A Machine Learning-based Course Enrollment Recommender System

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Abstract: As an integral component of human society, higher education has been undergoing a transformation in multiple aspects, such as administrative reorganization, pedagogical reform, and technological innovation. To line up with the latest trends, many institutions constantly update their curriculum, which poses challenges to students and their advisors. This paper proposes a machine learning-based course enrollment recommender system that aims to make personalized suggestions to students who expect to take classes in the upcoming semester. Using matrix factorization as the core algorithm, the model exploits several available types of information, including student course enrollment history and other contextual features, such as prerequisite restrictions, course meeting times, instructional methods, and course instructors. The system not only helps students but also facilitates their advisors’ work. Our experimental results show that the recommended courses were highly relevant while providing plenty of options to students.

1 INTRODUCTION

Over the past decades, higher education has evolved considerably to serve students better and enhance their academic success. This includes structural reorganization (de Boer et al., 2017), adopting new instructional technologies (Garrison and Akyol, 2009; Aldowah et al., 2017), updating curriculum, etc. Using computer science as an example, due to the nature of this discipline, the curriculum is constantly updated at many universities to align with the state-of-the-art technologies in the field. With more courses proposed and prerequisite restrictions changed, students can often feel overwhelmed by the abundance of information. To help them decide which classes to take, one or more program advisors are set up to address their common questions. Based on students’ current knowledge and the courses they have completed, suggestions and recommendations are made so that the sequence of the courses can match their individual goals and interests while fulfilling the degree requirements.

In this model, once the course registration window is open, there can be a large number of student inquiries about their progress and the courses they should take, which can easily overwhelm the advisors. Meanwhile, when meeting with students, an advisor needs to profile them by understanding their preferences, e.g., favorite instructors, meeting times, course delivery methods (online, hybrid, and face-to-face), and reviewing their already passed courses. There are a few potential challenges in this process: (1) talking to each student and trying to profile the individual from scratch is time-consuming; and (2) many students are not prepared before they meet the advisors, meaning that they do not have any courses in mind and usually need multiple meetings with the advisors before they can make their final selection. A recommender system that can automatically profile students based on their registration history and provide personalized course enrollment suggestions for the upcoming semester will be beneficial for both students and advisors. For advisors, because the system allows them to view student preferences easily and intuitively, their work will become more efficient which enables them to serve students better. For students, the system makes recommendations based on their previously passed courses and their favorite instructors, campuses, meeting times, and more. It provides the students with helpful information and prepares them before meeting with advisors. In some cases, such meetings may become unnecessary.

As a constituent component of many online services, e.g., e-commerce (Amazon, eBay), video
streaming (Netflix, YouTube), and social media (Facebook, Tiktok), recommender systems (Ricci et al., 2011) aim to learn the preferences of their users based on their past behaviors (e.g., purchase records, browsing history) and make personalized suggestions on various types of items such as movies, products, news, friends, and others. Recommender systems significantly improve user experience and help them escape from information overload. With such systems, people can easily find content tailored to their interests and save considerable time.

As we digitize higher education, recommender systems have gained increasing popularity in this field since early 2000. One of the applications is to make automated course suggestions to students looking to register for courses in the upcoming semester. Al-Badarenah et al. (Al-Badarenah and Alsakran, 2016) proposed a course recommendation system that recommends elective courses with expected grades to students based on other similar students. The authors believed that students could get an acceptable grade by taking the recommended courses. When identifying similar students, their proposed method utilized data mining techniques, such as association rule mining, to find student clusters based on their commonly taken courses and grades. (Bydžovská, 2016) proposed a more comprehensive recommender system that took into account several factors, such as most selected courses, courses enrolled by similar students, courses taught by most popular teachers, and courses enrolled by friends (identified by discussion forums activities, explicit friendship, co-authoring publications, and other contextual information). The system was designed to remind students of their duties, warn them against challenging courses, and recommend potentially beneficial courses. They tested a pilot version of the recommender system at their university, and they believed that it would become part of the university information system in the future. On top of these researches, there are other proposed frameworks for course recommender systems using collaborative filtering (O’Mahony and Smyth, 2007), data mining (Bendakir and A’imeur, 2006; Sacín et al., 2011), and machine learning (Tomczak, 2010; Khalid et al., 2021) techniques.

