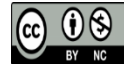


## The Impact of Non-Immersive Virtual Reality on Student Engagement in Higher Education: A Structured Narrative Review (2020-2026)

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### Abstract

This structured narrative review examines the role of non-immersive Virtual Reality (VR) in student engagement in secondary and higher education in the period of 2020-2026. Based on the PRISMA 2020 template, 25 articles were chosen out of 326 records, although the majority of the included studies (21 of 25) were conducted in higher education settings, with secondary education remaining underrepresented. The synthesis of data was conducted in themes and narratively in order to determine trends in terms of emotional, behavioral, and cognitive engagement. The research results have shown that non-immersive VR boosts motivation, enjoyment, and confidence and decreases anxiety, which reinforces emotional involvement. It also enhances engagement with behavior, encouraging greater participation, collaboration, perseverance and cognitive stimulation by encouraging problem-solving, critical thinking and conceptual knowledge, especially in STEM and engineering education. Although these are the advantages, a number of methodological shortcomings were found, such as inconsistent measures of engagement, limited sample sizes, and limited longitudinal studies, which limit the comparability and the possibility of generalizing the results of a long-term impact. These shortcomings underscore the necessity of having more rigorous and standardized research to have a strong evidence base. However, the review finds that non-immersive VR is an affordable, non-sophisticated, and sustainable technology for improving the engagement experience, without the complexity and cost of immersive systems. The following research ought to employ standard engagement systems, integrate qualitative and quantitative methods, and focus on inclusiveness in order to offer equal opportunities.

**Keywords:** *Non-immersive Virtual Reality, Student Engagement, Educational Technology, Higher Education; Cognitive Engagement, Behavioral Engagement, Emotional Engagement*

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## 1. Introduction

Virtual Reality (VR) is among those technologies that have emerged in recent years as one of the most powerful educational technologies to change the face of digital learning, as used by students. Conventionally, VR is a computer-generated, three-dimensional space that recreates real-world or abstract experiences over which learners explore, manipulate, and interact with virtual objects (Hamilton et al., 2020; Garcia-Ruiz et al., 2025). Although innate attention has been drawn to immersive VR, in which learners experience being fully immersed in a virtual world by means of a Head-Mounted Display (HMD), there has also been an increasing acknowledgement of non-immersive VR, in which learners can engage in virtual worlds on a traditional display, keyboard, or controller. Throughout this review, the term “non-immersive VR” is used as the umbrella term for these screen-mediated systems; the terms “desktop-based” and “screen-based” are used only where a specific study’s hardware configuration is being described, and the term “non-fully immersive” is not used elsewhere in this review. These non-immersive systems achieve this by providing interactive 3D learning without having to incur the physical and financial costs that are tied to having immersive hardware (Spittle et al., 2022; Rao et al., 2024).

In comparison to immersive VR and standard procedures, non-immersive VR has been proven to have moderately positive results in engagement outcomes when compared in a number of studies on this topic (George & Titus, 2024; Spittle et al., 2022; Santilli et al., 2024). The effect of non-immersive VR demonstrates a higher potential for sustainability when used in classrooms, primarily because it fatigues the user to a lesser extent and is simpler to facilitate than immersive VR (Craig & Kay, 2023; Sümer & Vaněček, 2024). Although immersive VR may produce stronger short-term effects, its cost and technical demands often limit practical implementation. Non-immersive VR, by contrast, offers a more practical and scalable option for sustained educational use, trading some sense of presence for greater practicality and lower cognitive load.

For consistency throughout this review, the term non-immersive Virtual Reality (non-immersive VR) is used as the preferred descriptor. This term encompasses desktop-based, screen-based, and other non-fully immersive virtual environments that allow users to interact with simulated content through conventional computer displays rather than head-mounted displays or fully immersive systems. Where alternative terms appear in the cited literature, they are treated as conceptually equivalent to non-immersive VR for this review. In order to provide a consistent conceptual framework, this review adopts Fredricks et al.'s (2004) tripartite model of engagement, which conceptualizes engagement as

comprising emotional, behavioural, and cognitive dimensions. This framework guided the review questions, data extraction, and synthesis.

### **1.1 Objective of the Study**

This systematic review aimed to;

1. examine the impact non-immersive VR has on student engagement - emotional, behavioural, and cognitive engagement - as educational interventions, at the secondary and post-secondary level.

### **1.2 Research Questions**

The review is outlined through the following research questions:

1. What are the emotional changes (e.g., motivation, interest, enjoyment) in the students as a result of non-immersive VR interventions?
2. What behavioural patterns of engagement (i.e., participation, interaction, time-on-task, etc.) are reported about non-immersive VR environments?
3. What is the impact of non-immersive VR procedures on cognitive (e.g., critical thinking, problem-solving, deep processing) engagement?
4. What are the outcomes of engagement using non-immersive VR as compared to immersive VR or standard strategies, and what are some methodological weaknesses?

