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**Can Augmented Reality (AR) applications enhance students' experiences?
Gratifications, engagement and learning styles**

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Can Augmented Reality (AR) applications enhance students' experiences?

Gratifications, engagement and learning styles

Abstract

Purpose

The use of augmented reality (AR) and experiential learning go hand in hand. Although AR learning opportunities have been previously explored, there is limited empirical research on the use of AR within higher education settings. Drawing from the Uses and Gratifications Theory (U>), this study investigates the use of AR for learning satisfaction and student engagement, while also examining differences in learning styles.

Design/methodology/approach

This study used experiments with higher education students in the UK to explore the use of AR as part of the learning experience. Data from 173 students who experienced AR as part of their learning experience was analysed using Partial Least Square analysis.

Findings

We found that hedonic, utilitarian, sensual and modality gratifications influence AR learning satisfaction and student engagement. Furthermore, we found differences between active and passive learners with regards to utilitarian (information seeking, personalisation) and sensual gratifications (immersion, presence) and effects on learning satisfaction.

Originality

This study developed and validated a U> framework incorporating different learning styles rooted in Kolb's learning cycle. Findings provide important implications for the use of commercial AR applications as part of the learning experience within higher education settings.

Keywords: *Augmented Reality; Kolb's experiential learning cycle; satisfaction; gratifications; engagement; U>*

Introduction

"What is fascinating about learning is that it cannot occur without experience (Morris, 2020, p. 1064). Fun - engaging – informative - are words used to describe augmented reality (AR) (Calbero-Almenara *et al.*, 2019; Moorhouse *et al.*, 2019). Compared to traditional learning approaches (e.g., static, 2D information), AR adds a new layer of interactive information through the digital overlay of content into users' immediate surroundings (Alimamy & Nadeem, 2021; Ghazali *et al.*, 2019; Uriarte-Portillo *et al.*, 2023). This is especially important

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3 in the current climate, as an increasing number of educators seek value adding learning tools
4 to create blended learning approaches. Covid-19 forced many institutions to move to offline
5 and blended teaching, reducing possibilities for student interaction (van der Keylen *et al.*, 2020;
6 Lemay *et al.*, 2021), sparking a shift and increased interest in technology-enhanced learning
7 tools to improve personalisation and create user-centered experiences (Iqbal *et al.*, 2022).
8 Although AR learning opportunities have been well discussed (e.g., Akçayır and Akçayır,
9 2017), there is a general lack of empirical research on the use of AR within higher education
10 settings. Recent studies call for further investigation of ARs potential as a learning tool in
11 higher education settings (e.g., Avila-Garzon *et al.* 2021; Sırakaya and Sırakaya, 2022),
12 especially in the field of business and law (Garcon and Acevedo, 2019). But are students
13 satisfied with current learning activities? Does AR enhance learning experiences? Further
14 research is necessary to understand higher education students' satisfaction and engagement
15 using AR as a learning tool.

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Originating in human communications research, the Uses and Gratifications Theory (U>) proposes “audiences consciously choose the medium that could fulfil their needs and that they are able to recognize their reasons for making media choices” (Shao, 2009, p. 8). U> is centred on the assumption individuals use media to gratify specific needs (e.g., enjoyment, socialising) (Raacke and Bonds-Raacke, 2008; Rauschnabel *et al.*, 2017) and has been used to explain why people choose to consume one media over another (e.g. Gallego *et al.*, 2016; Luo and Remus, 2014). As such, U> explores the social and psychological motives, and the consequences of pursuing these needs from a media use and consumption perspective (Katz *et al.*, 1973b). Thus, it is assumed psychological needs will result in specific expectations (behavioural intentions) of media usage (Chen, 2011).

To date, U> research has largely focused on the adoption of media in the traditional sense. However, learning techniques within the classroom are developing and new media is starting to become a staple part of interactive learning experiences (Engerman and Otto, 2021). Consequently, exploring the gratifications that are evoked as part of the learning experience is an important research endeavour. Interestingly, to the best of our knowledge, no previous research explores how commercial AR applications (e.g., IKEA Place, Wanna Kicks) influence the learning experience of business and marketing students. Rauschnabel *et al.* (2019) suggested that AR is an integral part of future marketing strategies. Consequently, the incorporation of commercial AR applications within higher education is considered an important step towards educating future managers, technology consultants and crucially addressing the skills gap by encouraging the development of skills and awareness of immersive

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3 technologies increasingly demanded by industry. Therefore, we propose to address the
4 following research question:
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8 **RQ1:** What gratification factors influence AR learning experiences in higher
9 education?
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13 In addition, studies confirmed the suitability of immersive technologies, such as AR, as
14 a tool to improve experiential learning (e.g., Lai *et al.*, 2009). One of the leading theories to
15 explore experiential learning experiences is Kolb's Learning Cycle (Kolb, 2014). However, to
16 date there has been limited investigation of the suitability of AR for different learning styles.
17 Although there are a broad range of studies exploring Kolb's learning cycle within the
18 education domain (e.g., Moorhouse *et al.*, 2019), as well as research on U> as part of the
19 immersive technology experience (e.g. Rauschnabel *et al.*, 2017), a holistic and all-
20 encompassing model integrating Kolb's learning cycle as part of a multigroup analysis and
21 U> has not yet been developed. According to Rueda *et al.* (2017, p. 1059), "understanding
22 how information technology (IT) resources create value in management education requires new
23 and more powerful theories". Therefore, we are exploring how different learning styles react
24 to and are satisfied by AR leading to the second research question:
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36 **RQ2:** How do learning styles influence the AR learning experience?
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40 **Theoretical Background**

41 *Uses and Gratification Theory*

42 Stemming from media research, the U> stipulates that consumers actively choose media
43 based on goal-orientated behaviours to meet their social and psychological needs (Katz *et al.*,
44 1973b). Compared to more traditional media research which considers audiences as passive
45 consumers of communication; U> is strongly rooted in the notion that consumers have
46 different individual needs and wants and that different media is suitable for different purposes
47 (Katz *et al.*, 1973b). Especially with the emergence and proliferation of technology (e.g., social
48 media, immersive technology), an increasing number of scholars recognise the suitability of
49 U> to explore consumers' media usage (e.g. Gan and Li, 2018; Ha *et al.*, 2015). Ruggiero
50 (2000) agreed that the increasingly interactive nature of technologies strengthens the
51 importance of U> as it emphasises its nature of the user being an active part of the
52 communication process. Ko *et al.* (2005), focusing within their study on the use of the Internet,
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3 revealed that U> is a motivational theory that provides one of the most relevant
4 perspectives on psychological and behavioral dimensions in mediated communication.
5 However, they also revealed that the majority of U> research relies on self-reported
6 measures which may not be effective to fully explore motivational behaviours and
7 consequences. Stafford *et al.* (2004), reiterated that an understanding of uses and gratifications
8 of new technologies is essential in order to assess consumers' uses of media, as well as
9 developing approaches that are more responsive to their needs. Early research on the sources
10 of gratifications differentiated between media content, media exposure and the social context
11 (Katz *et al.*, 1973a). However, with the emergence of technologies, "the [U>] approach
12 provides a nomological network for research rather than providing a predefined set of
13 constructs or factors" (Li *et al.*, 2015, p. 262). The nature of media has changed, according to
14 Sundar and Limperos (2013), with a stronger emphasis on interaction as part of the media
15 consumption. It is therefore essential to explore specific needs rather than solely categories of
16 needs, common in earlier studies (Rubin, 2009). As illustrated in Table 1, previous U>
17 studies have examined a variety of contexts and constructs. Researchers have explored
18 numerous gratifications, ranging from hedonic, social, utilitarian to technology, sensual and
19 symbolic. Interestingly, there have been some overlaps in terms of defining gratifications. For
20 example, whist Rauschnabel *et al.* (2017) classified enjoyment as an emotional gratification,
21 the majority of previous studies categorised it as a hedonic gratification. This demonstrates the
22 flexibility of the theory within different contexts and therefore applicability to study the
23 gratification factors for AR learning experiences.

