



## Review-Based Recommendation Systems for E-Learning: A Systematic Review of Deep Learning and Sentiment Analysis Approaches

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**Abstract:** E-learning has rapidly evolved, offering diverse digital content that often overwhelms learners when selecting appropriate materials. Traditional recommendation systems, typically driven by content or collaborative filtering, are limited in addressing the dynamic and emotional aspects of learner preferences. This study explores how integrating sentiment analysis with deep learning improves the personalization of e-learning recommendation systems. A systematic review of research published between 2018 and 2023 was undertaken to assess the key models, datasets, and evaluation measures adopted across multiple learning contexts. The findings indicate that deep learning architectures—such as convolutional, recurrent, and graph neural networks—enhance adaptability and accuracy in personalized recommendations. However, limited focus has been placed on classification frameworks, sentiment-based feedback mechanisms, and domain-specific taxonomies. This paper consolidates recent sentiment-driven strategies, identifies persistent challenges such as data sparsity, interpretability, and transferability, and highlights opportunities for domain-aware learning models. The study contributes a comprehensive understanding of deep learning-enabled sentiment analysis in e-learning and outlines future pathways for developing intelligent, learner-centric recommendation frameworks.

**Keywords:** Deep learning • Sentiment analysis • Review-based recommendation • Personalized learning • Artificial intelligence in education

### Introduction

The rapid growth of digital education platforms has transformed how learners interact with knowledge resources, leading to the emergence of intelligent systems that can tailor learning experiences. Recommendation systems (RS) play a crucial role in this transformation by assisting learners in identifying suitable materials based on their preferences and historical behavior (Akbar et al., 2022). These systems traditionally rely on collaborative and content-based filtering models, which analyze similarities among users and learning materials to generate recommendations (Bandyopadhyay and Thakur, 2020). While effective in basic personalization, these models often overlook deeper psychological or emotional cues that influence learner engagement.

Recent advancements in artificial intelligence (AI) and natural language processing (NLP)

have significantly strengthened the capabilities of RS. Sentiment analysis—also referred to as opinion mining—has emerged as a complementary component that interprets user emotions and feedback. By understanding the tone, polarity, and intensity of learners' opinions, RS can refine their suggestions beyond behavioral data alone. For instance, analyzing textual feedback on courses and instructors helps determine satisfaction levels, which can then inform future recommendations.

Deep learning (DL) has become an essential driver in this domain due to its capacity for automatic feature learning. Architectures such as convolutional neural networks (CNNs), recurrent neural networks (RNNs), and graph neural networks (GNNs) allow systems to process complex, nonlinear patterns in learner data. Unlike traditional models that depend on manually engineered features, DL models



capture hierarchical and contextual representations, enabling a more nuanced understanding of learner preferences and interactions. These advances have led to notable improvements in the accuracy and interpretability of recommendation outcomes (Dai and Xu, 2021; Dang et al., 2020).

However, despite substantial progress, significant challenges persist. Traditional recommendation systems struggle with issues such as data sparsity, the cold start problem, and limited domain adaptability. Furthermore, most existing surveys and reviews focus primarily on algorithmic efficiency rather than exploring the interplay between sentiment analysis and deep learning. Few studies have systematically examined how integrating emotion-driven insights with DL-based frameworks can improve learner engagement and recommendation precision (Liu et al., 2019; Yang, 2021).

Therefore, this study aims to bridge this gap by providing a consolidated examination of sentiment-aware deep learning approaches for e-learning recommendation systems. Specifically, it reviews models that combine emotional feedback with advanced neural architectures, evaluates their performance across datasets and domains, and highlights existing limitations in classification frameworks and contextual interpretation.

The major contributions of this review are as follows:

- It synthesizes current research integrating deep learning with sentiment analysis for e-learning personalization.
- It identifies key methodological gaps, including inadequate domain categorization and limited interpretability of model outputs.
- It proposes potential directions for developing adaptive, emotion-aware recommendation systems that enhance learner satisfaction and engagement.

Through this investigation, the paper seeks to advance the understanding of how sentiment-driven deep learning models can foster more

human-centric, intelligent, and scalable recommendation frameworks for digital learning environments.

### **Sentiment Analysis in E-Learning**

Sentiment analysis has become a crucial element in improving the adaptability of recommendation systems, as it incorporates users' emotional responses into predictive modeling (Alatrash et al., 2022). Alatrash et al. integrated sentiment cues with genre-based similarity within collaborative filtering to enhance personalization. Dang et al. (2021) utilized BERT-based preprocessing combined with hybrid deep learning techniques to analyze and interpret user reviews. In a related contribution, Dai and Xu (2021) proposed a multilingual review-aware deep recommendation model (MRRec) that enhances rating predictions across varied linguistic datasets.