## **2. Literature Review**

Non-immersive VR environments have been used in the educational field to provide simulation of scientific phenomena, engineering processes, medical procedures, and interpersonal communication. (Cabrera-Duffaut et al., 2024; Di Lanzo et al., 2020). These applications can be discussed in terms of constructivist and experiential theories of learning, which pay attention to active engagement and problem-solving of knowledge based on exploratory activities and reflection. (Mallek et al., 2024). Non-immersive VR presents flexible, cost-effective, and accessible learning experiences that can stimulate emotional, behavioral, and cognitive engagement of students in comparison to traditional teaching (Bond et al., 2020; Tusher et al., 2024). Nevertheless, the organized knowledge regarding the impact of these dimensions of engagement is yet to be developed in the literature.

Sustained learning is highly involved with emotional engagement, which is usually depicted by motivation, interest, and enjoyment (Bond et al., 2020). Research has found virtual environments to be arousing curiosity and intrinsic motivation through interactive, immersive-like visualization that does not create a sense of overload of sensory experiences as in full immersion (Spittle et al., 2022; Santilli et al., 2024). As an illustration, it was found that students who were taught in non-immersive VR showed increased enjoyment and reduced anxiety levels in contrast to a traditional learning environment (Spittle et al., 2022). On the same

note, Jiang and Fryer (2023) indicated that the motivation and emotional investment in the learning process by learners in the classroom made by VR-based instruction, despite being screen-based, were significantly higher. The findings highlight that emotional and behavioural engagement in non-immersive VR is inherently linked through emotional drivers such as autonomy, presence, and perceived realism. These emotional drivers translate to observable behavioural differences; VR systems that were gamified or narrative-based produced a positive emotional response in users and more engagement and persistence on tasks (Irshad et al., 2020; Mallek et al., 2024).

The behavioural effect was manifestly stronger in STEM and engineering, where results across social sciences were more equivocal (Ghanbaripour et al., 2024). Immersive VR may generate stronger sensations; however, non-immersive VR is adequate for achieving motivational outcomes by productively balancing realism and cognitive comfort, which support emotional engagement and persistence in behaviour (Craig & Kay, 2023; Sunardi et al., 2025).

The engagement behaviour shows observable participation, effort, and time-on-task. VR solutions, which are not immersive, promote engagement by participating in virtual manipulation, exploration, and group simulation (Tusher et al., 2024; Zontou et al., 2024). In the aforementioned engineering and design course 2, the students who were using screen-based VR platforms exhibited more persistence and cooperation as compared to those using unchanging instructional materials (Di Lanzo et al., 2020; Muzata et al., 2024). Similarly, in the study conducted by Cabrera-Duffaut et al. (2024) VR-based environments facilitated the acquisition of skills and interaction because they allowed learners to train in digital settings, which were safe and loaded with feedback. The task interactivity, as well as system usability, also affects the behavioural engagement in non-immersive VR. Lawson et al. (2024) and Hedberg et al. (2006) highlighted that intuitive interface enhance the participation and the desire to experiment in learners. On the other hand, too complicated interfaces can lead to less and less interaction as they create brain strain. Non-immersive systems tend to have less technical downtime and increased learning periods when compared with immersive VR and can be used in the classroom over a longer period (Xu et al., 2026; Santilli et al., 2024).

The concept of cognitive engagement is about the mental effort, critical thinking, or problem-solving by the learners in the course of the instruction. Abstract concepts and immediate feedback that can be seen with VR promote profound thinking (Hamilton et al., 2020; Radianti et al., 2020). The studies have shown that VR non-immersive settings provide better conceptual knowledge and support inquiry-driven or experiential learning and exploration (Muzata et al., 2024; Tsivitanidou et al., 2021). An example is that learners enrolled in non-

immersive simulations had better analytical reasoning in engineering problem-solving than those in traditional teaching (Zontou et al., 2024).

Furthermore, as emphasised by Mallek et al. (2024), virtual learning with an educational theory like social constructivism and experiential learning promotes reflection and metacognition, as two important signs of cognitive engagement. Qiao et al. (2024) and Marougkas et al. (2023) studies also proved the idea that non-immersive VR may be used as a tool to retain and transfer knowledge due to interactive practice and synthesis.