This paper proposes a machine learning-based course enrollment recommender system that aims to make personalized suggestions to students looking to register for courses in the upcoming semester. It utilizes several types of information to make personalized recommendations: student course enrollment history, prerequisite restrictions, course meeting times (morning, afternoon, and night), instructional methods (face to face, online, and hybrid), course instructors, and more. The framework uses matrix factorization methods (Lee and Seung, 2001) to explore critical latent features of students and courses from these data. Recommendations to each student are made based on their course enrollment history and personal preferences.

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 gives the related work, Section 3 describes the main idea of the proposed approach, and Section 4 presents the experiments and discusses the results. Some concluding remarks are given in 5.

2 RELATED WORK

Course recommendation has been an essential part of student advising for a long time. Since before the birth of computers and the internet, advisors have been the “recommender systems” of students. An electronic version of such a recommender system can be traced back to year 2000 (Tang et al., 2000). Several data mining techniques were combined to help build a personalization algorithm. Other works such as (Chu et al., 2003) and (Lee and Cho, 2011) also tried different approaches to develop such recommender systems. Later, with the prosperity of Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCs), more researchers began to automate offering guidance for online students to select the right course and knowledge.

For example, (Zhang et al., 2018) tried to combine conventional course recommendation techniques with a big data framework. As a core building block of many online applications, recommender systems received significant recognition and improvement, from the content-based methods to collaborative filtering, and from utilizing only a single type of information to various contextual signals. Matrix factorization (Lee and Seung, 2001), as a foundational model in collaborative filtering, is a dimensionality reduction technique that was extensively explored in recommender system research. (Koren, 2008) proposed a hybrid collaborative filtering framework that incorporates latent features into a neighborhood model. The approach captures these features using matrix factorization to boost the learning effectiveness. It was highly successful and was later popularized by Simon Funk (Funk, 2006). Studies on course recommender systems using this model can be easily identified (Thanh-Nhan et al., 2016; Nguyen et al., 2021).

Although the hybrid model proposed by Koren gained popularity, it did not take advantage of additional information, such as contextual data associated with the ratings or users/items. (Ma et al., 2011) pro-
posed a recommender system with social regularization. It takes into account users’ social relationships when learning latent features to perform more comprehensive training. Our proposed model uses a similar idea but for course recommendations and with different contextual information.

### 3 METHODOLOGY

In a typical course enrollment system, the database maintains the registration records for each student. Our proposed model involves two major types of entities, students and courses. A utility matrix, $R \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, is used to represent the registration history, where there are $m$ students and $n$ courses. An element $r_{ui}$ in $R$ indicates whether student $u$ took course $i$ in the past. $r_{ui} = 1$ means the student has already taken the course, otherwise, $r_{ui} = 0$. The goal is to predict whether a student is likely to register for a course in the upcoming semester.

The model proposed in this paper utilizes matrix factorization (Koren, 2008) as the underlying method to learn latent features for students and courses. These features capture the most critical characteristics of the two types of entities, which are essential for accurate course recommendations. A classical and prevailing matrix factorization-based collaborative filtering model is shown in Eq. (1).

$$\hat{r}_{ui} = \mu + b_u + b_i + \langle \mathbf{p}_u, \mathbf{q}_i \rangle \quad (1)$$

where $\mu$ is the mean value of all observed ratings, the scalars $b_u$ and $b_i$ are the observed deviations of user $u$ and item $i$, respectively 1, from $\mu$, whereas the $s$-dimensional vectors $\mathbf{p}_u$ and $\mathbf{q}_i$ are the embeddings in the latent space for user $u$ and item $i$, respectively ($s$ is the rank of the embeddings). The corresponding objective function is presented in Eq. (2).

$$f_{MF} = \min_{b_u, b_i, \mathbf{p}_u, \mathbf{q}_i} \sum_{u \in U} \sum_{i \in I_{u, k}} (r_{ui} - \hat{r}_{ui})^2 + \alpha (b_u^2 + b_i^2 + \|\mathbf{p}_u\|^2 + \|\mathbf{q}_i\|^2) \quad (2)$$

where $s_{ui}$ is the similarity between user $u$ and user $j$, and $N(u)$ is the set of similar users, a.k.a. neighbors of $u$. $\beta$ controls the weight of the constraint term.