Sentiment analysis, often referred to as opinion mining, applies natural language processing (NLP) methods to determine the emotional orientation of textual data and infer user perspectives (Dang et al., 2020; Lighthart et al., 2021). In e-learning settings, it serves to interpret learners' reactions toward course materials, instructional strategies, and overall teaching quality through the examination of qualitative feedback and reviews. Detecting positive or negative sentiments within this feedback enables educators and platforms to adjust course design, enhance engagement, and strengthen learner satisfaction.

As an interdisciplinary domain, sentiment analysis integrates concepts from machine learning, linguistics, and behavioural science to extract patterns from extensive text data. While its early applications centred on social media and e-commerce for analysing consumer opinions, recent research has expanded its scope to education, where student reflections serve as indicators of engagement and instructional quality (Tao et al., 2016; Zhou et al., 2013).

Advances in artificial intelligence and NLP have revolutionized data-driven evaluation



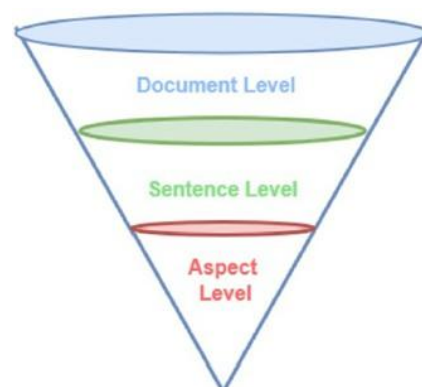
methods across multiple sectors, including education (Shaik et al., 2022; Zhong et al., 2022). Within academic environments, sentiment analysis enables institutions to assess learning management systems, teaching effectiveness, and overall course delivery by examining students' written feedback (Elfeky et al., 2020; McKinney et al., 2022). Beyond numerical scores, qualitative comments reveal emotional and cognitive dimensions of learning experiences, offering practical guidance for improving teaching methods and curriculum design.

In e-learning sentiment analysis, textual feedback is preprocessed through techniques like tokenization and feature extraction, then categorized as positive, negative, or neutral (Zhao et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2021). Since manual emotion labeling demands time and expertise (Liu et al., 2019), researchers have

**Figure 1** depicts these analytical levels, from broad document sentiment to fine-grained aspect evaluation.

introduced automated lexicon- and corpus-based annotation methods. Combined with AI-driven models, these approaches enable scalable interpretation of student feedback while reducing human involvement.

Artificial intelligence advances sentiment analysis by automating classification through machine learning, deep learning, and transformer models such as BERT (Acheampong et al., 2021; Zhu et al., 2021). These architectures capture subtle emotional cues and contextual meaning, supporting accurate estimation of learner satisfaction (Kuleto et al., 2021). Depending on the application, analysis may be conducted at the document, sentence, or aspect level to identify overall polarity or isolate elements—such as course content or instructional delivery—that require refinement (Ligthart et al., 2021).



**Figure 1. Different levels of sentiment analysis showing document-, sentence-, entity-, and aspect-level granularity used for identifying sentiment orientation in learner feedback.**

#### **A. Document Level**

Research on sentiment extraction within education remains scarce, leading many institutions to rely on generic analytical platforms. Dolianiti et al. (Dai and Xu, 2021) compared five commercial tools—IBM Watson, Microsoft Azure, OpinionFinder 2.0, Repustate, and SentiStrength—with four education-specific models developed using support vector machines (SVM) and k-fold cross-validation on annotated student forum datasets. The tailored models produced higher

accuracy in one course scenario. Likewise, Ahmad et al. (2018) utilized sentiment analysis to assess faculty performance, where SVM and Naïve Bayes classifiers trained on 5,000 comments achieved around 73% accuracy.

#### **B. Sentence Level**

Cosine similarity was utilized by Sivakumar and Reddy (2017) in order to evaluate the degree of semantic proximity between aspect words and student opinion phrases at the sentence level. After being cleaned up and



separated into seven unique categories, the dataset that was collected through the Twitter API was prepared for analysis. The classification of phrases was accomplished through the utilization of decision trees, support vector machines (SVM), and Naive Bayes algorithms. Additionally, part-of-speech tagging was employed to extract subjective expressions. According to the SentiWordNet lexicon, the improvement in sentiment polarity was much more pronounced when it was combined with Gradient Boosting Tree and Linear Support Vector Machine models.