Nonetheless, significant methodological limitations remain. Even if many studies use self-reported engagement data rather than objective behavioural data (Lawson et al., 2024; Xu et al., 2026). Small sample sizes and no standardised measurement for engagement influenced the potential for generalising results (Tene et al., 2024). There also remains a lack of reviews identifying the distinct impact that using non-immersive VR environments has on traditional immersive VR environments, leading to overall conceptual confusion (Sunardi et al., 2025). Each of these limitations obstructs any possible intervention that would give educators the necessary evidence base to design meaningful and accessible VR learning experiences.

### **3. Research Methodology**

#### **3.1 Review Protocol**

The structured narrative review was written according to the PRISMA 2020 to ensure methodological transparency and replicability. The objective of the review was to synthesize the evidence on the effect of non-immersive Virtual Reality (VR) interventions on student engagement at the emotional, behavioural, and cognitive levels in the context of secondary and higher education published in 2020-2026. Though the protocol was never officially registered in PROSPERO or OSF, it was written in their format, and the objectives, eligibility, and steps to be taken were indicated in advance. As the protocol was not prospectively registered, this work is presented as a structured narrative review rather than a fully registered structured narrative review. Reporting consistency was guided by the PRISMA checklist to ensure consistency in reporting procedures of the study.

#### **3.2 Search Strategy**

It was done in the form of a comprehensive search of six multidisciplinary databases: Scopus, Web of Science, IEEE Xplore, ERIC, ScienceDirect, and SpringerLink. The sources selected are related to the research of educational technology and virtual learning. The Boolean search term used below was utilized: (non-immersive virtual reality or desktop VR or screen-based VR) and (student engagement or learning engagement) and (education or classroom). Search filters are used to limit the search results to peer-reviewed journal articles and conference

papers in the English language and published between January 2020 and 2026. A total of 326 records were initially retrieved by the search. To be able to cover as many studies as possible, the reference lists of key research were also screened manually.

### **3.3 Inclusion Criteria**

In addition to empirical studies, high-quality peer-reviewed review articles were included when they provided synthesized evidence directly relevant to the effects of non-immersive VR on student engagement. These review studies were used to contextualize findings and identify broader trends within the literature but were distinguished from primary empirical evidence during data synthesis.

- Peer-reviewed empirical studies published between 2020 and 2026.
- Focus on education or learning at the secondary or higher education level.
- Test student involvement (emotional, behavioural, or cognitive).
- Use Non-immersive VR technologies (desktop/screen-based system)

### **3.4 Exclusion Criteria**

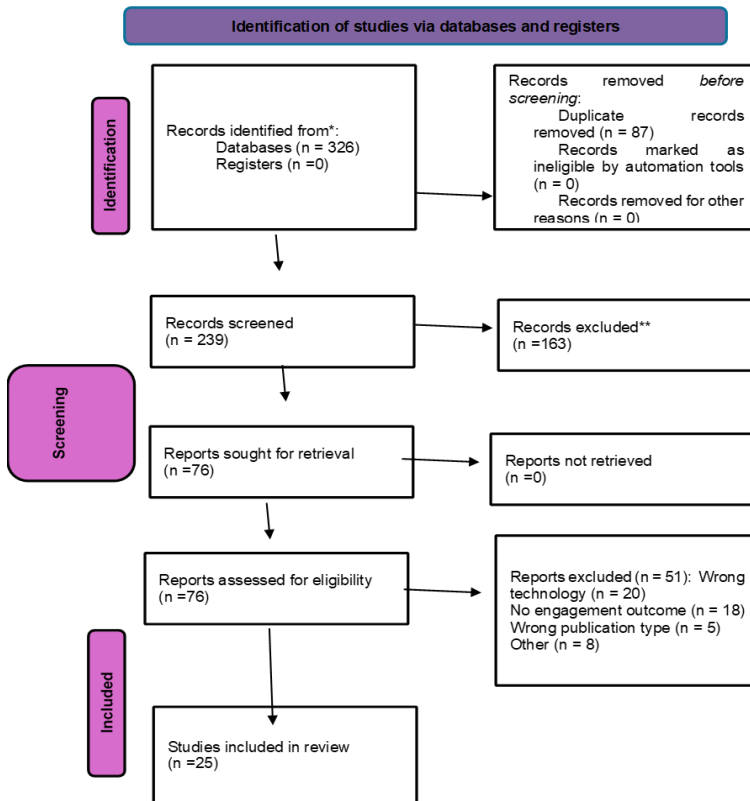
Following criteria ensured that only those studies that are applicable to general education and non-immersive VR interventions were factored into the studies;

- Research based on fully immersive VR (head-mounted displays, CAVE).
- Simulation medical/clinical rehabilitation or non-educational.
- Films are non-English or non-peer-reviewed.
- Theoretical papers with no empirical information.