The only modification that Eq. (3) made over Eq. (2) is that the similarity between two users imposes influence on the update of their embeddings. In other words, if two students $u$ and $j$ share common preferences, e.g., taking courses with the same instructors and only registering for online classes, then the embeddings $\mathbf{p}_u$ and $\mathbf{q}_j$ should be close as well. In a nutshell, contextual information brings in external knowledge not available in the original student-course interaction data, rendering more informed training.

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**Table 1: A sample dataset.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student ID</th>
<th>Course ID</th>
<th>Semester</th>
<th>Instructor ID</th>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Campus</th>
<th>Meeting Time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S001</td>
<td>CS200</td>
<td>Fall 2020</td>
<td>I225</td>
<td>Online</td>
<td>Main</td>
<td>11:00-12:15 MW</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S001</td>
<td>CS205</td>
<td>Fall 2020</td>
<td>I312</td>
<td>Remote</td>
<td>North</td>
<td>13:30-14:45 TR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S002</td>
<td>CS421</td>
<td>Spring 2021</td>
<td>I225</td>
<td>F2F</td>
<td>South</td>
<td>15:45-17:00 TR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S003</td>
<td>CS327</td>
<td>Fall 2021</td>
<td>I182</td>
<td>F2F</td>
<td>Main</td>
<td>10:45-12:00 MW</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

1 In this paper, user and student are used interchangeably and the same rule applies to item and course as well.
For each student $u$, we identify their similar peers by computing the cosine similarity between $u$ and the rest of the students, concerning four attributes: instructor, instructional method, meeting time, and campus (some universities have multiple locations), and then keep those with highest similarities. Table 1 illustrates a few sample records that include these attributes.

When identifying similarities, we use one-hot encoding (Harris and Harris, 2007) to convert each attribute into a binary representation, and then compute the cosine similarities: instructor – $s_i(u, j)$, instructional method – $s_m(u, j)$, campus – $s_c(u, j)$, and meeting time – $s_t(u, j)$, where $u$ and $j$ are any two students. Weighted average is calculated over the four values as the similarity between $u$ and $j$:

$$ s_{uj} = w_1 s_i(u, j) + w_2 s_m(u, j) + w_3 s_c(u, j) + (1 - w_1 - w_2 - w_3) s_t(u, j) $$

(4)

where $w_1$, $w_2$, and $w_3$ control the weight of each attribute respectively.

The objective function in Eq. (3) can be optimized by the stochastic gradient descent (SGD) method. The corresponding update formulas are listed below:

$$ b_u \leftarrow b_u + \theta (e_{ui} - \alpha \cdot b_u) $$
$$ b_i \leftarrow b_i + \theta (e_{ui} - \alpha \cdot b_i) $$
$$ \hat{q}_i \leftarrow \hat{q}_i + \theta (e_{ui} - \alpha \cdot \hat{q}_i) $$
$$ \hat{p}_u \leftarrow \hat{p}_u + \theta (e_{ui} - \alpha \cdot \hat{p}_u - \sum_{j \in N(u)} s_{uj} \hat{p}_j) $$

(5)

$$ + \beta \sum_{j \in N(u)} s_{uj} \hat{p}_j $$

where $e_{ui} = r_{ui} - \hat{r}_{ui}$ and $\theta$ is the learning rate. SGD first initializes $\hat{b}_u$ and $\hat{p}_u$ for each student, and $b_i$ and $\hat{q}_i$ for each course. Then it updates these variables by iteratively performing the update formulas for a specific number of epochs.