This hybrid approach surpassed SentiStrength and SentiStrength-SE in identifying positive and neutral statements. Extending this work, Li and Lu (2017) introduced an entity-level model that associates named entities with their related sentiments to uncover implicit emotional cues within text.

### **C. Entity Level**

Student input on teachers, course materials, and content is crucial for judging educational quality. Yang (2021) identified instructor, topic, lesson, and curriculum using automated entity extraction. Entity-level sentiment analysis relies on Named Entity Recognition (NER) to identify and classify feedback text phrases representing people, organizations, and education.

Ding et al. (2018) developed SentiSW, an entity-level model that produces sentiment–entity pairings utilizing TF-IDF and Doc2Vec representations, demonstrating significant classification efficacy. Edalati et al. (2021) used Random Forest (RF), Support Vector Machine (SVM), Decision Tree, and deep learning algorithms to look at Coursera student reviews and find teaching-related entities and predict feelings. RF did the best job, with F1-scores of 98.01% for entity recognition and 99.43% for sentiment detection. Wehbe et al. (2021) advanced this trajectory by introducing a spatiotemporal sentiment framework for education-related Twitter data, amalgamating Named Entity Recognition (NER) with

Aspect-Based Sentiment Analysis (ABSA) to delineate entities alongside emotional patterns.

### **D. Aspect Level**

Aspect-Based Sentiment Analysis (ABSA) is a method that is widely used in research on educational sentiment. This method gives a thorough look into how people feel or think about things like teachers, materials, and tests. ABSA accurately interprets learner feedback by combining sentiment classification with topic modelling techniques like Latent Dirichlet Allocation (LDA), Latent Semantic Analysis (LSA), Non-negative Matrix Factorization (NMF), and Probabilistic Latent Semantic Analysis (PLSA) (Shaik et al., 2022).

Rosalind and Suguna (2022) used Aspect-Based Sentiment Analysis to find out how happy students were with their Coursera courses by using machine learning and subject modelling. Divided the course reviews down into sentences and then used both supervised LDA algorithms that are either completely or partially self-sufficient to find the parts. A tailored vocabulary helped with polarity recognition by showing positive feelings about learning components, labs, and career goals, and negative feelings about teachers, materials, and course fees. The maximum entropy classifier they created was able to predict multi-aspect sentiment with an accuracy of 80.67%. In their study, Nikolić et al. (2020) conducted phrase-level automated sentence analysis (ABSA) by employing support vector machines (SVM), cascade classifiers, and rule-based extraction approaches. It was revealed that the F-measures for negative mood were 0.94, while the F-measures for positive classification were 0.83.

Table 1 summarizes key studies employing AI-driven sentiment analysis at document, sentence, entity, and aspect levels within educational contexts.



**TABLE 1: Summary of studies applying sentiment analysis at different analytical levels in educational domains.**

| Analytical Level      | Representative Techniques                                                                                                                 | Primary Objective in the Educational Domain                                                                                             | Representative Studies                                                                                                                     |
|-----------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <b>Document Level</b> | Support Vector Machine (SVM), Naïve Bayes (NB)                                                                                            | Classify educational documents or feedback as expressing an overall positive or negative sentiment toward a given theme or context.     | Dolianiti et al. (2019), Ahmad et al. (2018)                                                                                               |
| <b>Sentence Level</b> | SVM, NB, Cascade Classifier, Rule-Based Approaches                                                                                        | Perform fine-grained analysis by examining sentiment polarity at the sentence level within educational reviews or learning reflections. | Sivakumar and Reddy (2017), Nikolic' et al. (2020)                                                                                         |
| <b>Entity Level</b>   | Gradient Boosted Trees, SVM, Named Entity Recognition (NER), TF-IDF, Doc2Vec                                                              | Detect and interpret opinions associated with specific entities (e.g., instructors, courses, or tools) mentioned in learner feedback.   | Yang (2021), Nikolic' et al. (2020), Ding et al. (2018), Li and Lu (2017)                                                                  |
| <b>Aspect Level</b>   | Latent Dirichlet Allocation (LDA), Random Forest (RF), SVM, Decision Tree, Convolutional Neural Networks (CNN), K-Nearest Neighbors (KNN) | Identify and evaluate positive or negative aspects of educational practices, methods, or resources.                                     | Rosalind and Suguna (2022), Edalati et al. (2021), Wehbe et al. (2021), Dehbozorgi and Mohandoss (2021), Dehbozorgi and Mohan- doss (2021) |

As shown in Table 1, different algorithms are utilized across sentiment analysis levels, with deep learning and hybrid approaches increasingly demonstrating higher classification accuracy in educational datasets.