### **3.5 Study Selection and PRISMA Flow**

To enhance the consistency of the screening process, the researcher independently reviewed records against the predefined inclusion and exclusion criteria. Any disagreements regarding study eligibility were discussed and resolved through consensus. Where necessary, the full text of the article was re-examined to ensure that inclusion decisions aligned with the review objectives. Although a formal inter-rater reliability statistic (e.g., Cohen's kappa) was not calculated, the use of independent screening and consensus-based resolution procedures helped improve the transparency and reliability of study selection.

Figure 1  
 PRISMA Flow Chart



### 3.6 Quality Assessment

To determine the quality of the methodology of the selected studies, the Mixed Methods Appraisal Tool (MMAT) was applied. Each of the studies was reviewed by two reviewers based on five criteria: research question clarification, methodological suitability, data collection validity, rigor of data analysis, and whether the data and conclusions agreed. The high level of methodology was revealed in most of the studies. Nevertheless, the most frequent limitations were small-scale samples, absence of control groups, and use of self-reported engagement scales. This fact was supported by multiple strong, structured narrative reviews, which enhanced the credibility of the synthesized results in general.

### 3.7 Data Extraction

A questionnaire containing a standardised data extraction form was designed to guide standardization and transparency. Each study was summarized as follows:

- Author(s), Year, and Country
- Education (Secondary or Higher Education) VR Type (Desktop / Non-immersive / Screen-based).
- Subject Area (STEM, Engineering, Nursing, etc.)
- Interest Dimension (Behavioural, Cognitive, Emotional)
- Major Results on Engagement Results.
- Methodological Design (Quantitative, Qualitative, or Mixed-Methods)

Data were independently extracted by two researchers, with each reviewer independently completing the extraction form for every study before comparing entries. Formal inter-rater reliability statistics (e.g., Cohen's kappa) were not computed; instead, discrepancies between reviewers were resolved through structured discussion until full consensus was reached, with a third reviewer available to arbitrate unresolved disagreements. who agreed on the discrepancies by discussing them. The final evidence consisted of 25 sources, including empirical studies, systematic reviews, scoping reviews, meta-analyses, and conceptual reviews that met the eligibility criteria. The extraction and categorization of engagement outcomes were guided by Fredricks et al.'s (2004) tripartite model of emotional, behavioural, and cognitive engagement.

### 3.8 Data Synthesis

Because of the heterogeneity in studies in terms of design, context, and measurement of engagement, thematic and narrative synthesis were used as an alternative to meta-analysis. It was done in three primary phases:

1. **Primary Coding:** Extraction of Textual information on the results of the engagement was coded into thematic units (motivation, participation, cognitive reflection).
2. **Categorization:** The codes were organized into three dimensions of engagement: Emotional (motivation, enjoyment, interest), Behavioural (time-on-task, participation, collaboration) and Cognitive (problem-solving/reflection/critical thinking).
3. **Interpretation:** Patterns were seen based on theoretical ideas, including the constructivist theory, self-determination theory, and experiential learning.
4. **Trends** (publication years, disciplines, education levels) were also visualized with the help of the descriptive statistics, and frequency counts

were determined to show which dimensions of engagement were the most frequently studied.

#### 4. Data Analysis and Interpretation

##### 4.1 Overview of Selected Studies

25 sources met the inclusion criteria, comprising both empirical studies and high-quality review articles. The research studies involved the study of how non-immersive virtual reality (VR) improves student engagement in secondary or higher education. Most studies (21 out of 25) were based on the higher education sphere, which is characterized by the strongest results of digital learning innovations since tertiary institutions are the main pilots. Among all the studies, only four actively analyzed the secondary-level interventions, indicating that there is low adoption in K-12 settings. The increase in the proportion of the yearly distribution was observed between 2020 and 2024, and the highest levels of publications were reached in 2023 and 2024, which coincided with the increase in the post-pandemic use of digital learning technologies. One of the 25 sources, Mallek et al. (2024), is a conceptual review rather than a peer-reviewed empirical study; it was retained because it provides the theoretical grounding (constructivist and experiential learning theory) used to interpret the empirical findings, and its inclusion is noted as an exception to the empirical-studies inclusion criterion.

