Student Dropout Prediction

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Abstract. Among the many open problems in the learning process, students dropout is one of the most complicated and negative ones, both for the student and the institutions, and being able to predict it could help to alleviate its social and economic costs. To address this problem we developed a tool that, by exploiting machine learning techniques, allows to predict the dropout of a first-year undergraduate student. The proposed tool allows to estimate the risk of quitting an academic course, and it can be used either during the application phase or during the first year, since it selectively accounts for personal data, academic records from secondary school and also first year course credits. Our experiments have been performed by considering real data of students from eleven schools of a major University.

Keywords: machine learning, educational data mining, decision support tools

1 Introduction

Artificial Intelligence is changing many aspects of our society and our lives since it provides the technological basis for new services and tools that help decision making in everyday life. Education is not immune to this revolution. Indeed AI and machine learning tools can help to improve in several ways the learning process. A critical aspect in this context is the possibility of developing new predictive tools which can be used to help students improve their academic careers.

Among the many different observable phenomena in the students' careers, University dropout is one of the most complex and adverse events, both for students or institutions. A dropout is a potentially devastating event in the life of a student, and it also impacts negatively the University from an economic point of view [6]. Furthermore, it could also be a signal of potential issues in the organisation and the quality of the courses. Dropout prediction is a task that can be addressed by exploiting machine learning techniques, which already proved to be effective in the field of education for evaluating students' performance [6, 1, 10, 8, 9].

In this work, we face the challenge of early predicting the dropout for a freshman by adopting a data-driven approach. Trough an automated learning

process, we aim to develop a model that is capable of capturing information concerning the particular context in which dropout takes place.

We built our model by taking into account the following three design principles. First, we want to estimate the risk of quitting an academic course at an early stage, either before the student starts the course or during the first year. Statistical evidence shows that this time frame is one of the most critical periods for dropout. Targeting first-year students means that the data we can use to train our predictive models are only personal information and academic records from high school — e.g. gender, age, high school education, final mark — and the number of credits acquired during the first months of the first year. Second, we do not focus on a specific predictive model; instead, we conducted a thorough study considering several machine learning techniques in order to construct a baseline and assess the challenge of the problem under analysis. Last, we conducted the training and test processes on real data, collecting samples of approximately 15,000 students from a specific academic year of a major University.

The remainder of this paper has the following structure. Related approaches are discussed in Section 2. In Section 3 we describe the machine learning methods used in our analysis, the dataset we collected and the preprocessing techniques applied to it. In Section 4 we evaluate the selected models by comparing their performance: first, with the different values of the models' parameters; second, to the features used in the train and test sets and, finally, considering each academic school separately. Then, we draw final remarks in Section 5 and present possible uses and extensions of this work.

2   Related Work

Several papers recently addressed the prediction of students' performances employing machine learning techniques. In the case of University-level education [14] and [1] have designed machine learning models, based on different datasets, performing analysis similar to ours even though they use different features and assumptions. In [1] a balanced dataset, including features mainly about the student provenance, is used to train different machine learning models. Tests report accuracy, true positive rate and AUC-ROC measures. Also in [11] there is a study in this direction but using a richer set of features involving family status and life conditions for each student. The authors used a Fuzzy-ARTMAP Neural Network gaining competitive performances. Moreover, as in our case, they performed the predictions using data at enrolment time. In [12] a set of features similar to the previous work is exploited. An analysis with different classification algorithms from the WEKA environment is performed, in order to find the best model for solving this kind of problem. It turns out that in this case the algorithm ID3 reaches the best performance with respect to the classification task.

Another work on the University dropout phenomenon was proposed in [7]. The proposed solution aim at predicting the student dropout but using a com-

