# Leveraging Machine Learning to Predict Academic Success: A Literature Review and Bibliometric Trend Analysis

### Abstract

### This study examines the application of machine learning (ML) for predicting academic success through a literature review and bibliometric trend analysis. Using the WOS, SCOPUS, T&F databases and the PRISMA framework, 184 articles were analyzed to identify key research themes, publication trends, and methodological advancements. Results reveal a growing focus on ML’s potential to improve educational outcomes, with an emphasis on predictive analytics and performance modeling. Despite these advances, challenges such as inconsistent metadata, limited database coverage, and overuse of ML-related terminology persist.

### Keywords

data mining; machine learning; academic success; educational analysis; systematic literature review; bibliographical analysis

## Introduction

In today’s complex world, predicting academic success has become a key focus in education research (Guanin-Fajardo et al., 2024) forming key research theme in learning analytics (Jovanović et al., 2021). As the demand for skilled professionals grows, understanding what helps students succeed is more important than ever. This has led to a surge in studies aiming to predict academic outcomes, such as graduation rates and the likelihood of student dropouts, or grade point average itself.

Student academic success is a key indicator of educational quality indicating students’ behaviours aiming at accomplishing academic goals with persistence in course and degree completition (Crisp et al., 2015; Eather et al., 2015). The wide range of factors at educational, psychological, environmental, and social level influence academic achievements (Tinto, 1975). York et al., (2015) define academic success as a sum of six core components: academic achievement, satisfaction, skill acquisition, persistence, learning objectives, and career success, though it is often reduced to grade point average alone (Alyahyan & Düştegör, 2020). This overlaps with what students perceive as academic success, i.e. a combination of outcomes including grades and more holistic outcomes of personal development and achievements (Lynam et al., 2024). Academic success varies significantly among individuals (Schillereff et al., 2023), and is shaped by a combination of personal factors (Acosta-Gonzaga, 2023) such as self-regulation, motivation, and self-esteem; environmental factors (Edgerton & McKechnie, 2023) like socioeconomic status, school environment, and peer support; and lifestyle factors (Kassaw & Demareva, 2023) including dietary habits, sleep, and stress management. Predictive models of student academic performance are using ….. (Umer et al., 2023).

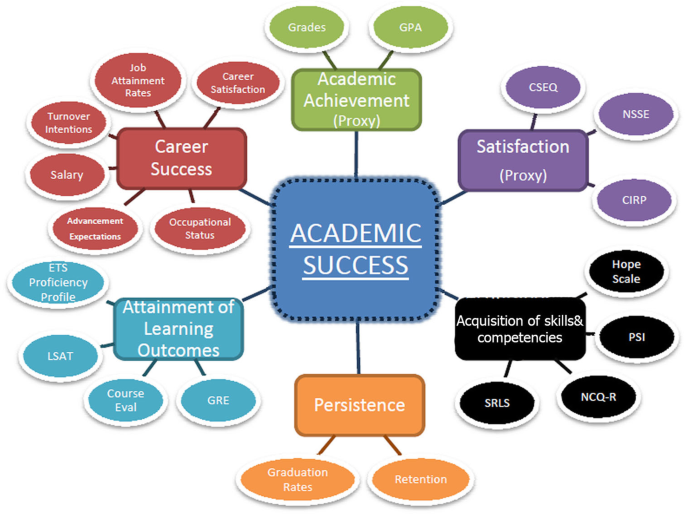


Figure 1: Definition of academic success (York et al., 2015).

Performance prediction has been studied as both a classification and regression problem, each with its own advantages and disadvantages (Alshanqiti & Namoun, 2020). A wide variety of statistical algorithms and techniques, including Machine Learning (ML), Statistical Analysis, and Deep Learning (DL), have been employed in the literature (Zhao et al., 2021). Predictive analytics in education, particularly within learning analytics, refers to the use of these techniques to analyze educational data and forecast student outcomes, such as academic performance or dropout risk. While ML focuses on pattern recognition and prediction using algorithms that learn from data, DL, a subset of ML, employs neural networks to model complex patterns. (KATERE METODE!!!)Statistical analysis, on the other hand, relies on traditional mathematical models to infer relationships. Comparing the performance of these algorithms is challenging due to the multisourced nature of the data (Zhao et al., 2021).

One of the most promising tools in this area of prediction is machine learning (Balaji et al., 2021; Jin, 2023). ML allows researchers to analyze large amounts of data to find patterns and make predictions, and in contrast to traditional statistical models, ML reduces bias, offers flexibility, and provides more robust models (Bregant et al., 2025; Hilbert et al., 2021). This technology can help identify students who might struggle, giving educators the chance to offer support early on. By using data like academic history and student behavior and, more recently, even online learning behaviors where open-access data is increasingly available (Liang et al., 2023), ML models can provide insights that help improve student outcomes. Figure 2 sketches, how Jin (2023) employed four ML algorithms for predicting academic success by accurately identifying the varying impacts of student, parent, and school efforts on exam performance. These techniques, alongside statistical and deep learning methods, form the backbone of predictive analytics in education, enabling more personalized and proactive interventions.