Once training is completed, the system predicts course scores $\hat{r}_{ui}$ for each student based on the learned model. A candidate course list is generated by sorting the courses according to their predicted scores, with the highest showing up at the top and the lowest at the bottom. Due to the nature of the curriculum, there are usually restrictions on course registration specific to the program. We consider the following rules when filtering these courses in our proposed approach:

- If a candidate course has already been taken by the student, it should not be recommended again unless the student failed it.
- If a candidate course has been taken by the student but he/she failed it, then if this course is a prerequisite of other courses, it should be recommended again.
- A candidate course cannot be recommended if the student has not taken all its prerequisites. The system should recommend one or more prerequisites to the student.
- In case a prerequisite course requires other courses that have not been taken by the student yet, the system recursively searches on the prerequisite path to find the course that the student is eligible to take. For example, a candidate course CS257 requires CS203 which requires CS117, but the student has not taken CS117 yet - in this case,
only CS117 can be recommended, assuming that it does not require any other courses or the student has fulfilled the prerequisite for it.

On the final recommendation list, we prioritize the courses that were failed by the student and need to be retaken. To put it another way, these courses should override the prediction scores and show up at the top of the list. The rest of the candidate courses will remain sorted based on their scores. Only top $k$ courses are recommended to each student. The complete framework of the approach is illustrated in Figure 1.

4 EXPERIMENTAL STUDY

In this section, we will discuss the dataset on which the model was tested, the evaluation strategy, and results analysis.

4.1 Dataset Preprocessing

The proposed approach was examined on a registration dataset consisting of student enrollment records on Computer Science courses at Northeastern Illinois University (NEIU), collected between Fall 2009 and Spring 2021. The dataset includes 5,949 users, 67 instructors, 75 courses, and 37,423 registration records. Although there are 22 attributes included, we only used pertinent ones, such as student pseudo ID, course ID, the course title, instructor pseudo ID, instructor name, semester, meeting time, instructional method, and campus.

Figure 2 shows the enrollment distribution in terms of four instructional methods: hybrid, lecture (face-to-face), online, and remote. Due to COVID-19, the university started offering remote learning in Spring 2020, but it was not reflected in the record until Summer 2020. The university also increased online offerings significantly since Summer 2020 to accommodate students who preferred asynchronous learning. With regard to meeting times, because a large portion of students who attend NEIU are non-traditional students, many of the courses are offered in the afternoon or evening, as depicted in Figure 3.

A careful inspection on the dataset reveals a few observations that the data preprocessing step needs to deal with:

1. Transfer student records were not complete - the dataset did not include what courses they took before their transfer.
2. Some of the courses became obsolete and were no longer offered.

3. There is no indication whether a student is graduate or undergraduate.

To resolve these issues, we first removed all the students who had no records of Programming I and Programming II, which are the required core courses by the Computer Science Bachelor’s degree. Then we discarded the records before Fall 2014 to eliminate obsolete courses. Last but not least, we deleted all students who took CS400-level courses as these are usually for graduate students. After preprocessing, we split the records into two sets: a training set with 9,618 records and a test set with 2,243 records. The test set only includes each test student’s last semester’s records to simulate the “upcoming” semester. The split procedure ensured that students who showed up in the test set had at least two semesters’ records because the goal of the recommender system is to suggest courses that a student can take in the upcoming semester. It uses the knowledge learned from the training set to make predictions on the records that are present in the test set.

4.2 Evaluation Strategy

In course recommendation research, some papers measure prediction errors, such as RMSE (root mean squared error) and MAE (mean absolute error) (Khalid et al., 2021; Thanh-Nhan et al., 2016).
whereas some focus on precision and recall (Al-Badarenah and Alsakran, 2016; O’Mahony and Smyth, 2007; Bendakir and A’imeur, 2006; Salehudin et al., 2019). The error measurements can accurately reflect how close the predicted value is to the observed value, so they are more suitable for precisely profiling users, such as movie and product recommendations. On the opposite, precision and recall are often used to evaluate the performance of top-\(k\) recommendations where no ratings are available, e.g., in point-of-interest recommendations, a customer might or might not visit the recommended place.

The experiments on the proposed approach exploited both metrics to study its performance at different stages. We recorded the RMSE during the training process and computed the precision and recall for the predictions. The RMSE is defined as follows:

\[
RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{1}{|\tau|} \sum_{\tau \in \tau} (\hat{r}_{ui} - r_{ui})^2}
\]

where \(\tau\) is the test set.