pletely different representation for the students. In fact, the approach exploits data acquisition by web cams, eye-trackers and other similar devices in the context of a smart class. Based on these data, it is possible to perform emotion analysis and detection for the students in the room which will be then exploited to predict the dropout. There also exist studies related to high school education [10]. However, in this case, different countries have quite different high school systems, for example, the duration of the high school and the voting system can vary a lot among countries. Due to these differences, datasets from different countries can have very different meanings and, even if they include similar features, these are describing quite different situations. For this reason, works on lower levels of education are much less general and exportable to other systems. On the contrary, University systems are more similar, or it is possible to easily "translate" a system into another. Predictive models for students' final performance in the context of blended education, partially exploiting online platforms [9] or entirely online University courses [8, 15], have also been proposed. In these cases, the presence of the technological devices allows the use of an augmented set of data — e.g. consulting homework submission logs — which can improve the quality of the models. However, the aim of these approaches is different from the proposed solution. In fact, besides the analysis of the correlations between the features and the students' performances discovered by the machine learning models, we propose to exploit the prediction at the moment of the students' enrolment in order to prevent the problematic situations that can bring to the dropout occurrences. Prediction at application-time is one of our main contribution, in fact a model exploiting data which are available after the enrolment — e.g. considering the students' performances and behaviour at the University — is certainly more accurate, but the timing for the suggestions is not optimal. Considering to take more courses or to change academic path while the mandatory courses at the University have already started could be highly frustrating for the students and do not enhance motivation in continuing their studies. Another important point in our work is the fact that we aim to perform a careful analysis of fair results with respect to the statistical characteristics of the dataset (in particular dealing with the unbalanced data). On the other hand, most of the previous works while mentioning the problem do not focus on how this unbalance affects the exploited models and may produce misleading results, and often dot not provide a clear justifications for the best performance measures on real data affected by this problem. This lack of extensive statistical analysis and evaluation of the limits and risks of the developed models has also been highlighted in [5], an excellent survey of different techniques for the students' performances prediction and related considerations.

3   Methodology

We considered a specific set of well-known classification algorithms to provide a tool enabling a reasonably accurate prediction of the dropout phenomenon. In particular, we considered the Linear Discriminant Analysis (LDA), Support Vec-

tor Machine (`SVM`) [3] and Random Forest (`RF`), as they are the most commonly used models in literature to solve similar problems.

`LDA` acts as a dimensional reduction algorithm, trying to reduce the data complexity, i.e. by projecting the actual feature space on a lower-dimensional one, while trying to retain relevant information; also, it does not involve parameter settings. `SVM` is a well-established technique for data classification and regression. It finds the best separating hyper-plane by maximising the margin in the feature space. The training data participating in the maximisation process are called support vectors. `RF` builds a collection of tree-structured classifiers combining them randomly. It has been adopted in the literature for a great variety of regression and prediction tasks [2].

We verified our methodology in three steps, providing a proper set of evaluation measures as we discuss later in this section. First, we assessed the different classifiers performance for the model parameters. In our case, we validated the `SVM` model over seven different values of `C`, that is the regularisation parameter, and we analysed the behaviour of four number of estimators in the case of `RF`. Moreover, we performed each validation considering two different re-scaling techniques of the data instances. Second, we evaluated the classifiers over three training sets that considered different features. For `LDA`, `RF` and `SVM` we only kept the best parameters' choice and monitored their performance on the different datasets.

Dataset. The dataset used for this work has been extracted from a collection of real data. More precisely, we considered pseudo-anonymized data describing $15,000$ students enrolled in several courses of the academic year 2016/2017. The decision to focus our research within the limit of the first year lies in the analysis of statistical evidence from the source data. This evidence indicates a concentration of career dropouts in the first year of the course and a progressive decrease of the phenomenon in the following years. More specifically, students who leave within the first year is 14.8% of the total registered, while those who leave by the third year is 21.6%. This is equivalent to saying that the 6.8% of registered abandoned in subsequent years compared with 14.8% who leaves during the first year; confirming the importance of acting within the first year of the program to prevent the dropout phenomenon.

Table 1 shows a detailed description of the information available in the dataset. The first column lists the name of the features, while the second column describes the possible values or range. The first two features represent personal data of students while the third and the fourth are information related to the high school attended by the student.