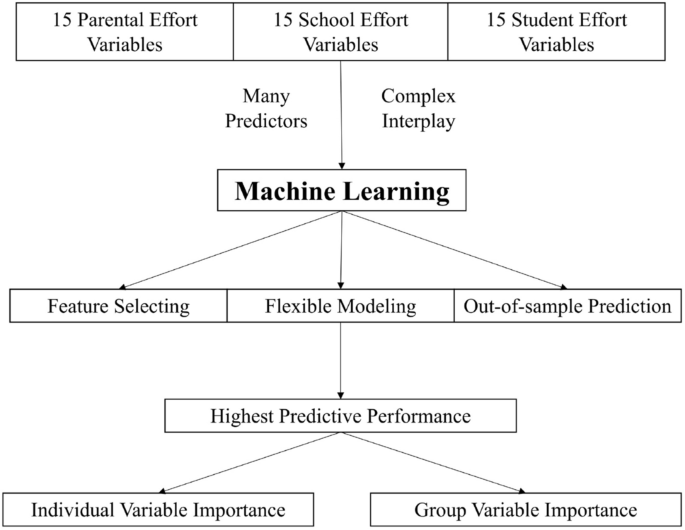


Figure 2: Example of machine learning modeling for student performance prediction by Jin (2023).

As we have seen, many studies (see Alyahyan & Düştegör (2020) section *Influential factors in predicting academic success*) have explored different factors that contribute to academic success, such as personal effort, family support, and the learning environment, and are summed in Table 1. These factors are crucial and have been widely researched, helping schools and educators develop strategies to support students.

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| Factor Category | Factor Description |
| Prior Academic Achievement | Pre-university data: high school background (i.e., high school results), pre-admission data (e.g., admission test). University data: semester GPA or CGPA, individual course letter marks, and individual assessment grades. |
| Student Demographics | Gender, age, race/ethnicity, socioeconomic status (i.e., parents' education and occupation), place of residence/traveled distance, family size, and family income. |
| Students' Environment | Class type, semester duration, type of program. |
| Psychological | Student interest, behavior of study, stress, anxiety, time of preoccupation, self-regulation, and motivation. |
| Student E-learning Activity | Number of logins, number of tasks, number of tests, assessment activities, number of discussion board entries, number/total time material viewed. |

Table : Grouping and description of the most influential factors on the prediction of students’ academic success (Alyahyan & Düştegör, 2020).

Most cited studies in the field use various algorithms such as logistic regression, decision trees, random forests, support vector machines, XGBoost, and ensemble methods, with logistic regression and random forest often yielding the best performance, as demonstrated by Cankaya et al., (2024); Jang et al., (2022), while ensemble methods like GLMnet, as highlighted by (Bertolini et al., 2021) and wrapper-based feature selection techniques combined with classifiers like k-NN and SVM, as seen in (Abdelkader et al., 2022), are also widely employed to enhance predictive accuracy and interpretability, particularly through explainable AI (XAI; methods and techniques that make the outputs of machine learning models understandable to humans, enabling transparency and trust) techniques such as SHAP and LIME.

Numerous review studies have already explored the application of ML in predicting academic success, as summarized in Table 2, where we analysed 19 review articles from WOS and Taylor and Francis databases. These reviews systematically analyze the methodologies, datasets, and ML techniques employed across various educational contexts. The reviewed studies employed various systematic review methodologies, with the most common being the Systematic Literature Review (SLR), often following Kitchenham’s guidelines or the PRISMA framework, or other, and some not specifying the approach. Other methods such as meta-analysis, bibliometric analysis, scoping reviews, and systematic mapping are underrepresented. In terms of prediction levels, the majority of studies focused on degree-level outcomes, including graduation likelihood and dropout risk, course-level performance prediction, year-level academic success, and exam-level assessments. Other levels of prediction include computational thinking assessments, and citation prediction. ML techniques were predominant across all studies, with the most frequently applied methods being decision trees (DT), random forests (RF), support vector machines (SVM), artificial neural networks (ANN/MLP), logistic regression (LGR), and Naïve Bayes (NB), demonstrating their widespread use in predictive analytics for student performance. Hybrid models, ensemble methods, and clustering techniques were also commonly used. Notably, some studies explored deep learning (DNN, RNN, CNN, LSTM, Transformers) and reinforcement learning (Q-Learning, SARSA), with many studies reporting high predictive accuracy. However, recurring gaps such as limited real-world implementation, ethical concerns, and the underutilization of clustering and reinforcement learning techniques are noted. Despite the extensive research, there is a noticeable absence of bibliometric analyses, which could provide deeper insights into research trends, publication patterns, and thematic developments in this field.

