



Journal Homepage: -[www.journalijar.com](http://www.journalijar.com)  
**INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF  
 ADVANCED RESEARCH (IJAR)**

Article DOI:10.21474/IJAR01/6069  
 DOI URL: <http://dx.doi.org/10.21474/IJAR01/6069>



### RESEARCH ARTICLE

#### A STUDY ON STUDENT ENGAGEMENT AT INSTITUTIONAL LEVEL: SPECIAL REFERENCE TOSAUDI ELECTRONIC UNIVERSITY.

Divya Rana<sup>1</sup> and Fathimunisa Begam Afsar Hanfy<sup>2</sup>.

1. Assistant Professor, Department of Business Administration, College of Administration and Finance, Saudi Electronic University, Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.
2. Assistant Professor, Department of Accounting, College of Administration and Finance, Saudi Electronic University, Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

#### Manuscript Info

##### Manuscript History

Received: 15 October 2017  
 Final Accepted: 17 November 2017  
 Published: December 2017

##### Key words:-

Student engagement; Teaching methods;  
 Higher education; Educational  
 Ideologies.

#### Abstract

The philanthropy of blended educational institutions robust the socio-economic conditions of human society. Blended learning defines alternative frameworks of educational arrangements between the student and teacher, which provide a guide and justification for advanced technology in educational contexts. Thus, our paper focuses on emerging notion of student's learning at the higher level of education. The results from 287 students, and the identification by immersed experts of the criteria that were present in each of six teaching methods, made it possible to calculate a weighted score of engagement contribution for each teaching method. This approach found that from amongst the particular range of teaching methods the case study and project reports was the most engaging, followed by a team-based learning method. These results give teachers, a practical method for assessing and identifying teaching methods for student engagement for their particular profile.

Copy Right, IJAR, 2017.. All rights reserved.

#### Introduction:-

Accountability and scrutiny have intensified, governments in relation to not only know how public funding provided to universities is spent, but from students themselves, who are increasingly focused on ensuring that they receive a quality educational experience in a market-driven environment. Engaging and motivating university students at the higher educational level is highly essential. Students engage in their learning experiences has increasingly taken on added complexity for universities. Engagement has become a pivotal focus of attention as institutions locate themselves in an increasingly market driven and competitive higher education environment. Efforts to ensure both value for money and the quality of higher education teaching and learning have contributed to the increasing interest in assessing teaching quality. Meanwhile, the quality assurance mandate has drawn attention to the need for universities to demonstrate that they add value and enhance the quality of the student experience through monitoring and evaluation cycles of continuous improvement. Robust relationships established over time between students' investment of time, effort and interest in a range of educationally orientated activities, and favorable outcomes such as increased performance, persistence and satisfaction. Engaged students share the values and approaches to learning of their lecturers; spend time and energy on educationally meaningful tasks; learn with others inside and outside the classroom; actively explore ideas confidently with others; and learn to value

**Corresponding Author:-DivyaRana.**

Address:-Assistant Professor, Department of Business Administration, College of Administration and Finance, Saudi Electronic University, Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

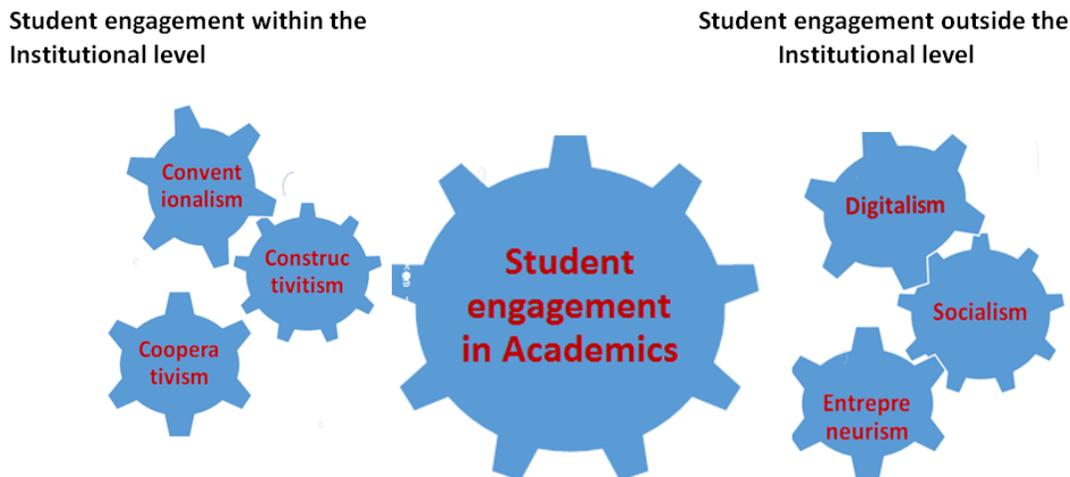
perspectives other than their own. When students are part of a learning community they are: positive about their identity as a member of a group; focused on learning; ask questions in class; feel comfortable contributing to class discussions; spend time on campus, social media twitter, facebook etc.; have made a few friends; and are motivated in some extra-curricular activity. Therefore giving importance to student engagement at the higher education in an institutional level is pivotal.