Concerning the *Age* feature, its three possible values represent three different ranges of ages at the moment of enrolment, the value 1 is assigned to students until 19 years old, 2 for student's age between 20 and 23 years, and 3 otherwise. The values of *High school id* indicate ten different kinds of high school where the student obtained the diploma. The *High school final mark* represents the mark that the student received when graduating in high school. The flag

Table 1. Available features for each student in the original dataset, along with the possible values range

Feature	Value Range
Student gender	1, 2
Student age range	1 to 3
High school id	1 to 10
High school final mark	60 to 100
Additional Learning Requirements	1, 2, 3
Academic school Id	1 to 11
Course Credits	0 to 60
Dropout	0, 1

Additional Learning Requirements (*ALR*) represents the possibility for mandatory additional credits in the first academic year. In fact, some degree programs present an admission test; if failed, the student has to attend some further specific courses and has to pass the relative examinations (within a given deadline) in order to be able to continue in that program. The values for the *ALR* feature indicate three possible situations: the value one is used to describe degree programs without *ALR*; the value two stands for an *ALR* examination that has been passed while the value three indicates that the student failed to pass the *ALR* examination, although it was required. *Academic school id* represents the academic school chosen by the student: there are eleven possible schools according to the present dataset. *Course Credits* indicates the number of credits acquired by the students. We use this attribute only in the case in which we evaluate the students already enrolled, and we consider only those credits acquired before the end of the first year, in order to obtain indications on the situation of the student before the condition of abandonment arises. The Boolean attribute *Dropout* represents the event of a student who abandons the degree course. This feature also represents the class for the supervised classification task and the outcome of the inference process — i.e. the prediction. Since the dropout assumes values `True` (1) or `False` (0), the problem treated in this work is a binary classification one.

It is possible to evaluate the amount of relevant information contained in the presented features by computing the *Information Gain* for each of them. This quantity is based on the concept of entropy, and it is usually exploited to build decision trees, but it also permits to obtain a ranked list of the available features for their relevance. In our case, some of the most relevant ones are (in descending order) *ALR*, *High school final mark*, *High school Id*, *Academic school Id*.

Data Preprocessing. We describe the preprocessing phase, used to clean the data as much as possible in order to maximise their exploitation in the prediction task. Firstly, we observed that in the original dataset, some of the values contain an implicit ordering that is not representative of the feature itself and can bias the model. These are the *High school id*, *Academic school id*, and *ALR*. We

represent these three features as categorical — and thus not as numerical — by transforming each value, adopting a One-hot encoding representation. As one can expect, the dataset is highly unbalanced since the students who abandon the enrolled course is a minority, less than 12.3%; in particular, the ratio between the negative (non-dropout) and positive (dropout) examples is around 7 : 1. Even though this is good for the educational institution, training a machine learning model for binary classification with a highly unbalanced dataset may result in poor final performance, mainly because in such a scenario the classifier would underestimate the class with a lower number of samples [16]. For this reason, we randomly select half of the negative samples (i.e., the students who effectively drop) and use it in the train set; an equal number of instances of the other class is randomly sampled from the dataset and added to the train set. In doing so, we obtain a balanced train set, which is used to train the supervised models. The remaining samples constitute an unbalanced test set which we use to measure the performance of the trained models. This procedure is repeated ten times and for each one of these trials we randomise the selection and keep balanced the number of samples for the two classes in the train set. The final evaluation is obtained by averaging the results of the ten trials on the test sets.

Feature Selection and Evaluation Metrics. Concretely, the first group of features that we select is composed by *gender*, *age range*, *high school*, *high school final mark*, and *academic school*. We referred to this set of features as the "basic" set. We performed the other validations by adding to the "basic" set the remaining features incrementally, first, ALR (basic + ALR) and then CC (basic + ALR + CC). In this way, we were able to check the actual relevance of each feature. Third, considering the best configuration from the analysis above, the performance for each academic school separately has been analysed.

Several evaluation metrics can be used to asses the quality of the classifiers both in the process of selecting the best hyper-parameter configuration and in ranking the different models. The classification produces True Positive (`TP`), True Negative (`TN`), False positive (`FP`) and False Negative (`FN`) values; in our case, we interpret an `FP` as the prediction of a dropout that does not occur, and an `FN` as a student which accordingly to the model's prediction will continue the studies while the dropout phenomenon actually occurs.

In the case of binary classification, accuracy (`ACC`), specificity (`SPEC`), and sensitivity (`SENS`) are used instead of plain `TP`, `TN`, `FP` and `FN` values to improve experimental results interpretability [4]. `ACC` is the ratio between correct predictions over the total number of instances. `SPEC`, or *True Negative Rate* (`TNR`), is the ratio of `TN` to the total number of instances that have actual negative class. `SENS`, also known as recall or *True Positive Rate* (`TPR`), is the ratio of `TP` to the total number of instances that have actual positive class.