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| Authors, Year of publication, Title, Journal | Review methodology & No. of studies included and period (if not given, there were no strict timelines) | Level of prediction: degree level (obtaining a degree/graduation), year level, course level, exam level | ML or other prediction techniques | RQ, Findings & Gaps identified |
| Pelima et al., 2024; Predicting University Student Graduation Using Academic Performance and Machine Learning: A Systematic Literature Review;  IEEEAccess | SLR methodology based on Kitchenham’s guidelines; 70 journal articles (2018-2023). | Degree (graduation/dropout), year (at-risk students), course (performance), exam (test results). | SVM, RF, ANN/MLP, LR, k-NN. | RQ1: State-of-the-art EDM/EDA research. RQ2: Data sources & techniques. RQ3: Gaps & challenges.  High ML accuracy (~90%). LMS & SIS are key data sources. Academic, behavioral, and demographic data matter.  Data limitations, model interpretability, ethical concerns, limited real-world application. |
| Umer et al., 2023; Current stance on predictive analytics in higher  education: opportunities, challenges and future  directions; Interactive Learning Environments | SLR based on PRISMA guidelines; 40 journal articles (2008-2018) | Course (pass/fail, dropout risk), degree (graduation likelihood) | DT, RF, SVM, LGR, NB, KNN, Ensemble methods. | RQ1: Types of data used. RQ2: ML methods for student performance prediction. RQ3: Evaluation measures. RQ4: Challenges & limitations. RQ5: Future research directions.  LMS & SMS data are key sources. Pre-academic, demographic, and assessment data are strong predictors. ML models achieve high accuracy.  Lack of benchmark datasets, generalizability issues, small sample sizes, limited real-world implementation, ethical concerns in data use. |
| Shafiq et al., 2022; Student Retention Using Educational Data Mining  and Predictive Analytics: A Systematic  Literature Review; IEEEAccess | SLR based on PRISMA guidelines; 100 articles (2017-2021) | Student retention, dropout risk, academic success. | Supervised ML (RF, DT, LR, NB), DL (ANN, MLP), Ensemble methods, Unsupervised Learning (Clustering). | RQ1: Factors influencing student retention. RQ2: Learning Analytics approaches. RQ3: ML algorithms for retention prediction;  Traditional academic factors (grades, attendance) dominate prediction. Emerging factors: behavioral and educator-related attributes. Supervised ML is widely used;  Lack of benchmark datasets, limited generalizability, ethical concerns, imbalance in datasets, underuse of clustering methods. |
| Alalawi et al., 2023; Contextualizing the current state of research on the use of  machine learning for student performance prediction: A  systematic literature review; Engineering Reports | SLR using Kitchenham’s approach; 162 articles (2010-2022). | Degree (graduation/dropout), course (performance), assessment (exam results). | Classification (138 studies), Regression (25 studies), Clustering (9 studies). Most used: DT, RF, NB, ANN, SVM | RQ1: Goals of ML in predicting student performance. RQ2: Common ML methods. RQ3: Key features for prediction. RQ4: Feature selection techniques. RQ5: Learning environments where ML is applied. RQ6: ML tools and platforms used. RQ7: Actions taken for at-risk students;  Historical academic data (grades, LMS interactions) is the most used predictor. Supervised learning (classification) is the dominant approach. WEKA, Python, and R are the most used platforms;  Lack of studies on real-world interventions for at-risk students. Limited use of clustering techniques. Small datasets and generalizability issues. Ethical concerns in data usage. |
| Alyahyan & Düştegör, 2020; Predicting academic success in higher  education: literature review and best  practices; International Journal of Educational Technology in Higher  Education | SLR of key studies on data mining techniques for predicting academic success; 17 studies (2015-2020). | Degree (graduation likelihood), year (academic success per year), course (performance in a specific course). | Classification (DT, NB, SVM, ANN), Regression, Clustering. | RQ1: How is academic success defined and measured? RQ2: What are the key factors influencing academic success? RQ3: What ML techniques are used for prediction? RQ4: What are the best practices for applying data mining to education?;  Prior academic achievement and student demographics are the most influential factors. Supervised learning (classification) is the most used approach. Including university data improves prediction accuracy. Limited studies on interventions for at-risk students, lack of benchmark datasets, generalizability issues, underuse of clustering techniques. |
| Balaji et al., 2021; Contributions of Machine Learning Models towards Student  Academic Performance Prediction: A Systematic Review; Applied Sciences | SLR; 56 articles (filtered from 2700 initially considered). | Degree (graduation/dropout), course (performance), year (academic success per year). | DT, RF, NB, SVM, ANN, ensemble methods | RQ1: ML models used for predicting student performance. RQ2: Estimation methods & performance metrics. RQ3: Datasets and collection methods. RQ4: Features used for prediction. RQ5: Model comparisons for reliability;  ML models can accurately predict student performance. Ensemble models (32%) and Decision Trees (26%) are widely used. Accuracy, precision, recall, and F1-score are common evaluation metrics. Datasets include academic, demographic, and behavioral features;  Lack of benchmark datasets, limited real-world applications, feature selection inconsistencies, and generalizability issues. |
| Shafiq et al., 2022; Student Retention Using Educational Data Mining and Predictive Analytics: A Systematic Literature Review, IEEEAccess | SLR on student retention using EDM and Predictive Analytics; 78 studies (2015–2022). | Degree (graduation/dropout), year (academic progression and retention). | DT, RF, SVM, LGR, NB, ANN, Ensemble methods | RQ1: Factors influencing student retention. RQ2: ML models used for retention prediction. RQ3: Evaluation metrics and datasets used. RQ4: Challenges in retention prediction. RQ5: Future research directions;  Academic performance (GPA, attendance), behavioral data, and demographic factors influence retention. Supervised ML models (DT, RF, ANN) are dominant. LMS and SIS data are key sources,  Limited real-world implementation, small sample sizes, lack of standardized datasets, ethical concerns in predictive analytics. |
| Fahd et al., 2022; Application of machine learning in higher education  to assess student academic performance, at-risk,  and attrition: A meta-analysis of literature, Education and Information Technologies | SLR and meta-analysis using the PRISMA framework; 89 studies (2010–2020). | Degree (graduation/dropout), year (academic success per year), at-risk students, attrition prediction. | Supervised Learning (DT, RF, SVM, NB, ANN, LGR), Unsupervised Learning (Clustering, K-Means), Reinforcement Learning (Q-Learning, SARSA). | RQ1: ML models used for predicting student performance and retention. RQ2: Evaluation metrics applied. RQ3: Common datasets and features. RQ4: ML applications in at-risk student prediction. RQ5: Future research directions; Limited real-world implementation, lack of benchmark datasets, underutilization of clustering and reinforcement learning, ethical concerns in predictive analytics. |
| Namoun & Alshanqiti, 2020; Predicting Student Performance Using Data Mining and  Learning Analytics Techniques: A Systematic Literature Review, Applied Sciences | SLR using PICO and PRISMA frameworks; 62 studies (2010–2020). | Course (performance based on learning outcomes), program (graduation likelihood). | Regression models, Supervised Learning (DT, ANN, Naïve Bayes, SVM), Unsupervised Learning (Clustering), Hybrid Models. | RQ1: How is academic performance measured using learning outcomes? RQ2: What intelligent models predict student performance? RQ3: What are the key predictors of academic performance?  Student learning outcomes are strong indicators of academic success. Online learning activities, assessment data, and academic emotions are key predictors. Supervised ML models (Regression, DT, ANN) dominate.  Limited research on interventions for at-risk students, lack of standardized datasets, minimal use of clustering methods, challenges in real-world implementation. |