Table 1

*Overview of Selected Studies (2020–2026)*

No.	Author(s) Year	& Country	Education Level	Subject/Discipline	Engagement Focus	Methodology
1	(Spittle et al., 2022)	Not applicable because this is a review article synthesizing international research rather than a study conducted in one country.	Not education-focused; studies span multiple application domains	Virtual Reality (VR), Immersive Environments, Human–Computer Interaction	Behavioural	Structured Literature Review
2	(Garcia-Ruiz et al., 2025)	et Not specific (review draws on international studies; authors affiliated with Mexico)	Higher Education (primarily Computer Science education)	Various	Cognitive, Behavioural	Structured Literature Review

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Volume XII- Issue I (June 2026)

3	(Rao et al., 2024)	International	Not education-specific	Computer Graphics, Augmented Reality (AR), Virtual Reality (VR)	Primarily technology/design applications	Encyclopedia/Reference Chapter (Conceptual Overview)
4	(Bond et al., 2020)	Germany	Higher Ed	EdTech	Behavioural, Emotional	Meta-analysis
5	(Mallek et al., 2024)	Canada	Higher Ed	Education Theory	Emotional, Cognitive	Conceptual Review (retained as supporting theoretical evidence, not as a primary empirical study)
6	(Sunardi et al., 2025)	Indonesia	Higher Ed	Education Technology	Behavioural	Scoping Review
7	(Tsvitanidou et al., 2021)	Cyprus	Higher Ed	Physics / Science Education	Cognitive and Emotional Engagement	Quantitative study
8	(Santilli et al., 2024)	Italy	Higher Ed	Comparative Learning	Emotional, Behavioural	Quantitative
9	(Cabrera-Duffaut et al., 2024)	Spain	Higher Ed	Competence Dev.	Cognitive, Behavioural	Qualitative
10	Ghanbaripour et al. (2024)	Australia	Higher Ed	Built Environment	Emotional, Cognitive	Mixed Methods
11	(Craig & Kay, 2023)	Canada	Higher Ed	General	Emotional	Meta-Review
12	(Jiang & Fryer, 2023)	Japan	Higher Ed	Motivation	Emotional	Scoping Review
13	(Hedberg et al., 2006)	United States and Australia	Higher Ed	Educational Technology, Human-Computer Interaction, Instructional Design	Behavioural, Cognitive	Conceptual/Theoretical Chapter
14	(Lawson et al., 2024)	USA	Higher Ed	STEM	Behavioural	Meta-Analysis
15	(Irshad et al., 2020)	Norway	Participants were general VR users	Human-Computer Interaction (HCI), Virtual Reality, Interactive Digital Narratives	Emotional, Cognitive	Conference paper; experimental/prototype-based study
16	(Tusher et al., 2024)	Norway	Higher Ed	Skill Training	Behavioural	Review
17	(Zontou et al., 2024)	Greece	Higher Ed	Engineering	Cognitive, Behavioural	Empirical
18	(Hamilton et al., 2020)	UK	Higher Ed	General	Cognitive, Behavioural	Review
19	(Muzata et al., 2024)	Zambia	Higher Ed	Engineering	Behavioural, Cognitive	Qualitative

20	(Qiao, et al., 2024)	China	Higher Ed	Education	Primarily Cognitive (knowledge acquisition, skill development); secondarily Behavioural (clinical skill performance and practice engagement)	Meta-analysis
21	(Maroukias et al., 2023)	Greece	Higher Ed	Pedagogy	Cognitive	Review
22	(Richardson et al., 2023)	United States	Higher Ed	Health Education / Human-Computer Interaction / Medical Simulation	Emotional engagement (empathy development), Behavioural engagement (user engagement and interaction), and User Experience	Quantitative comparative study
23	(Xu et al., 2026)	China	Users of rehabilitation or training technologies	Human-Computer Interaction (HCI), Wearable Technology, Virtual Reality, Rehabilitation Technology	User adoption, user experience, interaction experience, technology acceptance, behavioural intention to use	Quantitative empirical study
24	(George & Titus, 2024)	USA	Higher Ed	Nursing	Emotional	Quantitative
25	(Di Lanzo et al., 2020)	Australia	Higher Ed	Engineering	Cognitive	Review

#### 4.2 VR Technologies and Learning Contexts

The reviewed studies employed diverse non-immersive VR technologies, primarily using desktop-based simulations and 3D interactive platforms accessed via standard monitors or laptops. These systems enable learners to navigate and manipulate virtual objects through mouse, keyboard, or touchscreen interfaces, without the need for head-mounted displays (Radianti et al., 2020).