#### APPROACHES FOR SENTIMENT ANALYSIS

Sentiment annotation involves assigning emotional polarity—positive, negative, or neutral—to textual elements such as documents, sentences, or phrases. At a finer level, it can capture specific emotional cues reflecting users' attitudes toward a service or feature. Within educational contexts, this process helps interpret student feedback on learning management systems, instructional design, and teaching quality, enabling institutions to refine pedagogy, predict outcomes, and enhance personalization.

The human annotation of feelings becomes challenging due to time and resource limitations as the volume of data escalates. Consequently, advancements in Artificial Intelligence (AI) and Natural Language Processing (NLP) have enabled the

implementation of automated procedures. These methodologies encompass lexicon-based, corpus-driven, machine learning, deep learning, and transformer-based techniques. Through the use of a human-in-the-loop system that included sixty annotators and six computational tools—CoreNLP, VADER, TextBlob, Glove+LSTM, LIME, and RoBERTa—Yeruva et al. (2020) conducted an evaluation of human and automated sentiment annotation. According to the findings of a correlation analysis, automated models often outperformed human annotators in terms of accuracy for large-scale text analysis. However, these models still benefited from minimal human oversight for contextual refinement.

#### A. Unsupervised Annotation Techniques

1) **Lexicon-based Approach:** Lexicon-based sentiment analysis employs predefined word lists—known as sentiment lexicons—that assign polarity scores (positive, negative, or neutral) to words or phrases (Catelli et al., 2022; Dolianiti et al., 2019). These methods analyze sentiment in an unsupervised way by



summing or averaging the polarity of key lexical elements such as adjectives (Hatzivassiloglou and McKeown, 1997; Taboada et al., 2006), adverbs (Benamara et al., 2007), verbs (Vermeij, 2005), and nouns (Neviarouskaya et al., 2009a).

Commonly used English sentiment lexicons include SentiWordNet (Baccianella et al., 2010), Opinion Finder (Wilson et al., 2005a), Bing Liu's Opinion Lexicon (Liu, 2012), MPQA Subjectivity Lexicon (Wilson et al., 2005b), Harvard General Inquirer (Stone et al., 1966), AFINN (Nielsen, 2011), SentiFul (Neviarouskaya et al., 2009b), VADER (Hutto and Gilbert, 2014), and TextBlob. These resources remain fundamental to rule-based sentiment analysis and serve as benchmarks for evaluating more advanced AI-driven techniques.

For the purpose of evaluating active learning models such as the flipped classroom (Maher et al., 2015) and lightweight team structures (Latulipe et al., 2015; MacNeil et al., 2016), Tzacheva and Easwaran (2021) utilized the NRC Emotion Lexicon (Ortony and Tumer, 1990; Mohammad et al., 2013) to analyze student feedback across emotional dimensions. These dimensions included joy, trust, fear, anger, and anticipation. Their study of the longitudinal relationship between 2015 and 2020 found that trust was the most prominent positive feeling throughout that time period. Roselind and Suguna (2022) created a Customized Sentiment Lexicon (CSL) that was modified for use in academic course assessments. This was done with the intention of improving upon previous lexicon-based methodologies. The researchers were able to reach a greater level of accuracy in determining the polarity of sentiment within educational reviews by comparing the polarity scores obtained from the Bing Lexicon and the CSL using a bag-of-words model.

Lexicon-based algorithms are useful for categorizing sentiments without supervision or manual annotation, which makes them good for vast amounts of educational data.

However, their dependence on a certain domain sometimes limits how they may be understood in context. This is because preset dictionaries may not be able to keep up with new words or words that are specialized to a certain field. This limitation has led to the creation of corpus-based approaches, which get sentiment information directly from how words are used in domain-specific text corpora.

2) *Corpus-based Approach*: A corpus refers to a structured text collection representing a specific domain or topic. In sentiment analysis, corpus-based methods infer word polarity through **contextual and statistical analysis**, examining co-occurrence frequencies and grammatical dependencies within large textual datasets. This technique extends sentiment lexicons by identifying **semantic relationships** among words across varying contexts. The fundamental idea is to compute the **semantic proximity** between a target word and sets of positive or negative reference terms to determine its polarity. Corpus-based models are able to turn generic lexicons into domain-sensitive sentiment resources that more effectively capture the linguistic and emotional expressions that are present in educational data (Alqasemi et al., 2017). This is accomplished by exploiting contextual evidence.