| Pektaş, 2023; A Systematic Analysis of Machine Learning Studies in Education, ICETC 2023: The 15th International Conference on Education Technology and Computers | Bibliometric analysis using keyword co-occurrence and network visualization. Data sourced from Web of Science; 628 studies (1979–2023) | Profiling and prediction (dropout risk, academic performance, admissions). Assessment (automated grading, feedback). Distance learning success. | Supervised Learning (DT, SVM, ANN), Unsupervised Learning (Clustering), NLP for text analysis. | RQ1: Trends in ML publications in education. RQ2: Key research themes in ML for education. RQ3: Gaps in current ML-based educational research;  ML is mainly used for profiling, assessment, intelligent tutoring systems, MOOCs, NLP applications, and distance learning prediction. Growth in publications since 2017;  Overemphasis on applications rather than ethical, pedagogical, and socio-cultural aspects. Limited theoretical frameworks guiding ML studies. |
| Rahul & Katarya, 2023; A Systematic Review on Predicting the Performance  of Students in Higher Education in Ofine Mode Using  Machine Learning Techniques, Wireless Personal Communications | SLR on predicting student performance in offline education using ML techniques; 109 studies (2010–2020). | Degree (graduation likelihood), course (performance), year (academic success per year). | Supervised Learning (DT, SVM, ANN, NB, LGR), Unsupervised Learning (Clustering, K-Means), Hybrid Models. | RQ1: Most used ML techniques for student performance prediction. RQ2: Datasets and features used. RQ3: Key evaluation metrics. RQ4: Trends in ML applications for student success;  Student performance is influenced by demographic, academic, and behavioral factors. Classification-based models (DT, RF, ANN) dominate. Accuracy, precision, and F1-score are commonly used metrics;  Lack of standardized datasets, generalizability issues, limited real-world implementation, underuse of clustering methods. |
| Sekeroglu et al., 2021; Systematic Literature Review on Machine Learning and Student  Performance Prediction: Critical Gaps and Possible Remedies, Applied Sciences | SLR using PRISMA framework; 176 studies (2010–2020). | Degree (graduation/dropout), course (performance), year (academic progression), at-risk students. | Supervised Learning (DT, RF, SVM, ANN, LGR), Unsupervised Learning (Clustering), Deep Learning (DNN, RNN), Hybrid Models. | RQ1: ML models used in student performance prediction. RQ2: Evaluation metrics and validation strategies. RQ3: Datasets and features used. RQ4: Standardization challenges in ML applications for education;  Supervised models dominate; ANN, SVM, and RF widely used. Online learning data improves prediction. Accuracy, F1-score, and ROC AUC are key evaluation metrics. Cross-validation is preferred for validation;  Lack of standardized datasets, generalizability issues, limited real-world applications, underuse of clustering methods, and ethical concerns in predictive analytics. |
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| J. Chen et al., 2022; A systematic review for MOOC dropout prediction from  the perspective of machine learning Interactive Learning Environments | SLR using the PRISMA protocol; 78 studies (2012–2022). | MOOC dropout prediction at the course level. | Supervised Learning (DT, SVM, ANN, NB, LGR), Deep Learning (CNN, LSTM, Transformers), Hybrid Models. | RQ1: Factors influencing MOOC dropout. RQ2: ML methods for dropout prediction. RQ3: Feature extraction techniques. RQ4: Key challenges in dropout prediction;  Clickstream and text-based features improve dropout prediction. Deep learning models show promising results but require large datasets. Accuracy, AUC, and F1-score are key evaluation metrics;  Interpretability issues in deep learning models, imbalanced datasets, lack of standardized dropout definitions, and challenges in modeling semantic learning trajectories. |
| Tan et al., 2024; The applications of machine learning in computational thinking assessments: a scoping review; Computer Science Education | Scoping Review using PRISMA and Arksey & O’Malley’s framework; 20 studies | Assessment of Computational Thinking (CT) at different levels (coursework, projects, and student interactions). | Regression (Linear, Lasso, Ridge), Classification (NB, SVM, DT, FR, ANN), Unsupervised Learning (Clustering, NLP), No reinforcement learning identified. | RQ1: Educational contexts of ML-based CT assessments. RQ2: Characteristics of datasets used. RQ3: ML models applied in CT assessments. RQ4: Aspects of CT measured;  ML is increasingly applied to automate CT assessments. CT competencies are mostly assessed in programming-related environments. Small datasets are a common limitation. Evaluation metrics include accuracy, precision, recall, and F1-score;  Lack of standardized assessment frameworks, small sample sizes, underuse of reinforcement learning, and limited application in non-STEM subjects. |
| Kim & Kwon, 2024; A systematic review of the evaluation in K-12 artificial intelligence education from 2013 to 2022, Interactive Learning Environments | SLR using Kitchenham’s framework; 36 studies (2013–2022). | Evaluations in K-12 AI education (cognitive & affective learning outcomes). | No direct ML prediction; focuses on AI education evaluation methods (knowledge tests, surveys, qualitative assessments). | RQ1: Evaluation contexts, types, and research designs in K-12 AI education. RQ2: Types of learning outcomes evaluated. RQ3: Evaluation methods used to measure AI learning;  Evaluations focus on AI literacy, ML concepts, and student perceptions. Most studies use surveys and knowledge tests. Informal learning environments (workshops, summer camps) dominate over formal classroom settings;  Overreliance on self-report surveys and summative assessments. Limited evaluation of emotional and behavioral aspects. Need for more formative assessments and studies in formal K-12 settings. |
| Pradana et al., 2023; Discussing ChatGPT in Education: A Literature Review and Bibliometric Analysis, Cogent Education | SLR and Bibliometric Analysis; 93 articles (2022-2023) | Not focused on student performance prediction but rather on ChatGPT’s role in education. Article features citation prediction | Gradient Boosting DT, SVM, XGBoost | RQ1: Research trends on ChatGPT in education. RQ2: Key contributors and topics. RQ3: Research gaps and future directions;  Growing interest in ChatGPT in education since 2022. Key themes include AI's role in teaching and learning. Gaps exist in studying challenges, teaching applications, and knowledge implications. |
| Buitrago-Ropero et al., 2023; Digital Footprints (2005–2019): A Systematic Mapping of Studies in Education; Interactive Learning Environments | Systematic Mapping Study; 46 articles (2005-2019) | School success/failure, learning analysis, dropout prediction, psychometric modeling | ML, Data Analytics, Big Data, Educational Data Mining (EDM), Learning Analytics | RQ1: Conceptions of digital footprints. RQ2: Educational activities and processes where digital footprints are used. RQ3: Resources for collecting digital footprints. RQ4: Technologies used for analyzing digital footprints;  Digital footprints are widely used for learning analytics, psychometric modeling, and predicting school success. There is limited research on digital footprints in MOOCs and ethical concerns about data privacy. |
| Nti et al., 2022; A Bibliometric Analysis of Soft Computing Technology Applications Trends and Characterisation in Educational Research: Africa, Africa Education Review | Bibliometric analysis using PRISMA model; 1,358 articles (1960-2021) | Student academic performance prediction, learning analytics, technology-enhanced education | ML in general, EDM, AI, Soft Computing | RQ1: Trends in SCTAE research in Africa. RQ2: Most impactful authors, papers, and institutions. RQ3: Intellectual framework of SCTAE knowledge base. RQ4: Key research areas and challenges in SCTAE;  Growth in AI and machine learning for education. Focus on student academic performance and learning analytics. Limited research on early education and AI-driven student assessments. Challenges in network infrastructure, educator training, and ethical AI use. |
| Gouseti et al., 2024; The Ethics of Using AI in K-12 Education: A Systematic Literature Review, Technology, Pedagogy and Education | SLR based on PRISMA methodology; 25 peer-reviewed studies (2010-2023) | Not focused on student performance prediction but on ethical concerns in AI use in K-12 education | AI-based adaptive learning, ITS, Emotion AI, AI-powered surveillance, ML in general | RQ1: Challenges relating to AI ethics in K-12 education. RQ2: Key responses to AI ethics in schools;  AI ethics is under-researched in K-12 education. Teachers and students lack awareness of AI ethics. Ethical concerns include bias, surveillance, privacy, emotional AI, and algorithmic decision-making. Need for AI literacy, ethics integration in curricula, and professional development for teachers. |