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45 As can be seen from Table 1, the U> has been applied to various contexts including
46 AR, however research on the learning experience is limited. Traditional learning uses limited
47 media and thus, U> may have had partial applicability in this context in the past. The
48 emergence of new online and immersive teaching approaches raises questions regarding the
49 fulfilment of students' needs with regards to media consumption and usage. The exploration
50 of consequences of U> was an aspect often lacking from early research studies that focused
51 on simply exploring motivations of media usage (Rubin, 2009). Therefore, focusing on a new
52 medium such as AR and how this can be implemented as part of the higher education learning
53 experience through the use of relevant gratification factors can contribute to future theoretical
54 advancements, as well as practical changes to course design and development. In their recent
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3 meta-analysis of AR in STEM education, Sirakaya and Sirakaya (2022) outlined only 17% of
4 studies examined AR use in higher educational settings, instead commonly focusing on primary
5 and secondary settings. They called for further investigation in this setting, to understand AR
6 potential as an education tool. In addition, according to studies (e.g., Rauschnabel, 2018; Gan
7 and Li, 2018) future U> research should incorporate moderators in order to fully understand
8 differences in media adoption. Our study responds to this call for future research by conducting
9 a multigroup analysis to explore differences in learning styles to fully understand the
10 engagement of students through AR. Finally, as shown in Table 1, the majority of U>
11 research to date was based on surveys, hence findings are dependent on participants memories
12 of the experience of using the medium. In order to overcome this limitation, our study uses an
13 experiment and survey design whereby participants try the AR medium prior to completion of
14 surveys.

25 *AR learning experience*

27 Due to globally enforced population lockdowns and the resultant move to online digital
28 teaching, educators have encountered a number of challenges. A consequence of this is that
29 AR has gained much attention as a tool to improve learning experiences (Avila-Garzon *et al.*
30 2021; Sirakaya and Sirakaya, 2022; Uriarte-Portillo *et al.*, 2023), because of its ability to add
31 a layer of digital content to facilitate seamless interaction between reality and virtuality
32 (Rauschnabel, 2021). According to tom Dieck and Han (2022, p. 110) “AR integrates virtual
33 content in a user’s perception of the real world, whereas traditional media typically present
34 content separately from reality”. As discussed by Rauschnabel *et al.* (2022), the advancement
35 of AR capabilities and technologies will bring a stronger degree of local presence to the
36 experience according to the XR framework. AR has been proven to enhance the achievement
37 of learning outcomes and visualisation of information, by creating richer, more immersive
38 content (Chen and Wang, 2018; Sirakaya and Sirakaya, 2022). Specifically, this has also been
39 found to have a positive impact on learning motivation, interaction among learners,
40 satisfaction, levels of engagement (Akçayır and Akçayır, 2017; Chen and Wang, 2018) and
41 achievement (Sirakaya and Sirakaya, 2022). One advantage of AR over traditional teaching
42 materials is its ability to enable users to view phenomena not possible in the real world (Yang
43 *et al.*, 2018). Previous studies explore AR as a tool to improve learning experiences, for
44 example in chemistry, history (Lim and Lim, 2020) and mathematics (Cai *et al.*, 2019).
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Higher education students are mostly digital natives, having grown up with technology and consequently expect it to be integrated into all elements of daily life (Barak, 2018). Interestingly, common concerns regarding usability and unfamiliarity with new technologies have not been found to negatively impact the use of AR in education (Akçayır and Akçayır, 2017). For example, in a meta-analysis of studies between 2010-2018 Garzón and Acevedo (2019) reported a positive and moderate effect of AR on learning outcomes. Similarly, in a meta-analysis of AR in STEM subjects between 2010-2017 Ibáñez's and Delgado-Kloos (2018) found AR has a positive impact on students' conceptual understanding, motivation and engagement. In their recent meta-analysis, Sırakaya and Sırakaya (2022) confirmed AR positively improved learning achievements in STEM subjects. AR has also been proven to enhance the achievement of learning outcomes and visualisation of information, by creating richer, more immersive content (Chen and Wang, 2018; Wu *et al.*, 2013). As such, AR is reported to have a positive impact on learning motivation, interaction among learners, satisfaction and levels of engagement (Sırakaya and Sırakaya, 2022). Thus, AR can support pedagogical issues such as a “need for more class time, unsustainability in crowded classrooms” (Akçayır and Akçayır, 2017, p.8).

Kolb's experiential learning cycle

In stark contrast to traditional behavioural learning theories, experiential learning has been widely discussed in past decades with a strong emphasis on transforming experiences (Morris, 2020). One of the leading theories on experiential learning is Kolb's experiential learning cycle; rooted in earlier models of Lewin (1939), Dewey (1938) and Piaget (1970). Kolb's learning cycle consists of a number of characteristics: (1) learning is best conceived as a process, not in terms of outcomes, (2) learning is a continuous process grounded in experience, (3) learning is a holistic process of adaptation to the world, (4) learning involves transactions between the person and the environment, and (5) learning is the process of creating knowledge” (Moorhouse *et al.*, 2019, p. 407). Kolb's experiential learning cycle proposes that learning is a circular and ongoing process, whereby learners move from concrete experiences, reflective observations, abstract conceptualisations to active experimentations; however, the stage at which learners see themselves within the cycle is highly dependent on the specific learning situation. As shown in Figure 1, along the horizontal axis learning can range from active experimenters (pragmatic) to reflective observers (critical) depending on the learning experience. The vertical axis represents the perception continuum and ranges from concrete experience (contextually rich) to abstract conceptualisation (contextual specific) (Kolb, 2014).

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3 From these, four groups emerge: (a) Divergers (CE/RO): includes students with higher
4 imaginative and creative abilities to look at a situation through multiple perspectives and
5 solutions. (b) Assimilators (RO/AC): are those students with an ability to plan, organize, and
6 analyse systematically a variety of information. (c) Convergers (AC/AE): involves students
7 with the ability to solve problems and make decisions proficiently with past lessons. (d)
8 Accommodators (AE/ CE): are those students with active experimentation of learning that
9 apply its experience to solve new problems (Manolis *et al.*, 2013).

15 Previous studies incorporated the model into their research on online classes (e.g.
16 Baasanjay, 2013), AR (Huang *et al.*, 2016); AR museum experiences (e.g., Moorhouse *et al.*,
17 2019), virtual computer labs (Konak *et al.*, 2014) and business simulation games (e.g., Ahn,
18 2008, Bamford *et al.*, 2012). However, according to Morris (2020), whilst experiential learning
19 has the potential to strongly influence students' deep and contextual understanding, more
20 research is required in order to fully understand how highly immersive experiences can enhance
21 students' learning experiences. Hence, today's educators should also consider involvement,
22 engagement, challenges, problem solving, and collaboration all of which have been identified
23 as important learning experiences (Morris, 2020). In the context of the present study, we aim
24 to explore how AR influences learning experiences and the differences between different types
25 of learners. A previous study by Li *et al.* (2013) supported the use of Kolb's learning styles as
26 moderators in order to fully understand differences in learning experiences.

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38 *Please insert Figure 1 here*

41 **Hypotheses development**

42 *Hedonic gratifications and learning satisfaction*

43 According to Elson *et al.* (2014), hedonic gratifications are defined as users' immediate
44 response of pleasure as part of an experience. Hedonic gratifications have been widely used in
45 U> research ranging from enjoyment, passing time, fantasy, escapism, gaming and
46 entertainment (e.g., Gan and Li, 2008; Li *et al.*, 2015). However, classification of these hedonic
47 gratifications depends on the context of study. In previous AR studies, enjoyment and flow
48 have been found as common hedonic gratifications by Rauschnabel (2017; 2018a; 2018b),
49 which was therefore adopted for the context of our study.