Non-immersive Virtual Reality (VR) technologies in education can be classified into three major categories. The first category represents desktop simulations and 3D virtual labs, and is a specific type of non-immersive VR with many models incorporated in STEM and engineering education (Di Lanzo et al., 2020; Zontou et al., 2024). This is a way to allow students to capture the virtual

experience of replicating experiments in a safe, controlled digital setting and experience phenomena that are complex constructs to visualize without the dangers and costs associated with physical labs, hence enriching conceptual understanding. The second category comprises game-based and gamified learning platforms, which blend non-immersive VR with gamification principles; they promote motivation, engagement, and goal-oriented learning during the learning experience (Irshad et al., 2020; Mallek et al., 2024). The final category relates to collaborative virtual classrooms and 3D collaborative interactive environments, such as Unity-based or WebGL VR environments, which offer shared digital environments to facilitate interaction, teamwork, and collaborative group learning. (Cabrera-Duffaut et al., 2024; Santilli et al., 2024). Generally, non-immersive VR technologies can greatly provide opportunities for students, not only in accessibility and flexibility, but also in support of blended and remote learning contexts compared to fully immersive VR.

### 4.3 Dimensions of Engagement

To examine how non-immersive VR influences engagement, findings were grouped under the three commonly recognized dimensions: behavioural, emotional, and cognitive engagement.

Table 2

*Engagement Dimensions Reported in the Selected Studies*

Engagement Type	Description	Representative Studies	Key Observations
<b>Emotional</b>	Motivation, enjoyment, interest, satisfaction	(Spittle et al., 2022); (Jiang & Fryer, 2023); (Santilli et al., 2024); (George & Titus, 2024)	Increased intrinsic motivation, reduced anxiety, and improved enjoyment due to interactivity and autonomy.
<b>Behavioral</b>	Participation, time-on-task, collaboration	(Tusher et al., 2024); (Lawson et al., 2024); (Cabrera-Duffaut et al., 2024); (Hedberg et al., 2006)	Students spent more time engaged in tasks, collaborated more effectively, and demonstrated greater persistence in VR-based activities.
<b>Cognitive</b>	Reflection, problem-solving, critical thinking	(Ghanbaripour et al., 2024); (Zontou et al., 2024); (Hamilton et al., 2020); (Qiao, et al., 2024)	Improved analytical reasoning, conceptual understanding, and knowledge retention through active exploration.

### 4.4 Research Methods Used

The findings were synthesized due to the methodological variety across the 25 included studies and triangulated with each other. Eight studies, employing quantitative methods that included surveys and experiments, consistently reported statistically significant improvements in motivation and participation for non-immersive learners using VR. Four studies, which employed interviews and observations, provided additional depth, revealing that students perceived the VR environment as engaging, interactive, and a safe space for learning. These findings

were also triangulated with three mixed-methods studies that included a simultaneous measure of engagement as a multi-dimensional construct. Finally, ten structured narrative reviews and scoping reviews contributed to generalising these empirical findings by mapping and synthesizing the broader evidence base for the field.

This methodological diversity reflects the level of development in the field, striking a balance between the introduction of new quantitative measurement tools and the continued exploration of the field through qualitative approaches.

#### **4.5 Key Findings**

Three cross-cutting themes emerged from the dimension-by-dimension results reported in Section 4.3. Firstly, usability and accessibility were cited as key enablers of engagement at all times. In various studies, the non-immersive VR systems were appreciated due to being able to be used with a regular computer and having limited specialized equipment. This accessibility removed the technical barriers to learning and participation and facilitated prolonged engagement in the classroom and distance settings. It also showed that interfaces that were intuitive and easy to navigate promoted exploration, collaboration, and repeated use, while more complex ones might reduce learner engagement (Lawson et al., 2024; Radianti et al., 2020; Luo et al., 2020).

Second, it seemed that lower cognitive and sensory load helped to maintain engagement. As opposed to the immersive VR systems, non-immersive environments offered interactive experiences without the fatigue, discomfort, or sensory overload that can be experienced in the VR headsets. The results from several studies indicated that this balance between realism and usability facilitated learners' attention for a longer time, which contributed to their motivation, persistence, and cognitive processing (Craig & Kay, 2023; Santilli et al., 2024; Sunardi et al., 2025). The discovery of this may have helped to explain the strong correlation between positive emotional, behavioural, and cognitive outcomes that were often found in the numerous studies that were reviewed.

Third, the evidence base is still limited to particular disciplines and is inconsistent as a result of methodological variability. The majority of studies took place at the secondary and/or higher education level, and mainly on STEM, engineering and technology-related subjects, with less evidence in other subjects. In addition, a variety of self-reported scales, behavioural measures and qualitative assessments were used to evaluate engagement, making comparisons to other studies challenging and findings generalizable (Bond et al., 2020; Lawson et al., 2024). These inconsistencies indicate the need for a consistent engagement framework and measurement in future studies. These results, combined, highlight that the value of non-immersive VR could not only be its interactive and immersive

nature, but also its utility, accessibility, and ability to provide the opportunity to sustain learner engagement without overloading cognitive or technological capacity.