### Definition for Student Engagement:-

Student engagement defined as “the time and energy that students devote to educationally purposeful activities and the extent to which the institution gets students to participate in activities that lead to student success” (Kuh, 2003). Astin’s (1984) theory of student involvement, which he later renamed engagement, is defined as the amount of physical and emotional energy that a college student invests in their academic experience (Astin, 1984). Definitions of engagement often contain stated or unstated assumptions about aims and intended outcomes (‘engagement for what’) or beneficiaries (‘engagement for whom’), but these may vary from the actual observed effects of engagement on students, institutions and the higher education sector more broadly. Students can describe engaged learning experiences by the qualities that make them effective, rather than by a particular name or label. Students may cite the value of being in educational environments that encouraged them to interact with others, explore differing opinions, apply knowledge in real-world settings, incorporate their lived experiences into their learning, and participate in support networks.

Bensimon (2009) stated that ‘productive engagement is an important means by which students develop feelings about their peers, professors, and institutions that give them a sense of connectedness, affiliation, and belonging, while simultaneously offering rich opportunities for learning and development’. The concept of student engagement is based on the constructivist assumption that learning is influenced by how an individual participates in educationally purposeful activities. While constructivism is a theory (or philosophy) of learning, it is usually held as part of a broader set of understandings about the nature of teaching and learning, of students, and of the purposes of higher education generally. They provide discourses and conceptual tools that individuals draw on in thinking, talking and practicing in Fig 1.

**Fig 1:-**Conceptual Strategy for Student’s engagement in academics within and outside institutional level.



### Student engagement within the institutional Level:-

#### Conventionalism:-

Students need to be interest in the content. Students participate through attending lectures and complying with behavioral norms. Information transfer/teacher-focused approach. Learning through absorbing information provided to them.

#### Constructivism:-

Learning through co-construction of knowledge. Conceptual change/students-focused approach. Teaching is about developing students; minds so they can better appreciate the worlds, about making them autonomous.

**Cooperativism:-**

Use of student's heterogeneous expertise within group can lead to deep and meaningful learning by creating open questions and parallel tasks. Information transfer/teacher-student focused approach.

**Student engagement outside the institutional Level:-****Digitalism:-**

Invention through new techniques and technological awareness by the use of digital library and online interactions through blackboard collaborates have brought student engagement success.

**Socialism:-**

Students need to be engaged with the world beyond the classroom, challenging and changing structural inequity. Empowering students to see the inequities and structured nature of advantage and disadvantage in the world, and to change it. Social media, Face book and internet are good partners to socialism.

**Entrepreneurism:-**

Students need to be engaged in work-based/vocational learning. Learning through application of knowledge across disciplinary boundaries to real-life practical problems and collaboration with real market needs. Therefore, students develop skills to thrive in their careers and to contribute to the economy.

Student voices are essential when examining what works to improve student success in higher education the effects of engagement in multiple high-impact practices, both across and within different groups of students, provide strong evidence for the need to ensure that all students encounter several high-impact experiences during college. Therefore, our analysis has framed the objectives to provide a positive and perceptible "boost" to students' perceptions of their learning, regardless of their background.