56 Cheng and Jiang (2020) supported that hedonic gratifications influence user satisfaction
57 of artificial intelligence (AI) applications; but this was found to be less significant than for
58 instance utilitarian gratifications. This shows that gratification factors are highly context-
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3 specific. For example, within the context of travel review websites, Wang and Li (2019) found
4 that hedonic gratifications are the strongest predictor of user satisfaction; highlighting the
5 difference between gratifications for AI (computer driven) and websites (consumer driven).
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7 Therefore, we propose:
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10 **H1:** High hedonic gratifications have a positive influence on learning satisfaction.
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13 *Utilitarian gratifications and learning satisfaction*

14 Human motivations can be divided into extrinsic and intrinsic (Rauschnabel, 2018a).
15 Utilitarian gratifications are part of an extrinsic motivation and users' desire to gain utilitarian
16 benefits such as convenience or the seeking of enhanced information. The concept is part the
17 consumer behaviour literature that emphasises on consumers' and users' desire to obtain value
18 as part of the experience (Chiu *et al.*, 2012). In addition, Cheng and Jiang (2020) defined
19 utilitarian gratification as the fulfilment of individuals' utility needs, including information
20 seeking. The positive influence of utilitarian gratifications on satisfaction has been confirmed
21 within previous studies (e.g., Cheng and Jiang, 2020). Especially in the education and learning
22 context utilitarian gratifications play a significant role in the satisfaction formation process. For
23 instance, according to Thongpapanl and Ashraf (2011), personalisation is an essential concept
24 as it reduces complexity for users and therefore enhances satisfaction. In line with Chiu *et al.*'s
25 definition of utilitarian value, personalisation is an extrinsic motivation that enables users and
26 consumers to receive enhanced and tailored information which is an important part of learning
27 experiences. In addition, information seeking is one of the key aspects of education and is
28 becoming increasingly important as a result of blended learning and online learning (El-
29 Maamiry, 2017); and hence can have a strong effect on student satisfaction. Therefore, we
30 propose:
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45 **H2:** High utilitarian gratifications have a positive influence on learning satisfaction.
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48 *Sensual gratifications and learning satisfaction*

49 "Augmenting people's senses with computational support can improve the ability to perceive
50 information and perform tasks" (Kim and Dey, 2015, p. 9587). Studies have explored sensor
51 augmentation and the extent to which individuals are able to sense aspects of the environment
52 that are not normally perceivable (e.g., Kim and Dey, 2015). This study adopted the term
53 sensual gratifications used by Rauschnabel (2018a), which refers to changes in an individuals'
54 senses based on changes in their immediate environment. Within the learning context, Morris
55 (2020, p. 1074) claimed "when learners are immersed, with their body, in a contextually rich
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3 experience, sensory-motor information becomes embodied in memory traces [and therefore] it
4 is thought that embodiment is essential for deep conceptual understanding and for human
5 cognition to develop at the highest level”. Therefore, immersion and presence have strong
6 effects on AR learning satisfaction. Immersion is an important concept within AR research;
7 referring to users’ deep involvement within an experience. Presence is “a psychological state
8 or subjective perception in which even though part or all of an individual’s current experience
9 is generated by and/or filtered through human-made technology, part or all of the individual’s
10 perception fails to accurately acknowledge the role of the technology in the experience”
11 (Themelis *et al.*, 2020, p. 261). The influence of presence and immersion on satisfaction has
12 been widely proven within the business and education context (e.g., Bulu, 2012; Zhu *et al.*,
13 2019). Further, Rauschnabel (2018b) proposed that sensual gratifications influence user
14 reactions (e.g., satisfaction) and therefore, we propose:

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26 **H3:** High sensual gratifications have a positive influence on learning satisfaction.

27 28 29 *Modality gratifications and learning satisfaction*

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31 Sundar and Limperos (2013) proposed that due to the emergence of technologies, from more
32 traditional media to new media, U> research needs to consider new gratifications in order
33 to account for changes in behaviours. According to Lin *et al.* (2017), modality gratifications
34 refer to the concept of different technologies revoking different responses in users. Modalities
35 address “specific motivations of curiosity” (Vaterlaus *et al.*, 2019, p. 601). Among these
36 modalities, the novelty and coolness factor of latest technologies were proposed to influence
37 user behaviours (Sundar and Limperos, 2013). Novelty has been generally described as a lack
38 of familiarity or experience with a given technology from the user’s point of view (Hopp and
39 Gangadharbatla, 2016). According to Wells *et al.* (2010), the novelty factor, its newness and
40 freshness, is a key characteristic of any new innovation and technology. This is understood to
41 strongly influence attitudes and adoption behaviours (Wells *et al.*, 2010). Especially in
42 technologies such as AR (Song *et al.*, 2019). The novelty factor has been found to be the
43 strongest in initial interactions with a new technology and tends to decrease with continued
44 usage of technologies and innovations (Hopp and Gangadharbatla, 2016). Especially with
45 regards to AR and its limited use for learning purposes, the novelty factor is considered a key
46 consideration in terms of creating satisfying experiences. In the context of the present study,
47 we believe that the novelty factor of using AR applications contributes to students’ satisfaction.
48 Therefore, we propose:
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5 **H4:** High modality gratifications have a positive influence on learning satisfaction.
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9 *Learning satisfaction and engagement*

10 Satisfaction is a leading indicator of technology adoption, acceptance and behavioural
11 intentions (Huang *et al.*, 2017; Wixon and Todd, 2005); and one of the most important factors
12 in the field of marketing according to Dash *et al.* (2021). According to Papacharissi and Rubin
13 (2000), communication satisfaction is an important outcome that relates to the fulfilling of
14 expectations within U> research. Recently, Jessen *et al.* (2020) conducted a study on the
15 potential of AR and found that customer engagement through AR leads to a greater anticipated
16 satisfaction and increased behavioural intentions. This was confirmed within different business
17 marketing (e.g. Huang *et al.*, 2017; Jung *et al.*, 2015) and learning studies (Liaw, 2008; de
18 Melo Pereira *et al.*, 2015). Within the education context, learning satisfaction was found to
19 particularly influence behavioural intentions within e-learning contexts. According to Pham *et*
20 *al.* (2019, p. 9), “student satisfaction is always one of the university’s most important goals”
21 and therefore it is essential to explore how different learning techniques contribute to learning
22 satisfaction, which in turn creates strong behavioural intentions.
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25 Another important construct within the digital education domain is engagement, which as a
26 behavioural intention within technology adoption research has so far received limited attention.
27 There have been various definitions for student’ engagements using terms such as involvement,
28 motivation, connectedness, experience and the creation of interest (Groccia, 2018). As part of
29 the student experience, engagement is a crucial factor as it was found to lead to improved
30 learning outcomes (Rueda *et al.*, 2017). Skinner *et al.* (2008) motivationally conceptualised
31 student engagement and differentiated between behavioural and emotional engagement. It was
32 revealed that “engagement predicts students’ learning, grades, and achievement test scores;
33 over the long term, it predicts patterns of attendance, retention, graduation, and academic
34 resilience” (Skinner *et al.*, 2008, p. 765). Another study that explored engagement within the
35 context of AR applications for science heritage found that satisfaction with AR applications
36 led to an increased engagement with science heritage content (tom Dieck *et al.*, 2018).
37 Considering the importance of satisfied learning experiences on the engagement of students,
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56 **H5:** Learning satisfaction has a positive influence on student engagement
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Kolb learning stage moderation

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Experiential learning has the potential to influence students understanding, however, more research is needed to comprehend how immersive experiences contribute to an enhancement of students' learning (Morris, 2020). Hence, assessing the role of different types of learners is crucial for educational purposes, especially when adopting immersive AR experiences (e.g., Huang *et al.*, 2016, Moorhouse *et al.*, 2019). In line with prior literature (Li *et al.*, 2013) we used Kolb's learning stages as a moderator in our model. The Kolb experiential learning framework consists of two axis: active experimenters to reflective observers, horizontally, and, concrete experience to abstract conceptualisation, vertically (Kolb, 2014). Li *et al.* (2013) found that learners in the divergent stage moderates the relationship between international experience and cultural intelligence. Hence, we argue the role of Kolb's model moderating our framework:

H6: Kolb's learning model moderates the impact of gratifications to learning satisfaction and students engagement.