### **5. Discussion and Conclusion**

This structured narrative review aggregates data from 25 studies published from 2020 to 2026 to explore the impact of non-immersive virtual reality (VR) on the engagement of students in secondary and higher education. Across multiple disciplines, each of the studies consistently illustrates that non-immersive VR increased emotional, behavioural, and cognitive engagement. However, comparing and generalising outcomes from different studies is problematic when studies vary in methodological approaches, theoretical framework, and measurement approaches.

Across the studies reviewed, a consistent pattern emerges around emotional engagement, although the underlying mechanisms differ. Lin et al. (2024) established that VR that involves some level of interactive features or screen-based VR was stimulating learners' curiosity and intrinsic motivation by setting up autonomy for learners to manipulate virtual objects, also without the sensory overload of immersive VR systems. Likewise, Jiang and Fryer (2023) reported that the VR learning environment enhanced students' intrinsic motivation, autonomy, and enjoyment, aligning with self-determination theory. Santilli et al. (2024) also noted that students involved in non-immersive simulations were more satisfied than their peers, while also noting that the students experienced less anxiety than students engaged in traditional learning events.

Craig and Kay (2023), along with Richardson et al. (2023), pointed out that the emotional engagement afforded by non-immersive VR is sustained when interactivity and cognitive ease are not affected by the fatigue often experienced in immersive VR. Bond et al. (2020) suggested that the feedback loops associated with interaction can further evoke emotional engagement and enjoyment, both of which are essential elements for deeper engagement in one's learning. In specific disciplinary contexts, George and Titus (2024) found that nursing students felt greater emotional safety and confidence in virtual clinical simulations, while Ghanbaripour et al. (2024) found that interactive design elements in built environment education enhanced students' enjoyment and accomplishment. Mallek et al. (2024) explained that emotional engagement serves as a precondition to cognitive engagement, as positive emotions help to sustain attention and promote reflective thinking. Together, these studies make explicit the emergent emotional engagement built upon motivation-driven interactivity, feedback, and autonomy to be motivated, thereby engendering positive attitudes about the learning experience.

Across the studies reviewed, behavioural engagement, including participation, persistence, and collaboration, was another key benefit to emerge. Students engaged in desktop-based simulations exhibited more persistence, collaboration, and engagement with tasks when compared to traditional classrooms (Lawson et al., 2024; Tusher et al., 2024). Similarly, Won et al. (2022) found that non-immersive VR promotes participation and exploratory behaviour, especially in the STEM subjects, where iterative experimentation is an inherent part of the learning experience. Zontou et al. (2024) noted that 3D non-immersive environments prompted engineering students to spend more time on design tasks and in group coordination when compared to students using standard instructional materials. Muzata et al. (2024) also confirmed that virtual simulations prompted prolonged engagement and collaboration.

Rao et al. (2024) highlighted that usability and accessibility are important factors for primarily technology/design applications. When students work in non-immersive VR environments, the minimal hardware requirements and reduced likelihood of technical problems contribute to more reliable engagement of students. Usability is also critical in the user experience; Lawson et al. (2024) and Garcia-Ruiz et al. (2025) revealed that students were more inclined to engage in exploration with more intuitively manageable controls, while overly complex controls diminished behavioral engagement. Xu et al (2026) illustrated that behavioural engagement could also be observed through digital traces. Students in non-immersive VR engaged more, exhibited more extended engagement on interactive tasks, and demonstrated higher rates of completion. Tsivitanidou et al. (2021) identified that behavioural engagement can increase with structured, goal-directed activities in problem-based collaborative learning environments.

Sunardi et al. (2025) acknowledged that non-immersive VR was practical, affordable, fatigue-free, and integrated into ongoing classroom systems while also supporting behavioural engagement in long-term environments. Non-immersive VR supports engagement in long-term educational contexts due to the typical repeated use without the physical and financial drains of more immersive VR environments. In conclusion, the existing literature provides evidence of the potential for behavioural engagement through usability, collaboration opportunities, and persistence through task engagement within accessible digital environments in non-immersive VR.

Cognitive engagement, characterized by deep learning, critical thinking, and reflective learning, endorses the most consistent benefit of non-immersive VR. Hamilton et al. (2020) and Radianti et al. (2020) found that virtual simulations offer learners a dynamic visualization of complex concepts that promote conceptual understanding. Empirical evidence offered by Di Lanzo et al. (2020)

and Zontou et al. (2024) in engineering education demonstrates that learners engaging with non-immersive VR demonstrate better problem-solving and spatial reasoning because of real-time feedback and opportunities to experiment multiple times.

