirzi, and Luke Zettlemoyer. 2022. Rethinking the role of demonstrations: What makes in-context learning work? *arXiv preprint arXiv:2202.12837*.

Jianmo Ni, Jiacheng Li, and Julian McAuley. 2019. Justifying recommendations using distantly-labeled reviews and fine-grained aspects. In *Proceedings of the 2019 conference on empirical methods in natural language processing and the 9th international joint conference on natural language processing (EMNLP/IJCNLP)*, pages 188–197.

Anna C Nobre and Freek Van Ede. 2018. Anticipated moments: temporal structure in attention. *Nature Reviews Neuroscience*, 19(1):34–48.

Steffen Rendle, Christoph Freudenthaler, and Lars Schmidt-Thieme. 2010. Factorizing personalized markov chains for next-basket recommendation. In *Proceedings of the 19th international conference on World wide web*, pages 811–820.

Stephen Robertson, Hugo Zaragoza, et al. 2009. The probabilistic relevance framework: Bm25 and beyond. *Foundations and Trends® in Information Retrieval*, 3(4):333–389.

Mark A Runco. 1991. *Divergent thinking*. Ablex Publishing Corporation Norwood, NJ.

Karan Singhal, Shekoofeh Azizi, Tao Tu, S Sara Mhdavi, Jason Wei, Hyung Won Chung, Nathan Scales, Ajay Tanwani, Heather Cole-Lewis, Stephen Pfohl, et al. 2023. Large language models encode clinical knowledge. *Nature*, 620(7972):172–180.

Fei Sun, Jun Liu, Jian Wu, Changhua Pei, Xiao Lin, Wenwu Ou, and Peng Jiang. 2019. Bert4rec: Sequential recommendation with bidirectional encoder representations from transformer. In *Proceedings of the 28th ACM international conference on information and knowledge management*, pages 1441–1450.

Jiaxi Tang and Ke Wang. 2018. Personalized top-n sequential recommendation via convolutional sequence embedding. In *Proceedings of the eleventh ACM international conference on web search and data mining*, pages 565–573.

Ruey S Tsay. 2005. *Analysis of financial time series*. John wiley & sons.

Chenguang Wang, Xiao Liu, and Dawn Song. 2020. Language models are open knowledge graphs. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2010.11967*.

Lei Wang and Ee-Peng Lim. 2023. Zero-shot next-item recommendation using large pretrained language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2304.03153*.

Yancheng Wang, Ziyan Jiang, Zheng Chen, Fan Yang, Yingxue Zhou, Eunah Cho, Xing Fan, Xiaojiang Huang, Yanbin Lu, and Yingzhen Yang. 2023. Recmind: Large language model powered agent for recommendation. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2308.14296*.

Jason Wei, Maarten Bosma, Vincent Y Zhao, Kelvin Guu, Adams Wei Yu, Brian Lester, Nan Du, Andrew M Dai, and Quoc V Le. 2021. Finetuned language models are zero-shot learners. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2109.01652*.

Qingyun Wu, Gagan Bansal, Jieyu Zhang, Yiran Wu, Shaokun Zhang, Erkang Zhu, Beibin Li, Li Jiang, Xiaoyun Zhang, and Chi Wang. 2023. Autogen: Enabling next-gen llm applications via multi-agent conversation framework. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2308.08155*.

Shu Wu, Yuyuan Tang, Yanqiao Zhu, Liang Wang, Xing Xie, and Tieniu Tan. 2019. Session-based recommendation with graph neural networks. In *Proceedings of the AAAI conference on artificial intelligence*, volume 33, pages 346–353.

Lanling Xu, Junjie Zhang, Bingqian Li, Jinpeng Wang, Mingchen Cai, Wayne Xin Zhao, and Ji-Rong Wen. 2024. Prompting large language models for recommender systems: A comprehensive framework and empirical analysis. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2401.04997*.

Tingting Zhang, Pengpeng Zhao, Yanchi Liu, Victor S Sheng, Jiajie Xu, Deqing Wang, Guanfeng Liu, Xiaofang Zhou, et al. 2019. Feature-level deeper self-attention network for sequential recommendation. In *IJCAI*, pages 4320–4326.