Please insert Figure 2 here

Methods

Study design

We delivered seminars and conducted surveys with students in higher education to analyse the proposed model. We received ethical approval prior to conducting this study and students were informed that their participation was entirely voluntary and that there were no pressures/consequences nor academic benefits in terms of grades or relationships with the unit leader if they decided not to participate.

As part of the study design, the researchers conducted online guest seminars with business and management university students in which they were tasked to explore different AR applications as part of the teaching activity. The guest seminars took place in eleven different undergraduate and postgraduate units to introduce students to AR. Each group from each unit was provided with one AR session. The aim of these seminars was to explore how the use of actual AR applications adds to the delivery of traditional seminars, facilitating an interactive online learning approach. Students were instructed to download the AR applications prior to the seminar to allow for a smooth running of the session. Sessions lasted 60 minutes and included an introduction to AR, various use cases, opportunities for businesses, marketing and branding as well as students hands-on experiences with the Ikea Place app, Wanna Kicks (AR shoe try-ons), Specsavers (AR virtual glasses try-on) and BBC Civilisations AR. Students explored

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3 these applications for around 20 minutes as part of the seminar activities. These applications
4 were chosen due to their relevance to the course material, and crucially to showcase a range of
5 different AR uses, including both AR apps and desktops-based experiences.
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10 *Measures and data collection*

11 Measurement items were measured on a five-point Likert scale from strongly disagree to
12 strongly agree and were adapted from previous research (see Table 4). To explore students'
13 learning style, the reduced Kolb's learning cycle was taken from Manolis *et al.* (2013) using a
14 seventeen-item scale (see Table 5). Additionally, profile questions were asked categorically as
15 shown in Table 2. Eleven seminars were delivered and a total number of 173 students
16 completed the Qualtrics survey between December 2020 and March 2021. There was an equal
17 distribution between male (49.7%) and female (50.3%) participants. The majority of
18 participants were undergraduate students (73.45), between the ages of 18 to 30 (84.4%) (see
19 Table 2). Data was collected from students studying within the business and management
20 disciplines. Surprisingly, quite a large percentage of students (60.7%) had no previous AR
21 experience (including Pokémon Go which was discussed within the seminar).
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32 *Please insert Table 2 here*
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36 **Results**

37 This section shows the three steps of the main findings of this study. We start presenting the
38 Confirmatory Factorial Analysis (CFA) procedures, followed by the Structural Equation
39 Modelling (SEM) analysis and hypothesis tests, and finally, we explore differences and
40 similarities in this model when comparing learners' groups.
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44 We have used the Partial Least Square Structural Equation Modelling (PLS-SEM) to
45 analyse all these steps through SmartPLS software version 3.3.3. This technique has been
46 chosen because of the number of parameters in our model, the goal of predicting key constructs
47 toward learning satisfaction and students' engagement, and the exploratory nature of this
48 research (Hair, Ringle and Sarstedt, 2011, Hair, Matthews, Matthews & Sarstedt, 2017). We
49 proceed with a correlation analysis to check the association and directions of construct
50 relations. According to Table 3, the constructs present a positive correlation among them.
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58 *Please insert Table 3 here*
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Confirmatory Factorial Analysis

As the items came from prior studies, we ran a CFA to assess the contributions of each item to the constructs as the first step. As suggested by prior research (e.g. Hulland, 1999), we did not include items with loadings below 0.7. Following this procedure, only one item (Novelty 4 - It was an unusual experience) has been removed from our model. After removing that variable, the model found a representative number of respondents per item (173 respondents divided per 36 items = 4.8 respondents per item) according to suggested by experts (5 respondents per item) (Hair, Black, Babin and Anderson, 2019).

After this purification procedure, we found satisfactory Cronbach's alpha (Alpha), Composite Reliability (CR) and Average Variance Extracted (AVE) indicators (see Table 4). Results suggest values higher than expected by prior literature (Hair, Black, Babin and Anderson, 2019), being >0.7 , >0.7 and 0.5, respectively. Furthermore, the convergent validity has been measured by Average Variance Extracted (AVE) of which values higher than 0.50 indicate a good degree to which a construct explains the variance of its items (Fornell and Larcker 1981). The AVE found values from 0.609 to 0.824. Also, discriminant validity presents higher values than correlation among other constructs (see Table 3), suggesting a distinguished measurement feature among constructs when assessed by cross-loading criteria (Henseler, Ringle, Sarstedt, 2015).

Please insert Table 4 here

Next, we assessed the model fit according to suggestions from prior literature (Benitez *et al.*, 2020) through Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) and discrepancy of the squared Euclidean distance (d_ULS) indicators. While SRMR shows .091 (ideally <0.080 but acceptable <0.10) (Henseler *et al.*, 2014), d_ULS indicates a value of 21.986 with upper bound of confidence 28.781 ($<$ bootstrapped HI 95% of d_ULS) (Dijkstra and Henseler, 2015). This reveals an acceptable model fit.

Structural Equation Modelling

After purifying our model, we proceed to the next stage of data analysis. This section presents results related to the inferential analysis by using PLS-SEM. We have used second-order items to measure hedonic, utilitarian, sensual and modality gratifications. According to Figure 3, all second-order constructs follow positive and significant relationships.

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3 Our results indicate a positive effect of Hedonic gratifications on learning satisfaction
4 (loading= 0.389, p-value=0.000), when measured by enjoyment and flow constructs. It
5 provides empirical evidence to support our first hypothesis (H1: Hedonic gratifications have a
6 positive influence on learning satisfaction). Similarly, when measured by information seeking
7 and personalisation, utilitarian gratification appears to influence learning satisfaction positively
8 (loading= 0.257, p-value=0.002). This result supports our second hypothesis (H2: Utilitarian
9 gratifications have a positive influence on learning satisfaction).
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15 The third hypothesis analyses the relationship of sensual gratifications and learning
16 satisfaction. The immersion and presence constructs were used to measure sensual
17 gratifications. Against our expectations, our study shows a negative effect of sensual
18 gratification on learning satisfaction (loading= -0.248, p-value=0.001). Therefore, according
19 to this result, we found support to reject the third hypothesis (H3: Sensual gratifications have
20 a positive influence on learning satisfaction).
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26 The fourth hypothesis tests the relation between modality gratifications and learning
27 satisfaction, when measured by novelty. Our results indicate that higher modality gratifications
28 lead to increased learning satisfaction (loading= 0.429, p-value=0.000). From this, we support
29 our hypothesis (H4: Modality gratifications have a positive influence on learning satisfaction).
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33 Our results also suggest that higher learning satisfaction is associated with higher
34 students' engagement (loading= 0.752, p-value=0.000). Therefore, it provides support to
35 confirm the fifth hypothesis (H5: Learning satisfaction has a positive influence on
36 engagement). Finally, the R squared (R^2) are presented in the constructs. As shown, they reveal
37 a higher explanatory power of dependent variables reaching values from 0.561 to 0.880.
38 Particularly, these results are higher than expected by studies in the Social Science field and
39 similar to customer satisfaction and loyalty research areas (Hair, Hult, Ringle, and Sarstedt,
40 2014).
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46 Finally, we included three control variables to analyse variances in the dependent
47 variable, named as gender (male and female), AR experience (low or high), and students' level
48 (undergraduate, postgraduate, MBA). A new model has been created with dependent and
49 control variables only, and as we did not perceive any statistical difference among control
50 variables, therefore, these results similarly apply for gender, AR experience, and students'
51 level. After that, these results were aggregated into Figure 3.
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Multigroup analysis

We also proceeded with a multigroup analysis to explore similarities and differences among different learning styles based on Kolb's experiential learning cycle. Firstly, we ran an Exploratory Factorial Analysis (EFA) to identify main factors in our data. Kolb's model considers four types of learning styles; however, our data suggests only two factors with Eigenvalues greater than 1 as pointed out by prior studies (Hayton, Allen and Scarpello, 2004). Hence, we classified them as Active learner and Passive learner. While Active learners involves the Accommodators (AE/CE) and Divergers (CE/RO) styles of Kolb's learning model, Passive learners are formed by Assimilators (RO/AC) and Convergents (AC/AE) styles. The grouping learning styles has been also perceived in prior literature as well (e.g., Manolis, 2013).