4   Experimental Result

All the experiments have been performed using the Python programming language (version `3.7`) and the `scikit-learn` framework [13] (version `0.22.1`),
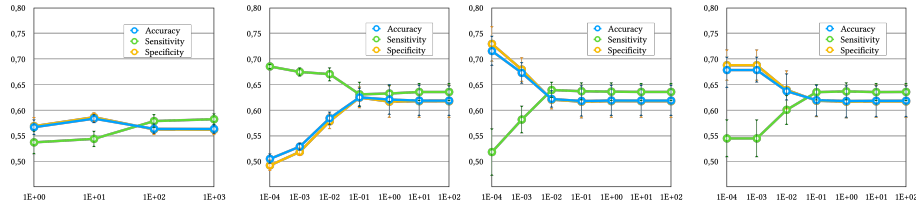
Fig. 1. Results obtained: (a) using RFs with an increasing number of estimators without rescaling the data; (b) using SVM for different values of C without rescaling the data; (c) using SVM for different values of C with standard rescaling; (d) using SVM for different values of C with min-max rescaling.

which provides access to the implementation of several machine learning algorithms. Training and testing run on a Linux Workstation equipped with Xeon 8-Core 2,1Ghz processor and 96GB of memory.

Parameters selection and data scaling. We performed a set of experiments in order to find the best parameters configuration for SVM, and RF. Tests with SVM have been conducted by progressively increasing the penalty term C, ranging over the following set: $\{1E^{-04}, 1E^{-03}, 1E^{-02}, 1E^{-01}, 1E^{+00}, 1E^{+01}, 1E^{+02}\}$. The same applies to the value for the number of estimators in RF algorithm, ranging over the set $\{1E^{+00}, 1E^{+01}, 1E^{+02}, 1E^{+03}\}$. We observe, from Figure 1, that the best results for both accuracy and sensitivity are obtained with $C = 1E^{-01}$ and with a number of estimators $= 1E^{+03}$. In addition, we assessed whether our dataset may benefit from data re-scaling or not. For this reason, we performed standard and min-max scaling on the data before training to evaluate their effectiveness for the original data — i.e., without scaling. Standard scale acts on numerical data values transforming for each numerical feature the original values distribution into another one with mean equal to zero and standard deviation equal to one, assuming that the values are normally distributed. *Min-Max* scaling aims to transform the range of possible values for each numerical feature from the original one to $[0, 1]$ or $[-1, 1]$. Both standard scaling and min-max scaling are computed on the train set and applied to the test set. We observed that the scaling has no effect on the final performance of LDA and RF. On the contrary, as shown in Figure 1 the scaling does affect the performance of SVM but it does not seem to add any benefit. This may be related to the fact that most of the features are categorical. For this reason we chose not to re-scale the data in the following tests.

Features analysis. Table 2 shows the results obtained considering different features combinations while keeping the SVM and RF parameters as described in the previous section and without data rescaling.

Considering the basic set of features LDA and SVM obtain the highest performance with a slightly larger variance for the SVM results. The introduction of

Table 2. Experimental results for `LDA`, `SVM` and `RF` classifiers over different feature sets.

Set	Model	ACC	SENS	SPEC
	`LDA`	0.62 ($\pm$0.01)	0.64 ($\pm$0.01)	0.62 ($\pm$0.01)
Basic	`SVM`	0.62 ($\pm$0.02)	0.65 ($\pm$0.02)	0.62 ($\pm$0.02)
	`RF`	0.56 ($\pm$0.01)	0.58 ($\pm$0.01)	0.56 ($\pm$0.01)
	`LDA`	0.75 ($\pm$0.01)	0.59 ($\pm$0.02)	0.76 ($\pm$0.02)
+ ALR	`SVM`	0.81 ($\pm$0.03)	0.50 ($\pm$0.06)	0.83 ($\pm$0.04)
	`RF`	0.63 ($\pm$0.01)	0.63 ($\pm$0.01)	0.63 ($\pm$0.01)
	`LDA`	0.85 ($\pm$0.00)	0.90 ($\pm$0.00)	0.85 ($\pm$0.00)
+ CC	`SVM`	0.87 ($\pm$0.00)	0.87 ($\pm$0.01)	0.87 ($\pm$0.01)
	`RF`	0.87 ($\pm$0.01)	0.85 ($\pm$0.01)	0.87 ($\pm$0.01)