Table : Analysis of the 19 review studies in the WOS and Taylor and Francis collection. Legend of abbreviations: ANN (Artificial Neural Networks), AUC (Area Under the Curve), AI (Artificial Intelligence), CNN (Convolutional Neural Networks), CT (Computational Thinking), DL (Deep Learning), DT (Decision Trees), EDM (Educational Data Mining), EDA (Educational Data Analytics), F1-score (F1-score), GPA (Grade Point Average), ITS (Intelligent Tutoring Systems), k-NN (k-Nearest Neighbors), LGR (Logistic Regression), LMS (Learning Management System), LSTM (Long Short-Term Memory), ML (Machine Learning), MLP (Multilayer Perceptron), MOOC (Massive Open Online Course), NB (Naïve Bayes), NLP (Natural Language Processing), PRISMA (Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses), Q-Learning (Q-Learning), RF (Random Forest), RNN (Recurrent Neural Networks), ROC (Receiver Operating Characteristic), SARSA (State-Action-Reward-State-Action), SCTAE (Soft Computing Technology Applications in Education), SLR (Systematic Literature Review), SMS (Student Management System), SVM (Support Vector Machine), WEKA (Waikato Environment for Knowledge Analysis), XGBoost (Extreme Gradient Boosting).

Bibliometric analysis is a quantitative method used in systematic literature reviews to assess research productivity and impact (Lim & Kumar, 2024). Many seminal guides on this topic have been published, e.g., by Donthu et al., (2021); Lim & Kumar, (2024), focusing on performance metrics such as publication counts, citation analysis, authorship trends, keyword clustering, nomological networking, knowledge gaps, coverage of research, and so on. This technique leverages big data and software tools (e.g., *Gephi*, *VOSviewer*, or other already established statistics library tools such as *bibliometrics* package in *R*) to provide an objective overview of a research domain.