Please insert Table 5 here

Considering two groups - active and passive learners, we identified in our sample the trend of each respondent regarding their predominant learning style. In the sequence, we proceeded with the multigroup analysis. The multigroup analysis is used to compare differences between groups in the same sample and explore differences in group-specific estimates (e.g., loadings, path coefficients) (Mathew, 2017). The following table compares path coefficients of both groups and checks statistical differences.

Please insert Table 6 here

From the analysis it becomes clear that there are similarities between both groups in most relations. However, a significant difference was found in the relation from sensual gratification to learning satisfaction. This relation is perceived negatively in both groups, however, we found statistical support to confirm the negative effect on learning satisfaction for passive learners only. This reveals that sensual gratifications (immersion and presence) reduce learning satisfaction for passive learners. What could be potential reasons for this? We assume that passive learners do not like to be involved in these kinds of pedagogical activities (e.g., immersive experiences), so once it requires the exposition of these students, it reduces their satisfaction. Particularly, this explains the reason for the third hypothesis rejection, as students' learning style is an important characteristic to consider when measuring learning satisfaction attributes. In addition, we found a slight difference in the relation of utilitarian gratifications

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3 towards learning satisfaction between groups. We found support to confirm only the positive
4 effect of passive learners on learning satisfaction. It suggests that higher utilitarian
5 gratifications (information and personalisation) increase the learning satisfaction of passive
6 learners. Conversely, active learners appear to not require these features as an input to enhance
7 their learning satisfaction. Therefore, we found partial support to accept hypothesis 6, where
8 different learning styles appear to have similarities in terms of gratifications, learning
9 satisfaction and engagement for immersive experience.
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17 **Discussion and Conclusion**

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19 Our paper has been designed to make a contribution that is both rigorous and relevant
20 (Hodgkinson and Rousseau, 2009), by considering both a theoretical and applied problem when
21 formulating the research focus and positioning the contributions via the implications stated
22 (Nicholson *et al.* 2018). According to Nicholson *et al.*'s (2018) conceptual framework our
23 paper makes an incremental and revelatory contribution around key outputs and implications
24 aligned to the developed themes. Therefore, given the increased recognition and exploration of
25 AR applications and their potential in learning environments the study aimed to address two
26 research questions;
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32 **RQ1:** What gratification factors influence AR learning experiences?

33 **RQ2:** How do learning styles influence the AR learning experience?
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38 The first of these, RQ1, has been addressed through the creation of a number of hypotheses:
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41 *Hypothesis 1:* Hedonic gratifications have a positive influence on learning satisfaction.

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43 The results indicate that this is indeed the case and supports the work of Wang and Li's (2019)
44 research into satisfaction with travel review websites. They found specifically that hedonic
45 gratification is a strong predictor of user satisfaction. Interestingly, Nelson *et al.* (2014) and
46 their work on determinants of player experience in digital games identified hedonic
47 gratifications are defined as the user's immediate response of pleasure as part of an experience.
48 There is perhaps then a temporal element to the gratification and satisfaction linkage, in
49 addition to the context specific nature of the experience. Of course, elements of enjoyment and
50 flow are often cited as common hedonic gratifications, for example as per the work of
51 Rauschnabel (2018b) exploring AR smart glasses and the attempt to create a gratification
52 framework.
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3 *Hypothesis 2:* Utilitarian gratifications have a positive influence on learning satisfaction.

4 This hypothesis was also supported when measured by information seeking and
5 personalisation. Regarding the first of these points, El-Maamiry (2017) explored the
6 information seeking behaviour of higher education students and determined it to be
7 increasingly important as a result of blended learning and online learning. Regarding the
8 second point, according to Thongpapanl and Ashraf (2011) and their research into online
9 retailers, reported that website content personalisation is essential to reduce complexity and
10 enhance satisfaction. Is there then perhaps an element of design priority - for form to follow
11 function (Gellerman, 1990)?
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20 *Hypothesis 3:* Sensual gratifications have a positive influence on learning satisfaction.

21 This third hypothesis was actually rejected by the results. In constructing the hypothesis, we
22 tried to explore the relationship of sensual gratification and learning satisfaction. Interestingly,
23 there was a negative effect of sensual gratification on the reported learning experience. In
24 adopting the term sensual gratification coined by Rauschnabel (2018a) we sought to assess
25 variations in student senses based on changes in their immediate environment. There is
26 obviously something very interesting to explore here, as identified by Themelis *et al.* (2020)
27 who, in their work exploring the uses of video conferencing to support online learning and
28 teaching sought to define aspects of the psychological state and subjective perception. We
29 therefore propose this as an interesting area for future research.
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40 *Hypothesis 4:* Modality gratifications have a positive influence on learning satisfaction.

41 Our results indicated that higher modality gratifications led directly to increased learning
42 satisfaction. In testing the relation between modality gratification and learning satisfaction we
43 sought to test our belief that the novelty factor of using AR applications contributes directly to
44 student satisfaction. This builds on the work of Wells *et al.* (2010) who examined the role of
45 novelty of IT innovation adoption. From our research, there is a strong linkage to the
46 perceptions identified by Sundar and Limperos (2013) who sought to explore the uses of the
47 internet and aspects of gratification. Their research moved the debate forward by identifying
48 out-of-date perceptions regarding gratification, and that concepts informed by older media
49 needed challenging. They clearly identified that the novelty and coolness factor of up-to-date
50 technologies influenced user behaviour. However, a word of caution from Hopp and
51 Gangadharbatla (2016) proposed in their work on augmented reality advertising (ARA), that
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whilst the novelty factor is strong with initial interactions of new technology it tends to decrease with continued usage.

Similarly, RQ2 was explored through the creation of two hypothesis:

First, we tried to explore if AR learning satisfaction has a positive impact on student engagement in general before moving on to testing individual learning styles.

Hypothesis 5: Learning satisfaction has a positive influence on engagement.

The fifth hypothesis was supported in as far as higher learning satisfaction appeared tangibly associated with greater student engagement. This is supported by the work of tom Dieck *et al.* (2018) who explored visitor engagement with AR applications at science festivals and found that satisfaction with AR applications lead to increased engagement with science heritage content. Furthermore, Jessen *et al.* (2020) reported that AR is clearly emerging as a strategic experience design tool; driving creative customer engagement through greater anticipated satisfaction and increased behavioural intentions. Finally, Pham *et al.* (2019), when exploring e-learning service quality in education, stated the obvious but necessary goal, that student satisfaction is most important for universities and that it was therefore essential to be innovative with learning techniques to increase satisfaction. They suggested that this had the potential to increase aspects of loyalty amongst the student body. An interesting aspect of causal additionality through the implementation of technology transfer and adoption.

A final element to consider is use of multigroup analysis that attempted to explore similarities and differences amongst learning styles based on Kolb's (2014) experiential learning cycle. This was explored through the final hypothesis:

Hypothesis 6: Kolb's learning model moderates the impact of gratifications to learning satisfaction and student engagement.