**Literature Review:-**

Kezar and Kinzie (2006) focused on mission and its role in understanding how institutions approach the process of creating student engagement on campus and demonstrated a set of relationships between institutional mission and the five benchmarks of effective educational practice identified by the National Survey of Student Engagement (NSSE). Implications for institutional policy to be reviewed. The paper demonstrated and documented some of the meaningful differences in the ways institutions create engagement so that institutions of higher education can further examine the degree of congruence between their mission and the practices that promote student learning and can better implement approaches to student engagement. Finally suggested that the unique mission of campuses appeared to be a richer analytic tool for understanding the ways campuses enacted the program, policies, and practices related to engagement rather than institutional type (e.g., research, commuter, or liberal arts).

Kuh, (2001) pointed out the research conducted in the 1970s, 1980s, and 1990s was used to develop a systematic tool for measuring student engagement, the National Survey of Student Engagement (NSSE). Similar to the report by ECS (1990), the NSSE survey used research on effective educational practices to create five benchmarks (rather than three key components) of an engaged campus: (a) academic challenge, (b) student interactions with faculty, (c) active and collaborative learning, (d) enriching educational experiences, and (e) supportive campus environment. Chickering and Gamson, (1987) emphasized on the studies of fifteen years that campuses began to take greater responsibility for student learning, leaders and change agents attempted to identify the elements of a quality/effective learning environment. There is a plethora of research on improving undergraduate education by (Knefelkamp, 1991; Kuh, *et al.*, 1994; Love and Love, 1995). A report from Education Commission of the States (ECS, 1995) summarized the key components within three areas: (a) Quality begins with an organizational culture that values high expectations, respect for diverse learning styles, and emphasis on the early years of study; (b) Quality undergraduate curriculum requires coherence in learning, synthesizing experiences, on-going practice of learned skills, and integrating education with experience; and (c) Quality undergraduate instruction builds in active learning, assessment and prompt feedback, collaboration, adequate time on task, and out of class contact with faculty. Kuh, *et al.* (2005) highlighted on case studies of 20 high-performing colleges and universities, including large, small, urban, and special mission institutions, demonstrated that there were many roads to engagement based on institutional differences and that institutions share common approaches to achieve high levels of student engagement. They focused on Mission that refers to the overarching, long-term purposes of the institution that represent what an institution is and aspires to be. "The mission establishes the tone of a college and conveys its educational purposes, whether based on religious, ideological, or educational beliefs, giving direction to all aspects

of institutional life, including the policies and practices that foster student success” (Kuh, *et al.*, 2005). Many researchers identified a connection between the mission statement and resultant practices, programs, and activities of an organization (Birnbaum, 1991; Bolman and Deal, 1991; Leslie and Fretwell, 1996; Morgan, 1997; Tierney, 1991). Several studies examined mission from two different levels (e.g., Berquist, 1992; Birnbaum, 1991, Kezar and Eckel, 2002; Tierney, 1988): (a) unique, individual mission; and (b) institutional mission according to type or sector. The advantage of examining mission from these two perspectives was that each one examines an important way that people make sense of the role and identity of their institution, but each perspective operates in different ways. Finley and McNair, (2013) used the data set included NSSE data from 25,336 students at thirty-eight institutions across the state higher education systems in California, Oregon, and Wisconsin as these state had prior engagement in the Association of American Colleges and Universities’ (AAC&U’s). Liberal Education and America’s Promise (LEAP) States, Initiative, a systemic change effort designed to build platforms for campus action and frameworks to advance essential learning outcomes in general education and across institutional operations. These “LEAP states” adopted AAC&U’s Essential Learning Outcomes system-wide as a guiding framework for institutional-level curricular reform and assessment. The authors stressed on designing and sustaining an educational environment that results in high-quality learning experiences and equity in student achievement required a genuine commitment of time and effort, an exploration of the student experience, institutional assessment and data analysis, and the ability and courage to implement change. The Studies of Kuh and O’Donnell, (2013) helped to establish the efficacy of high-impact practices using nationwide data from the National Survey of Student Engagement (NSSE). Though such practices have long existed on campuses and are familiar to scholars and practitioners alike, with High-Impact Educational Practices, Kuh, (2008) provided two important insights. First, he offered evidence suggesting that by treating these practices as a *set* of effective tools rather than as discrete experiences, faculty, administrators, and other campus professionals could begin to conceptualize the *collective* impact these practices have on indicators of student success and learning. Second, he unveiled the need to consider the relationship between participation in high-impact practices and underserved student success.