the *ALR* feature mainly improves the accuracy and specificity for the LDA and SVM, but it drops the sensitivity. On the contrary, the introduction of the *ALR* feature in RF helps improving the final performance across all the measures, obtaining a higher performance compared to the results of LDA and SVM on the basic set of features.

The relevant gain here is that this work permits to estimate the risk of the dropout at the application time (for the basic and the basic+*ALR* features cases), i.e. before the students' enrolment and examination — which can give a clear indication about the future academic performances. We believe that this possibility is significant since appropriate policy and measures to counter the dropout should be taken by universities very early, possibly at the very beginning of the academic career, in order to maximise the student success probability and to reduce costs.

Finally, when considering the *CC* feature, all the models reach very high performance, with slightly higher results for SVM. However this feature is not available at application time.

Dropout Analysis per Academic School. The results in Table 2 are useful to understand the general behavior of the predictive model, but it may be difficult for governance to extract useful information. The division of results by academic school allows an analysis of the performance of the models with higher resolution. This could be an important feature that facilitates local administrations (those of schools) to interpret the results that concern students of their degree courses. In Table 2, we have selected the best models from those trained with *basic + ALR* and *basic + AL*R *+ CC* features. These are `RF` for the former and `SVM` for the latter. The results divided by school are shown in Table 3.

For completeness, we report in Figure 2 an overview of the dataset composition with respect to the school (horizontal axis) and the number of samples (vertical axis), divided by dropouts, in green, and the remaining, in blue. The results of Table 3 highlight a non-negligible variability between the results for each school and suggests that each school contributes differently to the predictive
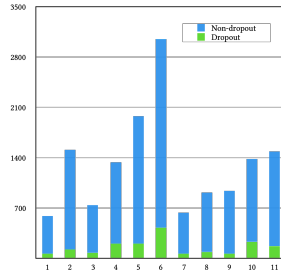
Fig. 2. Number of students per school. Green represents dropout students, blue represents the students which applied to the second academic year.

model. For instance, the results for schools 4, 9, and 10 are higher than those of schools 3, 7, and 8 and all of these schools show results that differ significantly from the general ones (Table 2), both for *basic + ALR* and *basic + ALR + CC*. In this case, the number of dropout samples for schools 4, 9, and 10 is 207, 66, and 231 examples — 504, in total — respectively, against the number of dropout samples for schools 3, 7, and 8 which is respectively of 76, 63, and 89 examples — 139, in total.

Table 3. Experimental results for each academic school: (*left*) RF model trained using *Basic + ALR* features; (*right*) SVM model trained using *Basic + ALR + CC* features.