The present review study is focused on research about ML methods for predicting academic success and therefore opens the following research questions:

RQ1: What are the primary research themes and trends in the domain of academic success prediction using machine learning, based on the analysis of abstracts and keyword co-occurrence?

RQ2: How do publication patterns and cited reference counts vary over time in the research on academic success prediction?

## Methods

### Literature search

A preliminary analysis was conducted across *SCOPUS, Web of Science (WOS), Taylor & Francis* databases, and register *Digital Portal of the author(s)’ university*. A comparison between the databases and registries (using the tool specified in *data analysis* section) yielded a high degree of overlap in studies related to the prediction of academic success using machine learning techniques. Despite WOS having the fewest search results, it was chosen for the final bibliometric study due to it being the most widely used database of research publications and citations (Birkle et al., 2020). Articles from all selected databases and registries were accounted for in the review based on their relevance.

For the final report presented in this article, the final search in the WOS core collection was conducted in January 2025. The search string applied was: *("machine learning" OR "ML") AND ("academic success" OR "academic performance" OR "student success") AND ("educational sciences" OR "education") AND (“prediction”)*. As the PRISMA (PRISMA-P Group et al., 2015) flowchart in Figure 3 indicates, the search results in 292 matches, 108 of which were excluded from the bibliometric study.

Records removed *before screening*:

Records not articles (*n* = 92)

Records not in WOS (*n* =9051) – containing duplicates from other databases

Records published elsewhere than journals (*n* = 0).

Recors not in English (*n* = 0)

Records identified from\*:

Databases:

WOS (*n* = 292)

TAYLOR & FRANCIS (*n*=484)  
SCOPUS (*n* = 7782)

University registers (*n* = 785)

**Identification**

Records excluded\*\*

Duplicate records (*n* = 1)

Records not deemed suitable (*n* = 15) – not appropriate from statistical standpoint (selected timeline 2019 - 2024)

Records screened based on title, abstract and key words

(*n* = 200)

**Screening**

Articles included in bibliographical analysis

(*n* = 184)

**Included**

Figure 3: PRISMA diagram. PORAVNAVA!