National Center for Higher Education Management Systems Information Center 2011) reported that in recent years, the nationwide postsecondary completion rate has largely stagnated. Between 1998 and 2008, the average six-year college completion rate in the United States increased by only 3 percentage. According to Horn and Carroll (2006) graduation gap favoring white over Hispanic students is 12 percentage points overall, but it expands to 21 percentage points at highly selective research universities. With generous funding from the TG Philanthropy Program, the mixed-methods study presented aims to fill the aforementioned gaps and advance current understanding of the relationship between high-impact practices and underserved students’ success *and* learning. Part I takes a quantitative approach, analyzing NSSE data from a selected group of public universities in order to examine the relationship between cumulative participation in high-impact practices and students’ perceptions of their own learning, for underserved students as compared to their traditionally advantaged peers. Porter (2006) in his paper pointed out that institutional structure had little to no impact on student engagement and development. He argued that theory suggests peer ability (as measured by selectivity), institutional density, the differentiation of the curriculum, and the research orientation of the institution should all affect student engagement. Using the nationally representative Beginning Post-secondary Student survey, a non-linear selection on observables correction for selection bias, and a multilevel modeling approach, He found that institutional structures do affect student engagement in predictable and substantively significant ways. Crosling and Heagney (2009) focused on the key performance indicator in university quality assurance processes; the retention of students in their studies was an issue of concern worldwide. Implicit in the process of quality assurance was quality improvement. They examined student retention from a teaching and learning perspective, in terms of teaching and learning approaches that had an impact on students’ decisions to continue with or withdraw from their studies. The major need was to engage students in their studies, and the ways that student engagement can be facilitated through the teaching and learning programme in higher education. They also stated that development and utilization of learning and teaching strategies that promote a more active, student centered approach to learning, which draws on students’ previous experiences and interests, which helps to enhance student engagement, course commitment and retention on the programme. As reported by Department of Employment, Science and Training 2005 the importance of student retention in Australia underscored by its inclusion via institutional statistics as a key performance indicator in educational quality and in the allocation of the Commonwealth Government’s Learning and Teaching Performance Fund. Student attrition and retention rates were defined as ‘the percentage of students in a particular year who neither graduate nor continue studying in an award course at the same institution in the following year’ (Department of Employment, Science and Training, 2005). National Audit Office 2007 emphasized that as higher education courses take years to complete, an expected completion rate calculated by the Higher Education Statistics Agency. A more immediate measure of