#### *B. Supervised Annotation Techniques*

Although lexicon- and corpus-based approaches effectively categorize student opinions, handling extensive textual feedback remains complex. **Supervised learning** overcomes this challenge by training models on **annotated datasets** to recognize sentiment categories automatically. These models learn **linguistic and semantic patterns** from preprocessed text, allowing them to classify or predict learners' emotional orientations and attitudes in educational feedback with higher accuracy and scalability.

1) *Machine Learning*: To automate the interpretation of student feedback, machine learning models are essential to supervised



sentiment categorization. In order to distinguish between positive, neutral, and negative feelings, Osmanoğlu et al. (2020) assessed university course reviews using a variety of classifiers, including logistic regression, decision trees, multilayer perceptrons, XGBoost, support vector machines, Gaussian Naïve Bayes, and k-nearest neighbours. The most accurate of them was logistic regression, which allowed for efficient course material improvement in subsequent semesters.

Lwin et al. (2020) introduced a hybrid feedback analysis framework that merged quantitative student ratings with textual reviews. Ratings were clustered using the K-means algorithm, and multiple classifiers—SVM, logistic regression, multilayer perceptron, and random forest—were employed for sentiment prediction. A Naïve Bayes model, trained on manually annotated feedback, effectively differentiated positive and negative comments.

Building on this, Faizi (2022) applied machine learning to analyze learner responses to YouTube educational videos. Among the tested algorithms—random forest, logistic regression, Naïve Bayes, and SVM—the SVM model yielded the highest accuracy: 92.82% with unigram–bigram and 92.67% with unigram–trigram features.

Kaur et al. (2022) advanced conventional sentiment classification by developing a hybrid framework that integrated random forest, logistic regression, and SVM models with the SentiWordNet lexicon-based approach. Across varying training–testing splits, the hybrid classifier achieved superior precision and consistency, outperforming the individual SVM model in sentiment prediction.

2) *Deep Learning*: Deep learning models have significantly advanced sentiment analysis by capturing intricate linguistic and contextual cues in student feedback. The researchers Yu et al. (2018) used a Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) to identify students who were

considered to be at danger of failing their classes. The CNN combined structured inputs, such as attendance and grades, with unstructured comments from 181 undergraduate students. The CNN model, trained on manually annotated data, achieved F-measures of 0.78, 0.73, and 0.71 across the 5th, 7th, and 9th weeks, outperforming the SVM baseline. Similarly, Sutoyo et al. (2021) applied a CNN-based framework to evaluate instructor performance, attaining 87.95% accuracy, 87% precision, 78% recall, and an F1-score of 81%. To improve emotional inference, Sangeetha and Prabha (2020) introduced a multi-head attention fusion model combining GloVe and CoVe embeddings within an LSTM network. Parallel attention heads processed sentence sequences while optimized dropout layers mitigated overfitting. The fusion model yielded higher accuracy in classifying positive, negative, and neutral sentiments than standalone attention or LSTM architectures.

3) *Transformer-Based Approach*: Recent transformer-based models, especially Bidirectional Encoder Representations from Transformers (BERT), have advanced sentiment analysis by learning contextual meaning in both directions of text. Dyulicheva and Bilashova (2022) employed a BERT-driven framework to examine student opinions and extract sentiment-bearing keywords. Through K-means clustering and cosine similarity applied to 300 Udemy MOOC titles, they organized the data into 14 clusters highlighting dominant emotional terms. The findings showed that students tended to express more negative perceptions of courses compared to instructors.

Li et al. (2019) enhanced transformer-based sentiment analysis through a lightweight BERT–CNN hybrid model applied to MOOC feedback. This framework merged BERT’s contextual embeddings with convolutional and self-attention layers, achieving a 50% reduction in parameters without sacrificing accuracy. The model delivered 92.8%



accuracy, with F1-scores of 95.2% for positive and 81.3% for negative sentiments, surpassing traditional lexicon-driven techniques while using only 61 million parameters.