Inclusion and exclusion criteria were applied to ensure the relevance and quality of the data. Articles were included if they were written in English, published between 2019 and 2024, and classified as peer-reviewed articles (excluding book chapters, conference papers, and non-peer-reviewed works). Both qualitative and quantitative studies were considered. Articles with expressions of concern or retractions were excluded to maintain the validity of the data. The years prior to 2019 and 2025 were omitted from the analysis for specific reasons: The results prior to 2019 were not included as the thematic focus during that year was still fairly new and in the early stages of progression (only 10 articles), making the data less relevant for current trends. Additionally, 2025 was excluded as the data from that year is still new and scarce, limiting its impact on the overall analysis (only 5 articles).

### Data analysis

The final selection of 184 articles was analysed using *Python* programming language to construct and visualize the bibliometric network. Despite *Python* already having a library *pyBibX* designated for bibliometric and scientometric analysis we chose to develop our own solution, which is openly available (Author, 2025), and can help future studies. The researchers analyzed eligible studies following a predefined coding protocol. The descriptive coding covered various study attributes, such as the publication year, title, keywords, abstract, and citation count, among others.

## Results

Firstly, we conducted an extensive qualitative literature review of the 10 most cited articles from a systematic literature search. The selected articles (available in repository (Author, 2025)), published between 2021 and 2024 and cited between 88 and 143 times, collectively explore the application of ML and educational data mining (EDM) across various educational contexts, including higher education, online learning, and assessment strategies. The studies primarily focus on early performance prediction, student retention, and self-reported satisfaction in online education. Predominantly categorized under "Education & Educational Research; Computer Science, Information Systems; Engineering, Electrical & Electronic; Mathematics; Environmental Sciences; and Artificial Intelligence" in Web of Science, these articles have been published by major publishers such as Springer (four articles), and MDPI (three articles). The research employs a variety of ML algorithms, including logistic regression, random forest, support vector machines, XGBoost, and ensemble methods, to tackle challenges such as identifying at-risk students, enhancing degree completion rates, and evaluating online learning experiences. To enhance interpretability, several studies leverage explainable AI (XAI) techniques such as SHAP and LIME, enabling educators and policymakers to derive actionable insights. Key findings underscore the effectiveness of ensemble methods and the importance of feature selection in improving predictive accuracy, with logistic regression and random forest frequently demonstrating strong performance. Conducted in diverse settings, including the USA, Spain, and international online platforms, these studies highlight the potential of ML to personalize educational interventions, mitigate attrition, and optimize instructional strategies, particularly in higher education and online learning environments.

For word cloud analysis, the *CountVectorizer* module was used in collaboration with *Latent Dirichlet Allocation* (LDA) to extract the most frequently used words from keywords and abstracts. Common English stopwords (e.g., “the”, “and”, “is”) were removed to minimize noise, along with words appearing in more than 95% of the documents and those appearing in fewer than two documents.

As depicted in Figure 4, the word clouds for each year reveal key themes and shifts in research focus over time. In 2019, terms such as "machine learning," and "data" were already prominent. However, the smaller number of distinct terms suggests that machine learning was still in its early stages of application in education, primarily serving as an analytical tool rather than a means for student success prediction. By 2020, the focus expanded with terms like "prediction," "student," and "performance" gaining prominence, indicating a growing interest in predictive analytics for academic success. In 2021, "machine learning" remained a central theme, but the presence of "classification" and "educational data" suggests an increasing focus on advanced modeling techniques. The years 2022 and 2023 saw further diversification of research topics, with terms such as "academic performance," "data mining," and "prediction" reflecting a more mature and data-driven approach to understanding student outcomes, especially from algorithm modeling point of view. By 2024, we can conclude a stabilization of research focus, suggesting that the foundational methodologies and applications have been firmly established. While incremental advancements continue, the overarching themes remain consistent. Overall, the progression of themes suggests a steady evolution from using machine learning as a general analytical tool to its more sophisticated application in predictive modeling and student performance assessment.

A collage of words

AI-generated content may be incorrect.

Figure 4: Word cloud analysis through the years.

As we can observe in Figure 5, the distribution of cited reference counts among the articles presents a notable variation, illustrating a substantial spread within the interquartile range. The majority of articles receive a moderate number of citations, but several outliers represent publications with significantly higher citation counts. This indicates that a few studies attract disproportionate scholarly attention. The observations corroborate the methodology used in WoS Citation Reports (*Web of Science Core Collection: Finding the Average Number of Citations per Article in a Journal*, 2022), where the average citations per item provide an essential measure of scholarly impact.

A diagram of a box plot

AI-generated content may be incorrect.