retention was the proportion of an institution's intake enrolled in higher education in the year following their first entry to higher education was the 'continuation rate' (National Audit Office, 2007). Walshe (2008) stated that despite the unstated objective of improvement in quality assurance and in the Learning and Teaching Performance Fund, which aimed to reward excellence, but not clear how statistics might promote improvement. Stensaker (2008) argued that to achieve quality teaching and learning emanating from quality assurance, there needs to be movement beyond definitions and technical processes, with attention placed on good teaching and learning practice, which should then underpin statistical improvement. Krause and Coates (2008) pointed out that for the first year studies, it was crucial to encourage and assist student engagement as the foundation for successful study in later years. Student engagement defined as a student's academic commitment and application (Horstmanshoff and Zimitat, 2007; Astin, 1984) and shown in time and energy devoted to activities that were educationally purposeful, which also connotes the quality of student effort and students studying for meaning and understanding (Marton and Saljo, 1976) thus reflecting a constructivist approach to learning (Lawrence, 2005). Bryson and Hand (2007) stated that there was a 'dynamic interplay' between student engagement, the quality of student learning and the teaching and learning context. Chen *et al.* (2008) identified engagement as being composed of the two aspects of the degree of time and effort students use for education, but also the 'way an institution organizes learning opportunities and services' so as to encourage students to take part in and thus benefit from activities. Crosling, *et al.* (2008) focused on the curriculum in a broad sense, or the teaching and learning programme, provides an ideal forum for approaches and strategies that encourages students to engage, as experienced in one form or another by all students. Tinto (2000) also pointed out that the classroom was the only setting in which students meet other students and their teachers. On some conditions underpinned students engagement and their persistence in their studies include the institution and teachers holding high expectations of students in their learning. Many commencing students may not be adequately prepared for the rigors of academic study and the concurrent need for academic support, especially in disciplinary contexts, that help students to 'know the rules'. Feedback about academic performance was important for students in academic success, and involvement with fellow students in learning in the classroom. Yorke and Thomas 2003; Crosling, 2003 stated that there was a greater recognition of the need to induct students into the wider higher education environment via more student-centered strategies to enable students to learn about and understand the expectations and culture of higher education, some institutions were introducing 'longer and thinner' induction (Layer, *et al.* 2002; Thomas, *et al.* 2002). Warren (2002) identified three ways of providing academic support: separate, semi-integrated and integrated curriculum models, and similarly Earwaker (1993) identified traditional pastoral, professional and an integrated curriculum model as ways of providing both academic and pastoral support. Research on widening participation points towards the value of integrated models, particularly of academic support, with the provision of one-to-one support (Bamber and Tett, 2001; Comfort *et al.*, 2002) and access to additional support as required (Comfort *et al.*, 2002). Povey and Angier, 2004 focused on formative assessment can offer students:

- Space to explore, try out different approaches and develop their own ideas.
- An opportunity to become aware of their own progress and find out about themselves as learners.
- An opportunity to negotiate with tutors and/or peers on matters of assessment including the allocation of marks.

A 2001 national study revealed that approximately 70 per cent of full time students worked nearly 15 hours per week (Long and Hayden, 2001). Consequently, it was in the classroom that the opportunity to engage students was either made or lost. Several factors are important in improving student retention and success: *Orientation and induction, Authentic curriculum, Student-centered active learning, Integration of study skills, Formative assessment, Teachers – know your students.* DEST (2007) identified seven indicators used to measure each university's performance: 1. Proportion of graduates in full-time employment, 2. Proportion of graduates in further part-time or full-time study, 3. Graduates' perceptions of teaching, 4. Graduates' perceptions on the development of generic skills, 5. Graduates' overall satisfaction with their course, 6. Student progress, and 7. Student retention. Smart, *et al.* 2000 stated that the institutional academic environment was the primary means of learning, abilities and interests a central dimension of student success and therefore reasonable to expect that the most meaningful and relevant indicators to inform the development of strategic decision making that will lead to the desired teaching and learning outcomes at the institutional level. Chalmers, 2007a, identified four key dimensions of teaching that had an impact on the quality of student learning and student and staff experience: Institutional climate and systems, Diversity and inclusivity, Assessment and feedback and Engagement and learning community. McCabe (2000) pointed out that creating the conditions that foster student success in college has never been more important. As many as four-fifths of high school graduates need some form of postsecondary education to prepare them to live a economically self-sufficient life and to deal with the increasingly complex social, political, and cultural issues they will face. Earning a bachelor's degree was the most important rung in the economic ladder (Bowen 1978; Bowen and Bok 1998; Boyer and Hechinger 1981; Nunez 1998; Nunez and Cuccaro-Alamin, 1998; Pascarella and Terenzini 2005; Trow 2001). As college graduates on average earn almost a million dollars more over the course of their working lives than those with only a high