### Deep Learning in Recommendation Systems

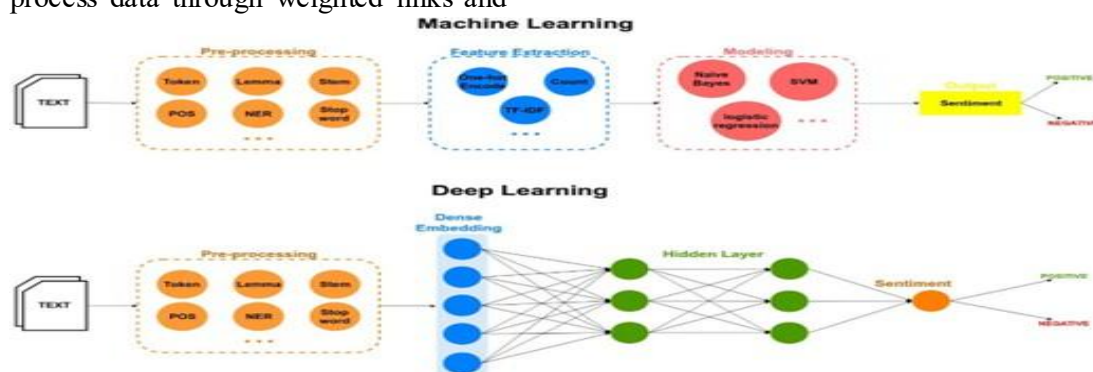
Deep learning models employ multilayered neural architectures that automatically learn complex feature hierarchies from data, removing the dependency on manual feature extraction typical in classical machine learning. Unlike traditional classifiers—such as Support Vector Machines (SVMs), Bayesian networks, or decision trees—which rely on predefined input features, deep networks derive abstract representations directly from raw data, improving adaptability and predictive precision. Automated hyperparameter tuning further refines model performance.

**Figure 2** contrasts sentiment classification in traditional and deep learning approaches, highlighting how layered representations capture subtle emotional cues more effectively. Through artificial neural networks, deep learning now underpins key advancements in image, speech, and language processing, extending its influence to personalized recommendation systems.

1) *Deep Neural Networks (DNN)*: A Deep Neural Network (DNN), as described by Aggarwal (2018), extends traditional neural architectures by integrating multiple hidden layers between the input and output stages. Each layer comprises interconnected neurons that process data through weighted links and

nonlinear activation functions. This hierarchical configuration enables the model to learn increasingly abstract representations from raw input. A standard DNN consists of an input layer for feature reception, several hidden layers for transformation, and an output layer that delivers the final prediction or classification. *Figure 2* depicts the general framework of a deep neural network.

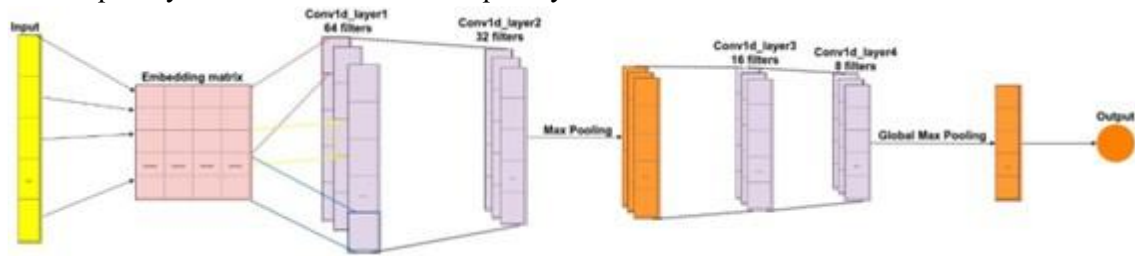
*Convolutional Neural Networks (CNN)*: In the domains of computer vision, recommender systems, and natural language processing, a Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) is frequently employed as a deep feed-forward model (Zhang et al., 2018). Its architecture comprises successive convolutional and pooling layers, followed by fully connected layers for final classification. Convolutional layers extract localized features from input data, whereas pooling layers reduce dimensionality and enhance resistance to noise and overfitting. *Figure 3* depicts a CNN framework in which the input embedding matrix passes through four convolutional and two max-pooling layers. The first pair, with 64 and 32 filters, capture essential patterns and are followed by pooling to minimize feature complexity. The subsequent layers, using 16 and 8 filters, refine these maps before reaching a fully connected layer that condenses the final feature representation into a single output node predicting two sentiment classes—positive or negative.



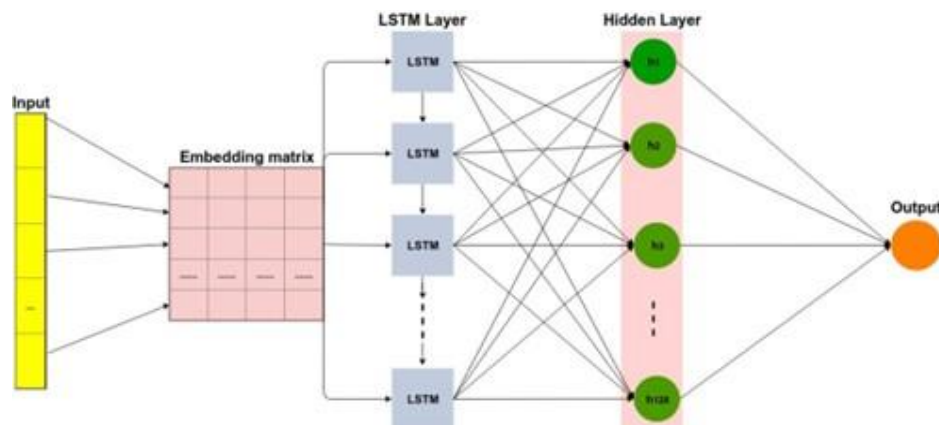
**Fig. 2:** Differences between two classification approaches of sentiment polarity: machine learning