Mallek et al. (2024) connect these results to constructivist and experiential learning theories, asserting that interactive environments in VR lead learners to construct knowledge through manipulation, reflection, and feedback. Similarly, Qiao et al. (2024) noted that non-immersive VR supports metacognition and knowledge retention through opportunities for self-reflection and active learning experience. Marougkas et al. (2023) displayed learning tasks organized around problem cycles that support analytic reasoning and synthesis, whereas Ghanbaripour et al. (2024) demonstrated that Built Environment participants developed greater reasoning skills when VR tasks required employing theoretical principles in practical problem-solving challenges.

Lampropoulos and Kinshuk (2024) noted that gamified non-immersive VR applications strengthen cognitive engagement by combining challenge, competition, and real-time feedback, encouraging sustained mental effort. Cabrera-Duffaut et al. (2024) similarly observed that competence development in higher education was enhanced through VR simulations that required analytical decision-making and contextual problem-solving. Luo et al. (2020) added that inquiry-driven learning in non-immersive VR environments fosters hypothesis testing and reflection without the logistical constraints of real laboratories. Sunardi et al. (2025) confirmed that non-immersive systems maintain cognitive focus longer than immersive alternatives due to reduced fatigue and greater usability. Collectively, these studies underscore that cognitive engagement in non-immersive VR results from its capacity to merge interactivity, immediate feedback, and reflective learning within accessible virtual contexts.

When comparing immersive and non-immersive modalities, several studies reveal that non-immersive VR can achieve equivalent engagement outcomes with greater practicality. Craig and Kay (2023) and Santilli et al. (2024) found that while immersive VR enhances presence, non-immersive systems yield comparable emotional and behavioural outcomes without the physical discomfort or cost of immersive setups. Luo et al. (2020) and Garcia-Ruiz et al. (2025) reinforced this, emphasizing that non-immersive VR provides scalability and inclusivity for institutions with limited technical resources.

Nevertheless, there is a lack of a theoretical base amongst the studies in this review. To explain the concept of engagement, for example, while Mallek et al. (2024) and Marougkas et al. (2023) called for applying constructivist and experiential theories, respectively, few studies theoretically grounded themselves

in any of those frameworks. Inadequate theoretical base accounted for Bond et al.'s (2020) and Lin et al.'s (2024) noting that the engagement is multidimensional (emotional, behavioural, and cognitive) and will thus only align with cohesive theoretical models, such as Fredricks et al.'s tripartite model, which provided consistency in conceptualization. Lawson et al. (2024) and Xu et al (2026) noted that the lack of coherence in the theoretical base was, in part, due to measuring engagement with different measures and the small sample sizes across studies. In addition, Richardson et al. (2023) suggested that the presence in a non-immersive VR context should be characterized through cognitive immersion rather than sensory immersion, meaning that one should further develop current understanding of the theory utilized by previous studies to engage with range, beyond withstand and immersive VR. Taken together, these findings suggest that the benefits of non-immersive VR across emotional, behavioural, and cognitive engagement are not independent but mutually reinforcing: lower cognitive and sensory load appears to free up capacity that supports both sustained motivation and deeper processing, while accessible, repeatable interaction supports the persistence that in turn enables cognitive gains. The recurring absence of a shared theoretical lens, however, means that these patterns have largely been described rather than explained.

The structured narrative review concluded that non-immersive virtual reality (VR) has a substantial influence on the emotional, behavioural, and cognitive aspects of student engagement improvement. It promotes active participation and encouragement of learning by means of engaging and interesting learning settings. Non-immersive systems offer similar levels of engagement, advantages, and lower costs, are user-friendly, and flexible in different instructional environments compared to immersive VR. Another finding in the review is that the less immersive type of VR remains in its research infancy and is not as prevalent as immersive models. Many of the research studies are short-term, discipline-based, and do not have standardised methods of engagement measurement. Regardless of these constraints, the data indicated that non-immersive VR may become a sustainable and inclusive tool in institutions seeking to enhance their learning experience with minimal financial and technical requirements.

## **6. Recommendations**

Following given suggestions, future research studies can build their evidence base and inform the successful and equitable application of non-immersive VR to contemporary educational practice.

1. The research may target future studies using longitudinal and large-scale approaches to determine the long-term effects of non-immersive VR on student engagement and learning performance.

2. There is an obvious necessity for standardised measurement instruments to define and measure engagement in a consistent manner across emotional, behavioural, and cognitive levels.
3. Comparative research on immersive and non-immersive VR is suggested to gain a clearer understanding of the pedagogical and psychological differences between varying degrees of immersion.
4. Accessibility, inclusivity, and equity are also issues that future research may consider, as every learner needs to be able to use VR-based education regardless of their technological and socio-economic circumstances.

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