school diploma (Pennington 2004). Yet, if current trends continue in the production of bachelor's degrees, a 14 million shortfall of college-educated working adults was predicted by the year 2020 (Carnevale and Desrochers 2003). Moquin (2015) examined how student affairs professionals, primarily those working in student involvement, utilized various social media technologies to increase their engagement with undergraduate college students. Constructed a social media rubric that used to score the institutions based on how well their social media accounts fulfilled four major categories. Those categories, *Content*, *Consistency*, *Engagement*, and *Ease of Access*. Recommended for best practice for using social media to engage with students through an office of student involvement include trainings and sometimes speakers. The possibilities of improving social media engagement in higher education could vary depending on institutional and office needs. If used effectively, social media provides a familiar outlet where students and professionals feel comfortable developing relationships that foster increased dialogue and quality engagement within a healthy, digital community. Astin's (1984) theory of student involvement, as well as a collection of literature surrounding the impact of social media on college students and their engagement in order to understand the influence social media can have when engaging with students. Social media, a digital technology, has become part of our lives whether we want it to be or not. To give an idea of how much social media was in our lives; Duggan, *et al.* (2015) reported that in 2014, 52% of online adults used two or more social media sites, which was 10% increase from the same statistic reported from 2013. Social media's influence in higher education, a study done by the Kennedy School of Government at Harvard University in 2011 showed that over 90% of college students have profiles on Facebook alone (Davis, *et al.*, 2012). But is higher education keeping up? A study done by Barnes and Lescault in 2011 which included a national sample of 456 four-year accredited U.S. institutions, 100% of the schools reported using social media in some form (as cited in Davis *et al.* (2012). Junco (2012) described engagement as encompassing various factors such as investment in the academic experience, interactions with faculty, and involvement in co-curricular activities. He believed in the strong need to examine social media use and student engagement because of sites like Facebook that provide a student engagement platform and influenced by real-world engagement. The findings conflicted with previous studies that resulted in positive correlations between Facebook use and real world engagement. Heiberger and Harper (2008) who found that students who spend more time on social networks seem to also spend more time engaging in real-life social activities and participating in clubs or groups on campus. According to Hottell, *et al.* (2014) social media had the potential to increase the impact of practices and programs that positively related to student success and engagement, without increasing costs to the college. One of the methods used was creating a Facebook group page that only allowed the summer bridge program, instructors and the students who were a part of it to participate. They also noted that first generation students could benefit more from engagement with peers, faculty, and student affairs professionals, than actually attending a summer bridge program. These methods could work in the sense that it would save colleges money and provide them with the chance to approach college students of all ages in a way they are already familiar with. Social media was not a way for them to meet 'strangers' but to keep in touch and connected with people they already knew. Creighton *et al.*, 2013 sought out a better understand how traditionally aged college students perceive social media use and how it contributes to their academic success concluded that the participants agreed that social media brought a lot of benefits with it in terms of academic success and engagement. The findings reported that the students who participated in their study felt that without the use of social media, their relationships would not be as strong and without it, they would not be able to maintain relationships or engage faculty or staff at the college. Haegeret *al.*, 2014 also pointed out that social media sites provided students with greater access to a broader network of social support and could close the distance between students and their relationships with faculty and staff. Relationship building was an essential driving force behind the level of success a student will have in college. According to Leece and Campbell (2011), social media delivers action and a connectedness to a community of peers and aids to link the student to others involved with similar activities and like-minded interests. Gray *et al.* (2013) suggested that a students' ability to develop strong, meaningful social connections, affects their successful adaptation to college as social media use, Facebook in particular, positively linked to the student's social adjustment to college. Gil de Zuniga, *et al.* (2012), state that social capital important because it can have a positive effect on social development. Studies such as one have shown that Facebook seems to be the most efficient social media site for student affairs professionals to engage students on. Mertens (2015) also states that pragmatic research grounded on the fact that there was only one reality but that individuals can have different views on how they perceive that reality. Implementing Merten's (2015) definition of what pragmatic research entail, one could identify individual interpretations of the reality of social media in addition to gathering a plethora of data focused on its place in higher education. According to Sarah Lawrence College 2012, Proactive students can volunteer with an existing initiative helping it to remain sustainable or grow, or start new relationships with community partners that address a particular challenge. Helferty and Clarke's research (2009) into student-led campus, climate change initiatives in Canada showed that the most common type of student-led initiatives focused