Figure : Cited reference counts. Averaged citated reference count was 47.2, with standard deviation 20.4.

As illustrated in Figure 6, the number of publications in this field has been steadily increasing over the years, reflecting growing interest within the academic community. However, it is important to note that not all publications explicitly use "machine learning" as a keyword, as depicted in Figure 6. This discrepancy suggests that a significant portion of the research may be related to ML concepts without directly referencing the term, which highlights the diverse terminology used in the field and the broad scope of research topics that intersect with ML methodologies.

A graph of a bar chart

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Figure : Number of publications per year with highlighted publications using “machine learning” as a keyword.

The growing popularity of the subject is also reflected in the increasing total number of citations over the years, indicating a rising impact and recognition within the academic community. As more research is conducted and published in this field, the cumulative citation count continues to climb, as seen on Figure 8. Interestingly, while the total number of citations has seen significant growth, the average number of citations per year has remained relatively consistent, as pictured in Figure 9. This suggests that while the volume of research output is expanding, the influence and reach of individual publications are maintaining a steady rate of scholarly engagement and reference over time.

A graph of a bar chart

AI-generated content may be incorrect.

Figure : Total citations.

A graph of blue bars

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Figure : Average citations per year.

## Discussion and conclusion

The application of ML in predicting academic success has emerged as a transformative area of research, bridging the fields of education, data science, and psychology. This study highlights the increasing role of ML in predicting academic success, as reflected in the growing volume of research and citations in recent years. The bibliometric trend analysis reveals a sustained interest in this field, with a noticeable shift toward more sophisticated data-driven approaches to educational analysis. The findings underscore the potential of ML models to provide actionable insights for improving student outcomes, identifying at-risk students, and enhancing the overall quality of education.

One of the key observations is the diversification of research themes over time. Early studies predominantly focused on basic predictive analytics and classification techniques. However, recent work has expanded to incorporate more complex models and interdisciplinary approaches, integrating insights from psychology (Burman et al., 2021), sociology (Davies et al., 2021), and others. This trend suggests a maturing field that is increasingly leveraging the power of ML to address multifaceted challenges in education. This reflects a growing consensus on the importance of predictive models in understanding and enhancing academic performance. Additionally, the rising number of publications and citations indicates a broader acceptance and recognition of ML's value in educational research. With rapid technological advancements, AI will undoubtedly play a crucial role in educational sciences (Istenič Starčič, 2019).

However, it is crucial to recognize that the terms "ML" and "AI" are increasingly overused and misused (J. J. Chen & Lin, 2024), often serving as buzzwords that lead to misconceptions about their capabilities and limitations. This loose application dilutes the precision of academic discourse, making it difficult to categorize and synthesize relevant research effectively. Many studies claiming to use ML or AI lack rigorous methodology, while others employing related concepts may not explicitly reference these terms due to varying terminologies. This inconsistency hampers research discoverability (Zhao et al., 2023) and risks overshadowing genuinely innovative work, highlighting the need for more standardized and precise terminology in academic publications.

Furthermore, the choice of databases significantly influences the scope and comprehensiveness of bibliometric analyses. Different databases, such as SCOPUS, WOS, Taylor & Francis, and specialized educational repositories, offer varying levels of coverage, indexing, and citation data (Mongeon & Paul-Hus, 2016), which can affect the identification of key studies and trends (Delgado‐Quirós et al., 2024). The discrepancies between databases highlight the importance of selecting appropriate sources to ensure a balanced and accurate representation of the research landscape.

In conclusion, this review underscores the significant impact of machine learning in predicting academic success and its growing prominence in educational research. The findings highlight the potential of ML to revolutionize educational practices, but also call for greater methodological rigor, standardized terminology, and interdisciplinary collaboration to fully realize its benefits.

## Limitations and future directions

While this study provides valuable insights into the application of ML for predicting academic success, several limitations must be acknowledged. Firstly, the reliance on bibliometric data from only the selected databases may introduce selection bias, as they might not capture the entirety of relevant publications, especially those published in regional or non-indexed journals. Similarly, the focus on specific keywords in the search strategy could have excluded studies employing alternative terminologies, thereby limiting the comprehensiveness of the analysis.

Another limitation pertains to the variability in the quality and consistency of metadata across different publications. Inconsistencies in keyword usage, authorship details, and citation practices can affect the reliability of bibliometric indicators. Furthermore, the dynamic nature of the field means that recent publications, particularly from 2025, may not yet have accumulated sufficient citations to accurately reflect their impact, leading to potential underestimation of their significance.

Future research should address these gaps by incorporating broader databases and more inclusive search strategies. Advanced text-mining techniques could uncover latent trends and themes, while longitudinal studies could track the evolution of ML applications in education over time.

Integrating bibliometric analysis with qualitative assessments would provide deeper insights into the relevance of key studies. Collaboration between researchers, educators, and policymakers is essential to ensure ML models are effectively applied to enhance educational outcomes and support student success.

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## Appendix