According to Kolb, learners move through experiences, reflective observation, abstract conceptualisation to active experimentation. Importantly, he identified that the stage learners see themselves at within the cycle also has an impact. Our research indicates that only two factors were apparent, active and passive learners. Of these, it was evident that for passive learners sensual gratifications (immersion and presence) reduce learning satisfaction, and that higher utilitarian gratifications (information and personalisation) increase learning satisfaction. Conversely, active learners appear to not require these features as an input to enhance their

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3 learning satisfaction. According to Morris (2020), who performed a systematic review and a
4 revision of Kolb's model, only having an experience is not enough; specifically in education
5 we must consider involvement, engagement, challenges, problem-solving et cetera. Li *et al.*
6 (2013), in their work on cultural intelligence and learning styles, supported the use of Kolb's
7 theory. We do not disagree, but do recommend that more work is needed here to develop the
8 concept along the lines outlined by Morris (2020), with regards to AR enhanced learning
9 experiences.
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16 17 *Empirical/Theoretical contributions*

18 Agerfalk (2014) suggested that rather than claiming a number of direct theoretical
19 contributions, papers should perhaps consider discussion of the empirical contribution and to
20 link them to possible implications for theory. In our paper, we proposed and tested a model on
21 the gratification factors (c.f. Wang and Li, 2019) that influence students' AR learning
22 satisfaction and engagement. AR has received limited attention within the context of higher
23 education research and particularly the use of commercial AR applications to gratify students'
24 wants and needs and consequently providing satisfying and engaging learning experience has
25 been unexplored (c.f. Garcon and Acevedo, 2019). This study supported four gratifications
26 within the AR learning context including hedonic, utilitarian, sensual and modality; providing
27 future U> research (c.f. Rauschnabel *et al.*, 2017) with a roadmap of implementing
28 gratifications within the learning context. Second, this study used a different approach to the
29 majority of U> papers (for instance in Table 1) by using a second-order approach of
30 gratifications through reflective measurements. In doing so, it allows amplification of the
31 measurement of each gratification construct and explains key items accordingly. Third, this
32 study added modality as a gratification which in recent years has only received limited attention
33 as part of theoretical approaches (c.f. Lin *et al.*, 2017; Sundar and Limperos, 2013).
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46 However, due to the novelty of using commercial AR applications for learning and
47 education (c.f. Hopp and Gangadharbatla, 2016; Sundar and Limperos, 2013; Wells *et al.*,
48 2010); the modality gratification was in fact one of the strongest gratification factors within
49 our model. Fourth, our study conducted a multigroup analysis using Kolb's (2014) experiential
50 learning styles as a foundation. Agerfalk (2014) emphasised the importance of empirical
51 contributions to advance theory of the future. In the context of our study, the combination of
52 Kolb and U> has not been explored prior to this research and thus provide an important
53 empirical contribution. Findings have shown that different learning styles (active vs. passive)
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3 have significant differences with regards to gratification factors and their influence on learning
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8 *Practical implications*

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10 As a first practical implication of this study, we believe this study provides a strong case for
11 using commercial AR applications as part of unit design and delivery within higher education
12 settings. This fulfils the recent gap identified by Avila-Garzon *et al.* (2021) and Sırakaya and
13 Sırakaya (2022) calling for further investigation of ARs as a learning tool in higher education
14 settings. Technological innovations have long been shown as powerful tools for active learning
15 experiences and this study proves the use of commercial AR as an enhancer of the learning
16 experience, for both active and passive learners. This lends itself to collaborations between
17 industry and academia with regards to designing AR enabled course materials. For higher
18 education institutions, this encourages the design of enjoyable and interactive materials which
19 result in high learning satisfaction and student engagement. For industry, this provides an
20 opportunity for brand recognition, acquisition of future employees' through engagement and
21 the potential of the development of new target markets. Therefore, businesses are advised to
22 work hand in hand with higher education institutions by delivering guest seminars using the
23 latest AR technologies in order to capitalise from the findings of this study. In doing so, this
24 will improve learning experiences, as well as provide real-life examples to business and
25 management students. This approach could be particularly valuable for courses such as
26 apprenticeships degrees, whereby universities work hand in hand with employers to explore
27 the effect and impact of their digital solutions. In addition, higher education institutions are
28 advised to more actively use and develop AR applications in order to foster experiential
29 learning. Our study has shown that there are some differences between active and passive
30 learners with regards to the gratifications they receive and the influence on learning
31 satisfaction. Therefore, universities and application developers should consider different
32 learning styles and requirements when developing and implementing AR as part of the
33 curriculum. While highly immersive applications which provide escapism were found to be
34 attractive for active learners, passive learners required a provision of information and
35 personalised approaches to learning. This study helps understand why and how students use
36 AR applications and provides education providers with the understanding for developments of
37 effective digital learning experiences.
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Limitations and future research

Irrespective of the contributions identified, this study holds its own limitations. Since this study examined learners in business and management disciplines, it is suggested future research should extend to include other disciplines such as medicine and chemistry, where visualisation of complex information (e.g., anatomy, molecular structures) is an even more integral element to the learning experience. In future it would be interesting to examine the impact of AR on learning satisfaction in these contexts, and whether the unique nature of the course materials elicits differences in terms of learning satisfaction comparing different cohorts of students. One limitation of the present study is that data only lends itself to two categories of learners, specifically active and passive. Therefore, we propose future research to explore differences among all four categories in Kolb's experiential learning cycle. This would provide important insights into how students at different phases of the learning cycle would react and respond to the use of AR. In addition, cultural differences may affect the adoption of AR as part of the learning experience. Considering that this study has been conducted in a UK higher education institution further research is advised to explore the model in other cultural settings. Another limitation results from the self-reported measures used to collect data from participants. Considering the link between commercial applications and the enhancement of the learning experience explored in this study, future research is recommended to explore the influence of students' learning experience on the behavioural intentions to engage with brands and businesses. Also, we do recommend further research to explore the impact and suitability of scales adopted in AR studies (for instance, five, seven, nine and eleven-points Likert scales). Finally, it is highly anticipated that the future of the metaverse will bring challenges and opportunities in various sectors (Dwivedi et al., 2022). New research will be needed to explore the creation of engaging, escaping, and immersive learning experiences. Future research is advised to explore this new and innovative way of learning using a U> perspective.

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Tables

Table 1. Previous U> Research

Study	Media	Gratifications (constructs)	Methods/ Sample	Moderating Effect/Control Variables
Gan & Li (2018)	WeChat	Hedonic (Enjoyment, Passing time) Social (Social interaction, social presence) Utilitarian (Self-presentation, Information documentation, Information sharing) Technology (media appeal)	Survey, PLS/ 297 students	No
Ha et al. (2015)	Social media	Cognitive Hedonic Integrative Social Interactive	Survey, PLS/ 641 social media users	No/Age, Gender
Hossain (2019)	Social media	Not classified into gratification categories (Enjoyment, Passing time, Information seeking, Self-presentation, Social presence, Social interaction)	Survey, SEM/ 241 users	No/No
Huang & Hsieh (2011)	Online games	Not classified into gratification categories (Entertainment, Sociality)	Mixed methods, SEM/ 251 gamers	No/Gender, playing intensity
Ibanez-Sanchez et al. (2022)	AR marketing	Hedonic (entertainment, escapism, passing time) Utilitarian (convenience, curiosity) Social (interactivity, sense of belonging) Personal (trendiness, compatibility)	Mixed methods, PLS/ 251 users	No
Li et al. (2015)	Online games	Hedonic (Enjoyment, Fantasy, Escapism) Social (Social interaction, social presence) Utilitarian (Achievement, Self-presentation)	Survey, SEM/ 3919 gamers	No/ Gender, Age
Papacharissi, & Rubin (2000)	Internet	Not classified into gratification categories (Interpersonal utility, passing time, information seeking, convenience, entertainment)	Survey, Pearson correlations/ 279 students	No
Rauschnabel (2018a)	AR marketing	Utilitarian (Life-efficiency) Hedonic (Enjoyment)	Survey, SEM/ 228 students	No