School	Random Forest ($N = 1E^{+03}$)			SVM ($C = 1E^{-01}$)		
	ACC	**SENS**	**SPEC**	**ACC**	**SENS**	**SPEC**
1	0.61 ($\pm$0.05)	0.67 ($\pm$0.08)	0.61 ($\pm$0.06)	0.86 ($\pm$0.01)	0.99 ($\pm$0.01)	0.85 ($\pm$0.01)
2	0.74 ($\pm$0,03)	0.63 ($\pm$0.07)	0.74 ($\pm$0.03)	0.91 ($\pm$0.01)	0.84 ($\pm$0,01)	0.92 ($\pm$0.01)
3	0.45 ($\pm$0.04)	0.71 ($\pm$0.09)	0.44 ($\pm$0.04)	0.84 ($\pm$0.02)	0.73 ($\pm$0.01)	0.85 ($\pm$0.02)
4	0.71 ($\pm$0.03)	0.77 ($\pm$0.05)	0.70 ($\pm$0.03)	0.84 ($\pm$0.01)	0.93 ($\pm$0.01)	0.83 ($\pm$0.01)
5	0.68 ($\pm$0.03)	0.56 ($\pm$0.05)	0.68 ($\pm$0.04)	0.83 ($\pm$0.01)	0.91 ($\pm$0.01)	0.83 ($\pm$0.01)
6	0.58 ($\pm$0.03)	0.66 ($\pm$0.03)	0.57 ($\pm$0.03)	0.86 ($\pm$0.01)	0.88 ($\pm$0.01)	0.86 ($\pm$0.01)
7	0.49 ($\pm$0.09)	0.55 ($\pm$0.12)	0.49 ($\pm$0.10)	0.91 ($\pm$0.01)	0.90 ($\pm$0.03)	0.91 ($\pm$0.01)
8	0.60 ($\pm$0.03)	0.46 ($\pm$0.06)	0.61 ($\pm$0.03)	0.87 ($\pm$0.02)	0.87 ($\pm$0.05)	0.87 ($\pm$0.03)
9	0.80 ($\pm$0.03)	0.71 ($\pm$0.04)	0.80 ($\pm$0.04)	0.94 ($\pm$0.01)	0.93 ($\pm$0.01)	0.94 ($\pm$0.01)
10	0.44 ($\pm$0.04)	0.71 ($\pm$0.03)	0.41 ($\pm$0.04)	0.77 ($\pm$0.02)	0.94 ($\pm$0.01)	0.76 ($\pm$0.02)
11	0.61 ($\pm$0.02)	0.64 ($\pm$0.03)	0.61 ($\pm$0.02)	0.89 ($\pm$0.01)	0.83 ($\pm$0.01)	0.90 ($\pm$0.01)

5 Conclusion and Future Work

In this paper, we have presented an analysis of different machine learning techniques applied to the task of dropout occurrences prediction for university students. The analysis has been conducted on data available at the moment of the enrolment at the first year of a bachelor or single-cycle degree. The analysis made on the model performance takes into account the actual statistical composition

of the dataset, which is highly unbalanced to the classes. Considering predictions at the moment of enrolment increases the difficulty of the task (because there are less informative and available data since we cannot use data from the University careers of students) compared to most of the existing approaches. Despite these difficulties, this different approach makes it possible to use the tool in order to actively improve the student's academic situation from the beginning and not only to make predictions and monitoring during the academic career. On the other hand, we also performed a set of tests considering the credits obtained by a students after a certain period of time. As one can expect, this helps in largely improving the final performance of the model. This fact can be used by the institution to decide whether to act as early as possible, on the basis of the information available at enrolment time, or to wait for some more data in the first year thus obtaining more accurate predictions. In any case, the results obtained show that starting from data without any pedagogical or didactic value, our tool can practically help in the attempt to mitigate the dropout problem.

We designed the tool in such a way that the integration with other components can occur seamlessly. Indeed, we aim to extend it to a more general monitoring system, to be used by the University governance, which can monitor students careers and can provide helpful advice when critical situations are encountered. For example, if the tool predicts that for a new cohort of students enrolled in a specific degree program there are many possible dropouts, then specific support services (such as supplementary support courses, personalised guidance, etc) could be organised. We hope and believe that this can be an effective way to decrease the dropout rate in the future years and to avoid the phenomenon since the very beginning of the University careers of the students.

The first natural step in our work is the integration of our tool with other University services as described before. Next we would like to monitor the dropout frequency in the coming years in order to obtain some hint about the effectiveness of our tool. The outcomes of this analysis could guide us to improve the deployment of the tool — e.g. by using different, more robust strategies. To improve the model effectiveness it could also be useful to make predictions for different courses possibly within the same school, possibly integrating this with an appropriate definition of a similarity measure between courses. Another further development could be the inclusion of more data about student performances, for example by considering the results of activities done in Learning Management Systems (LMS) or Virtual Learning Environments (VLE) such as, for example, Moodle, Google Classroom, Edmodo, that could be used in the courses management and organisation. A limitation in our study is in the fact that the tool take advantage of sensitive data, so one has to be very careful with using the classifier, since there is no evidence of the model fairness — e.g., concerning the gender feature.

Finally, given the increasing attention gathered by deep learning models, we would like to extend our analysis in order to include these methods and consider several factors, such as: the depth of the network (e.g., the number of layers) the dimension of each layer, etc.

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