(top) and deep learning (bottom). POS: Part of Speech; NER: Named Entity Recognition; TF-IDF: Term Frequency-Inverse Document Frequency.



**Fig. 3:** A convolutional neural network (CNN).



**Fig. 4:** A long short-term memory network (LSTM).

2) *Recurrent Neural Networks (RNN)*: A Recurrent Neural Network (RNN) (Britz, 2015) is structured to process sequential or time-dependent data through feedback connections that enable the retention of information across iterations. Unlike standard feed-forward models, RNNs maintain internal states that influence later computations, making them suitable for capturing contextual or temporal patterns in text.

An advanced variant, the Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) network (Hochreiter and Schmidhuber, 1996), addresses the vanishing gradient issue by incorporating gated memory cells that store information over long sequences. **Figure 4** presents a typical LSTM configuration in which input data are embedded into vector form and passed through an LSTM layer with 200 units. The resulting output feeds into a fully connected layer of 128 neurons, and a sigmoid activation generates a binary sentiment prediction—**positive** or **negative**.

### Challenges of Recommendation Systems

Several researchers have examined how **deep learning enhances recommendation systems**, improving both **personalization and predictive accuracy**. Rosa et al. (2022) utilized **feed-forward neural networks** to strengthen collaborative filtering mechanisms beyond conventional architectures. Similarly, Dai and Xu (2021) designed a **personalized learning resource recommender** employing an optimized backpropagation neural model. Dang et al. (2020) explored **session-based recommendation frameworks** that reduce dependence on long-term user histories while maintaining accuracy, showcasing the effectiveness of **GRU4Rec** on real-world datasets. In addition, Anantha and Bathula (2018) performed a cross-domain comparison of classical and deep learning-based systems. They highlighted the improved adaptability and performance demonstrated by neural techniques.

Even with the substantial progress that has



been made, recommendation systems that are based on deep learning continue to face severe restrictions. One major issue is **data sparsity**, where a lack of sufficient user-item interactions undermines model accuracy. The **cold-start problem** similarly restricts predictions for new users or resources due to limited historical data (Zhong et al., 2022; Hansel and Wibowo, 2022). Another recurring challenge is **overfitting**, in which models adapt too closely to training data, impairing their ability to generalize to unseen inputs (Merabet and Benmerzoug, 2022). Moreover, scalability concerns arise when processing increasingly large datasets (Li and Kim, 2021), alongside growing **ethical considerations**, including algorithmic bias and privacy protection.

*1) Comparison with Prior Reviews:* For the purpose of ensuring that it accurately reflects the most current developments in deep

learning-based recommendation systems, this review focuses on journal publications that have been subjected to peer review and published between the years 2018 and 2023. Earlier works, for example, **Batmaz and Kaleli (2019)**—which examined theses and conference papers from 2007–2017—and **Da’u and Salim (2020)**—who analyzed 99 studies from 2007–2018—provided broader yet less contemporary overviews. By focusing on a shorter and more recent timespan, this review emphasizes methodological rigor and analytical relevance. Furthermore, the use of **comprehensive search terms** enabled the inclusion of diverse studies across multiple domains. **Table II** summarizes key prior reviews and research works, outlining their publication venues, focus areas, employed deep learning approaches, and their correspondence with the present study.