		Sensual (Desired enhancement of reality, wearable comfort) Social (Socialising) Symbolic (Self-expression)		
Rauschnabel et al. (2017)	AR gaming	Emotional (Nostalgia, Enjoyment) Hedonic (Physical activity, Flow) Social (Socialising, Image)	Survey, SEM/ 642	No
Rauschnabel (2018b)	AR smart glasses	Utilitarian (Life-efficiency, usefulness, education) Hedonic (gaming, enjoyment, entertainment) Social (socialising, managing relationships) Sensual (escape, immersion, reality perceptions, wearable comfort) Symbolic (self-expression, coolness, status)	Conceptual	Proposed: Risks, demographics, knowledge, experience
Stafford et al. (2004)	Internet	Process Content Social	Survey, factor analysis, CFA, 915 consumers	No
Sundar & Limperos (2013)	New media	Modality (Realism, Coolness, Novelty, Being there) Agency (enhancement, community building, bandwagon, filtering, ownness) Interactivity (Interaction, activity, responsiveness, control) Navigability (browsing, scaffolds, play/fun)	Conceptual	No
Xu et al. (2012)	Social media	Hedonic (affection, disclosure, entertainment, escape, relaxation, and stylishness) Utilitarian (coordination, immediate access)	Mixed methods, PLS/ 148 students	No
<i>Our study</i>	<i>AR learning and marketing</i>	Hedonic (<i>enjoyment, flow</i>) Utilitarian (<i>Information seeking, Personalisation</i>) Sensual (<i>Presence, Immersion</i>) Modality (<i>Novelty</i>)	<i>Experiments and surveys, PLS/ 170 students</i>	<i>Yes (Multi group analysis of learning styles)</i>

Source: The authors (2021)

Table 2. Participants' profile

Characteristics	N	%	Characteristics	N	%
Gender	173	100%	Level	173	100%
Male	86	49.7%	Undergraduate	127	73.4%
Female	87	50.3%	Postgraduate	33	19.1%
Age	173	100%	MBA	13	7.5%
18-30	146	84.4%	AR experience	173	100%
31-50	25	14.4%	Yes	68	39.3%
Over 50	2	1.2%	No	105	60.7%

Source: Research data (2021)

Table 3. Correlations and square roots of AVE

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Enjoyment	4.279	0.784	0.891								
Flow	3.874	1.007	0.698	0.823							
Immersion	3.129	1.246	0.504	0.689	0.871						
Info Seeking	4.086	0.835	0.633	0.576	0.508	0.856					
Learning Satisfaction	4.218	0.783	0.701	0.620	0.406	0.663	0.917				
Novelty	3.726	1.099	0.459	0.581	0.518	0.519	0.477	0.841			
Personalisation	3.808	0.963	0.609	0.646	0.499	0.668	0.591	0.453	0.841		
Presence	3.439	1.303	0.580	0.651	0.699	0.566	0.482	0.553	0.641	0.785	
Student Engagement	4.007	0.959	0.658	0.630	0.540	0.665	0.752	0.442	0.589	0.511	0.908

Note: Square root of AVE is presented in the diagonal and bold

Source: The authors (2021)

Table 4. Factor loadings, Cronbach alpha, composite reliability and average variance extracted

Construct (<i>Source</i>)	Items	Loadings	Alpha	CR	AVE
Enjoyment <i>(Moon and Kim, 2001; Lis et al., 2018; van der Heijden 2003)</i>	The AR experiences were fun	0.875	0.914	0.939	0.795
	The AR experiences were pleasant	0.878			
	The AR experiences were enjoyable	0.915			
	The AR experiences were exciting	0.898			
Flow <i>(Rauschnabel et al., 2017; tom Dieck et al., 2021)</i>	While experiencing the AR applications, I experienced a “flow”	0.800	0.841	0.893	0.677
	When experiencing the AR applications, my attention was totally focused	0.850			
	Experiencing the AR applications excited my curiosity	0.817			
	Experiencing the AR applications was intrinsically interesting	0.823			
Information seeking <i>(Chae et al., 2015; Chae & Ko, 2016; Luo, 2002)</i>	The AR experiences were useful to get information about products or services	0.844	0.879	0.917	0.733
	The AR experiences were useful to get information I didn't know before	0.881			
	The AR experiences were useful to learn about things related to my interests	0.825			
	I think the information obtained from the AR experiences is helpful	0.874			
Personalisation <i>(Smink et al., 2020)</i>	The AR experiences... Were tailored to my situation	0.832	0.862	0.906	0.708
	Felt like a personal experience	0.829			
	Matched my needs	0.872			
	Were personally relevant to me	0.831			
Immersion <i>(Fu et al., 2009; Hamari et al., 2016)</i>	I was completely immersed in the AR experiences	0.834	0.894	0.926	0.759
	I lost track of time while using the AR applications	0.878			
	I became very involved in the AR applications forgetting about other things	0.909			
	I became unaware of my surroundings while experiencing AR	0.861			

Presence <i>(Gandy et al., 2010; Lis et al., 2018; Vorderer et al., 2004; Wirth et al., 2007)</i>	I felt like I was actually there in the AR environment It was as though my true location had shifted into the AR environment The objects in AR gave me the feeling that I could do things with them It seemed to me that I could do whatever I wanted in the AR environment I felt 'drawn in' to the experience I felt I could move or manipulate objects in the environment	0.814 0.753 0.825 0.798 0.788 0.728	0.875	0.906	0.616
Novelty <i>(Barhorst et al., 2021)</i>	It was a new experience for me It was a unique experience It was a different experience It was an unusual experience (excluded)	0.740 0.876 0.848 0.633 (excluded)	0.783	0.860	0.609
Learning satisfaction <i>(Hui et al., 2008)</i>	Using AR as part of my learning is a good idea My overall learning experience of using AR is positive As a whole, the AR experiences was effective for my learning	0.883 0.921 0.947	0.906	0.935	0.782
Student engagement <i>(Dixon, 2015; tom Dieck et al., 2019)</i>	These AR experiences have motivated me to learn more about AR These AR experiences have motivated me to participate in AR activities Using AR made the course material interesting to me Using AR enabled me to apply course material to my life	0.910 0.923 0.913 0.885	0.929	0.949	0.824

Source: The authors (2021)

Table 5. Varimax Rotated Factorial Analysis

Variable	Active learner	Passive learner	Communality
When I learn I like to watch and listen	0.145	0.829	0.708
When I learn I like to think about ideas	0.545	0.252	0.361
I learn best when I trust my hunches and feelings	0.424	0.315	0.279
I learn best when I listen and watch carefully	0.065	0.733	0.542
I learn best when I rely on logical thinking	0.596	0.177	0.386
When I am learning I have strong feelings and reactions	0.401	0.290	0.245
When I am learning I tend to reason things out	0.649	0.214	0.468
I learn by feeling	0.465	0.176	0.248
I learn by watching	0.132	0.889	0.808
I learn by doing	0.714	0.191	0.546
When I am learning I am an observing person	0.350	0.630	0.520
When I am learning I am a logical person	0.699	0.112	0.501
I learn best from observation	0.241	0.655	0.487
I learn best from a chance to try out and practice	0.769	0.128	0.608
I learn best when I can try things out for myself	0.764	0.073	0.589
When I learn I like to observe	0.319	0.643	0.515
When I learn I like to be active	0.668	0.157	0.470
Variance	4.57	3.70	8.28
% Var	0.269	0.218	0.487

Table 6. Multigroup Analysis

Relationships	Path Coefficients (Active Learner) N= 81	Path Coefficients (Passive learner) N= 89	Difference (Active learner - Passive learner)
Hedonic -> Enjoyment	0.960**	0.911**	0.049
Hedonic -> Flow	0.938**	0.867**	0.072
Hedonic -> Learning Satisfaction	0.332**	0.445**	-0.113
Learning Satisfaction -> Student's Engagement	0.814**	0.688**	0.126
Modality -> Learning Satisfaction	0.481**	0.366*	0.114
Modality -> Novelty	0.844**	0.793**	0.051
Sensual -> Immersion	0.898**	0.906**	-0.008
Sensual -> Learning Satisfaction	-0.103	-0.395**	0.291*
Sensual -> Presence	0.946**	0.934**	0.013
Utilitarian -> Info Seeking	0.919**	0.921**	-0.002
Utilitarian -> Learning Satisfaction	0.188	0.336**	-0.149
Utilitarian -> Personalisation	0.930**	0.878**	0.052