Although RMSE can be easily computed over the entire test set, precision and recall in recommender systems are computed based on each user and then aggregated. Their definitions are presented in Eq. (7):

\[
\text{Precision}_{u} @ k = \frac{|R_u \cap T_u|}{k}
\]

\[
\text{Recall}_{u} @ k = \frac{|R_u \cap T_u|}{|T_u|}
\]

where \(R_u\) is the list of courses recommended to student \(u\) and \(T_u\) represents the courses that are actually taken by \(u\). \(|*|\) denotes the size of a set \(*\). The final precision and recall are the sums of \(\text{Precision}_{u} @ k\) and \(\text{Recall}_{u} @ k\) for all test students, respectively.

4.3 Results and Discussion

There were several hyperparameters that needed to be set beforehand, including the weights for each contextual attribute when computing student similarities (Eq. (4)), \(\alpha\) and \(\beta\) that control the impacts of the regularization and constraint terms, respectively (Eq. (3)), as well as \(s\), the targeted rank of user and course embeddings. Additionally, the learning rate \(\theta\) (Eq. (5)) had to be determined.

For simplicity purposes, we initially set \(w_1\), \(w_2\), and \(w_3\) all to 0.25, which gives the same weight to all four attributes, i.e., instructor, instructional method, campus, and meeting time. The prediction outcome did not present noticeable variation with different values, so we kept them as is in the rest of the experiments. Table 2 lists the setup.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(w_1)</th>
<th>(w_2)</th>
<th>(w_3)</th>
<th>(\alpha)</th>
<th>(\beta)</th>
<th>(\theta)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.0002</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Parameter setup.

Table 3: RMSE on test set with varying \(s\).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(s)</th>
<th>(\text{RMSE})</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.3827</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.3840</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>0.3853</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>0.3855</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We began the experiment by probing \(s\) and inspecting the training loss over epochs. Figure 4 shows that the loss kept decreasing with more iterations of the SGD update. It is also apparent that the variation between different values of \(s\) is minimal, and more latent features did not positively contribute to the result. A further test regarding RMSE on the test set confirms this observation, as shown in Table 3. In the subsequent evaluation procedure, we set \(s\) to 5 as it produced relatively the lowest prediction error. Note that we ran the update for 20 epochs in this test.

![Figure 4: Training loss over epochs.](image)

Depending on the student preference, the number of courses recommended (\(k\)) can vary. It will not affect the RMSE but will significantly impact the precision and recall of the prediction. In our experiment, we measured the outcomes produced by different \(k\)s. Figure 5 plots the precision, recall, and F1-score for six different \(k\)s. The highest F1-score (~0.62) was achieved when \(k = 3\).

With more courses recommended to students, the recall increases while precision moves in the opposite direction. The result is reasonable as it renders a broader range of courses for students to select from. However, recommending too many courses does not help them make decisions due to the lack of personalization. In real-world scenarios, students can determine the value of \(k\) according to their needs — some may prefer to take only one course per semester, while
some may push this number to six. Figure 6 plots the distribution of courses registered by each student per semester over three and a half years. As mentioned before, many students at NEIU are non-traditional and usually keep a relatively lower and more manageable course load than those from more conventional institutions. That said, without losing generality, we set $k$ to 6 in our next experiment, where we evaluated how many epochs would generate the best results.

5 CONCLUSION

In this paper, we proposed a machine learning-based course enrollment recommender system that aims to make personalized suggestions to students who expect to take classes in the upcoming semester. Using matrix factorization as the core algorithm, the model exploits several available types of information, including student course enrollment history and other contextual features, such as prerequisite restrictions, course meeting times, instructional methods, and course instructors. A prototype system was designed and implemented according to the proposed framework. The experimental results show that when recommending six courses to each student, the system attained a precision of 50% and a recall of 78%, which demonstrate a high relevance of the recommendations.
Future work would include the integration of more contextual data, e.g., student demographics and grades, into the model and refining it with a deep neural network-based framework. By doing this, on top of linear relations between the entities in the data, more comprehensive correlations can be captured as well, and therefore the recommendation relevance can be further improved.

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