**Table 2: Comparative Summary of Surveys and Studies on Deep Learning-Based Recommendation Systems**

| Category | Representative Studies     | Journal Index | Primary Application Domain | Key Deep Learning Focus     | Distinctive Aspect of the Review                                      |
|----------|----------------------------|---------------|----------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Survey   | Zhang et al. (2021)        | J1            | General                    | Deep Reinforcement Learning | Covers a broader range of DL paradigms beyond DRL approaches          |
| Survey   | Liu et al. (2019)          | J2            | General                    | Deep Neural Networks        | Expands the analysis to other network architectures and hybrid models |
| Survey   | Zhu et al. (2021)          | J3            | General                    | Graph Neural Networks       | Extends beyond GNN-based methods to include multiple DL families      |
| Survey   | Yang (2021)                | J4            | E-learning                 | Deep Learning               | Addresses a wider educational recommendation spectrum                 |
| Survey   | Ding et al. (2018)         | J2            | Point of Interest (POI)    | Deep Learning               | Broadens the discussion beyond POI-specific models                    |
| Survey   | Acheampong et al. (2021)   | J5            | General                    | Deep Neural Networks        | Encompasses DL strategies other than standard NN frameworks           |
| Survey   | Kuleto et al. (2021)       | J6            | Citation Analysis          | Deep Learning               | Incorporates diverse domain-oriented applications                     |
| Survey   | Dolianiti et al. (2019)    | J7            | General                    | Autoencoder-Based           | Synthesizes various DL architectures including autoencoders           |
| Survey   | Ahmad et al. (2018)        | J3            | General                    | Deep Learning               | Focuses on major works within a five-year horizon                     |
| Survey   | Sivakumar and Reddy (2017) | J8            | General                    | Deep Learning               | Highlights seminal contributions over a five-year period              |
| Survey   | Nikolic’ et al. (2020)     | J9            | Course                     | Deep Learning               | Explores multi-domain educational recommender approaches              |
| Study    | Yeruva et al. (2020)       | J10           | Trust-Aware                | Deep Learning               | Integrates trust metrics with hybrid DL models                        |
| Study    | Rosa et al. (2022)         | J11           | Service                    | Neural Collaborative        | Provides a broader cross-domain analysis                              |
| Study    | Li and Lu (2017)           | J12           | E-learning                 | Neural Networks             | Extends coverage to diversified learning environments                 |



| Category | Representative Studies          | Journal Index | Primary Application Domain | Key Deep Learning Focus | Distinctive Aspect of the Review                        |
|----------|---------------------------------|---------------|----------------------------|-------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------|
| Study    | Shaik et al. (2022)             | J13           | Session-Based              | Deep Learning           | Discusses several contextual and temporal use cases     |
| Study    | Anantha and Bathula (2018)      | J14           | General                    | Deep Learning           | Includes multiple recent and domain-specific studies    |
| Review   | Liu et al. (2022)               | J15           | E-learning                 | Deep Learning           | Synthesizes DL applications across educational contexts |
| Review   | Edalati et al. (2021)           | J1            | General                    | Deep Knowledge Graph    | Goes beyond embedding-based representation learning     |
| Review   | Wehbe et al. (2021)             | J2            | POI Recommendation         | Deep Learning           | Extends analysis beyond location-based recommendations  |
| Review   | Dehbozorgi and Mohandoss (2021) | J15           | General                    | Deep Learning           | Summarizes contemporary works from the last five years  |

*Journal Index: J1: Knowledge-Based Systems; J2: Neurocomputing; J3: ACM Computing Surveys; J4: Applied Sciences; J5: IEEE Transaction on Knowledge and Data Engineering; J6: Expert System with Application; J7: Frontiers of Computer Science; J8: International Transaction Journal of Engineering Management & Applied Sciences & Technologies; J9: Pacific Asia Journal of the Association for Information System; J10: International Journal of Embedded System; J11: SN Computer Science; J12: Advance in Modeling and Analysis B; J13: Artificial Intelligence Review; J14: Data; J15: Electronics.*

## Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to investigate the development of recommendation systems that are driven by deep learning, with a particular focus on how contemporary designs improve customization and flexibility. Despite the fact that its performance frequently changed depending on the features of the domain in question, neural collaborative filtering emerged as the approach that was most widely used across all domains. There were also other methods that were utilized regularly, such as matrix factorization, graph neural networks, and attention-based mechanisms. Additionally, sophisticated models such as convolutional neural networks (CNNs), deep reinforcement learning, knowledge graphs, and sequential frameworks were utilized.

There was a significant amount of

emphasis placed on social, session-based, and point-of-interest (POI) recommenders in the most recent research, which highlights the adaptability of these recommenders across a variety of applications.

After grouping deep learning approaches into groups and mapping their application across a variety of domains, this review brings together the findings that have been accumulated over the course of three years. In order to assist scholars in navigating the growing body of knowledge, this systematic taxonomy helps to clarify conceptual linkages. In addition, the incorporation of standard datasets and assessment criteria provides a point of reference for researchers who will conduct empirical research in the future.

This research, in general, contributes to a more in-depth knowledge of recent advancements in deep learning-based recommendation systems and highlights potential avenues for the construction of recommender models that are more predictive, scalable, and aware of their environment.

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