**P-value< 0.01; * p-value< 0.05.

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Figures

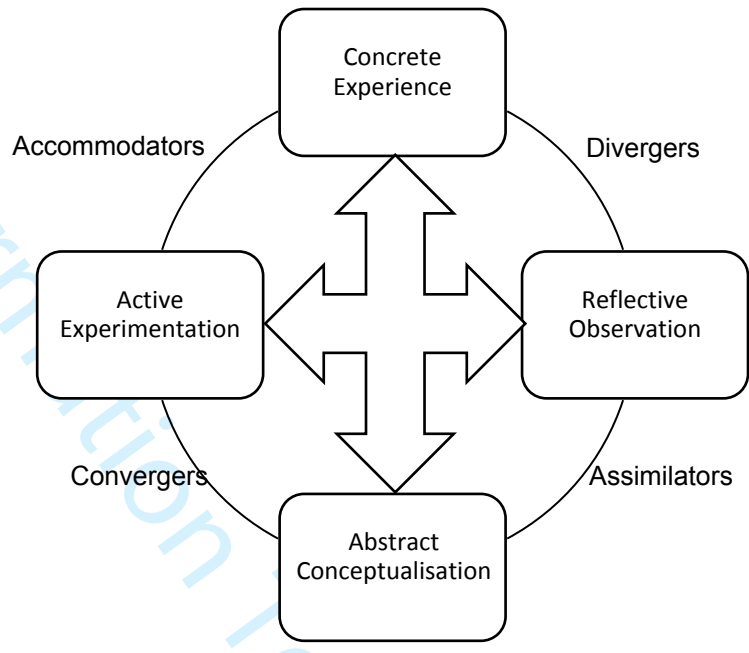


Figure 1. Kolb's Learning Cycle

Source: Kolb (2014)

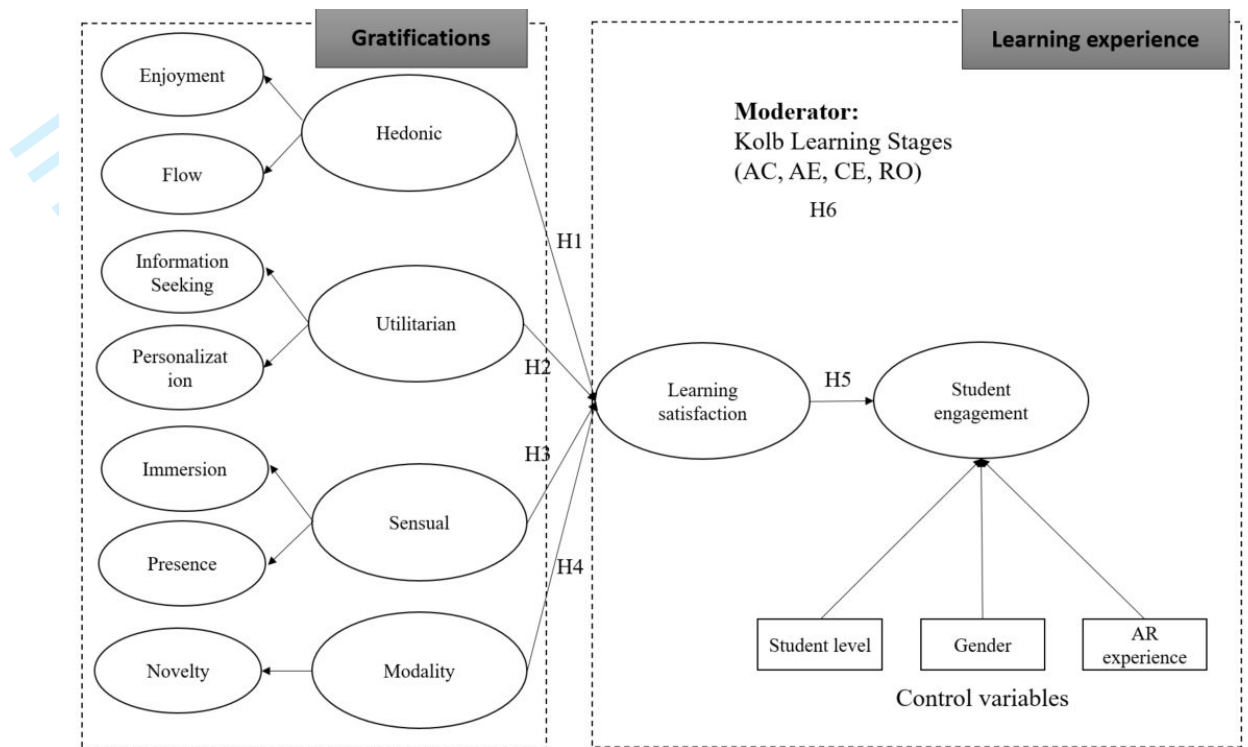
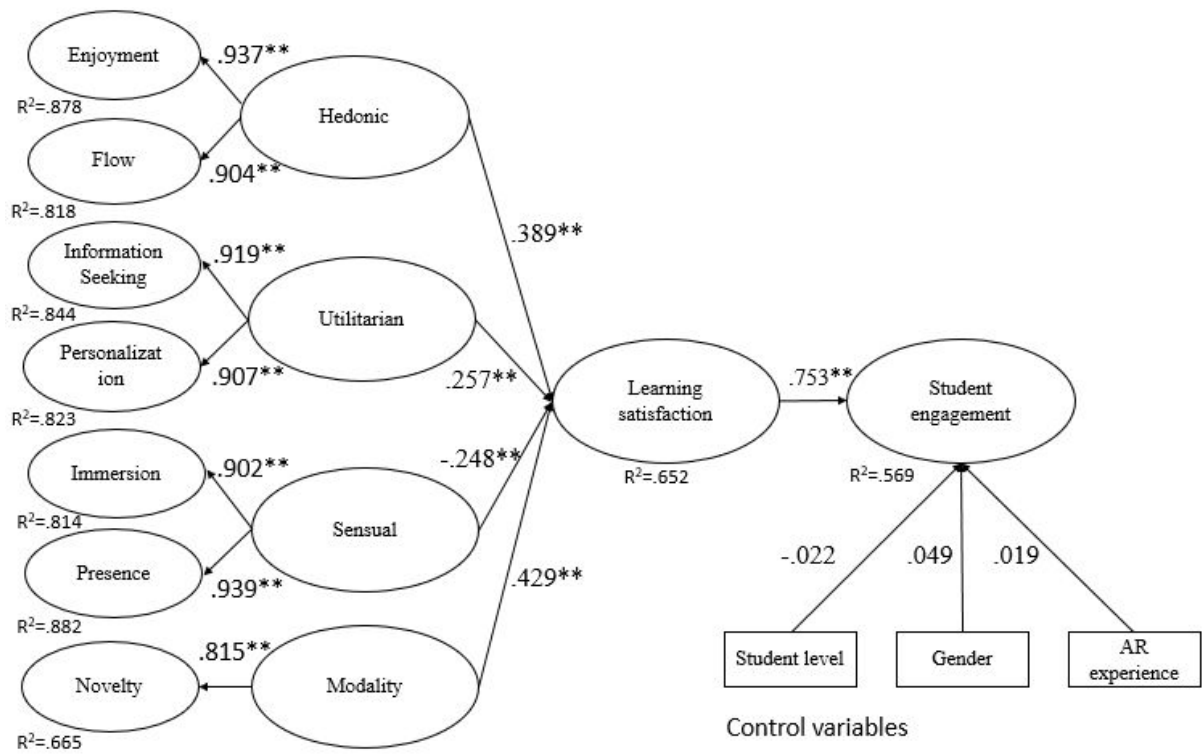


Figure 2. Proposed Model

Source: The authors (2021)

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**P-value < 0.01; * p-value < 0.05.

Figure 3. Structural Equation Modelling

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