on raising awareness. They were usually a project in itself or combined with other types of programming with the aim of facilitating behavioral change on campus and providing campus community members with concrete options for taking personal action to reduce their impact on the climate. Hustinx, *et al.* (2010) conducted a study on a sample of 5,794 university students from six countries, including Belgium, Canada, China, Finland, Japan, and the United States. These countries selected on the basis that they represent distinct institutional and socio-political contexts, allowing researchers, to accurately determine the nature of how societal characteristics may influence student motivations to volunteer (MTV). Results support the premise of the study, illustrating that MTV amongst student volunteers vary according to the differences in socio-political regimes within their respective countries, and that the greater the governmental involvement in social service delivery, the less likely MTV will be altruistic in nature. Belgium, China, and Japan were among the countries that fell into the low-altruistic MTV category given their corporatist, statist, and statist/liberal regimes, respectively. These results applied to the study conducted by Hustinx *et al.* (2012), whereby although Chinese university students reported a higher overall rate of volunteering than their Canadian counterparts, the MTV may not be entirely altruistic due to the heavy governmental and state-run influence. Conversely, in the present study, Hustinx, *et al.* (2010) hypothesized that altruistic MTV would garner strongest support from the liberal regime of the United States, moderate support from the liberal/corporatist regime of Canada, and weak support in the social-democratic regime of Finland. Interestingly however, results determined that Finnish students were in fact most likely to report greater altruistic MTV, followed by students from the United States and Canada who rated altruistic MTV as equally important. And suggested that the Finnish results may be due, in part, to students possessing the need to view their volunteer contributions as more altruistic, to maintain the socialist nature of society in response to the economic depression of the 1990's. Kuh (2009) argues that: engagement has compensatory effects on grades and persistence for students who most need a boost to performance because they were not adequately prepared academically when they start college...

#### **Objectives of the Study:-**

The following are the objectives of this study

1. To Identify the degree of student involvement in academics at the institutional level.
2. To assesses the extent to which students engage in educational practices.
3. To assess the challenging nature of coursework and the perceptions of the college environment.

#### **Research Methodology:-**

This exploratory study provides a research of students enrolled in graduate and postgraduate courses at a Saudi Electronic University. An online survey was sent to 300 graduate and postgraduate students currently enrolled in a SEU. But the actual sample taken for consideration is 287. The analysis using SPSS 19. An introductory e-mail was sent to potential participants explaining the objectives of the study, the procedure, confidentiality, anonymity, their right to withdraw at any stage. A follow up e-mail was sent reiterating the purpose of the study, and an explanation of the research procedure together with a link to the questionnaire using Survey Monkey. Non-respondents were followed up at two weeks.

#### **Data Analysis and Discussions:-**

##### **Student Involvement in Academics at the Institutional Level:-**

Table 4.1 identifies students' involvement in academics at the institutional level according to their demographic traits who have been classified for the purposes of this study into four categories: higher-order learning, reflective & integrative learning, learning strategies and quantitative reasoning. Statistical analysis identifies higher-order learning as the most important factor, with an overall average of 3.40 and a standard deviation of 0.42. Higher-order learning includes the applying facts, theories, or methods to practical problems or new situations, analyzing an idea, experience, or line of reasoning by examining its parts, evaluation a point of view, decision, or information source and so on. This is followed by the factors related to reflective learning which are related to combined ideas from different courses completing assignments, connected learning to societal problems or issues, included diverse perspectives (political, religious, racial/ethnic, gender, etc.), examined the strengths and weaknesses of own views on a topic, and so on with an overall average of 3.29 and a standard deviation of 0.45. Learning strategies came into third factor related to strategies, which are Identified key information from reading assignments, reviewed your notes after class, summarized what you learned in class from course materials with overall average is 3.19 with a standard deviation of 0.50. Quantitative reasoning rank fourth in importance This factor includes I and they includes reached conclusions based on your own analysis of numerical information, used numerical information to examine a real-world problem or issue and evaluated what you learned in class or from course materials with an average of 2.79 and a standard deviation of 0.56.

**Table 4.1:-Student Involvement in Academics at the Institutional Level**

<b>Involvement</b>	<b>Items</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Standard deviation</b>	<b>Overall</b>
<b>Academic Factors</b>	<b>Higher-order learning</b>	3.40	0.50	Mean, 3.40; standard deviation, 0.42
	Applying facts, theories, or methods to practical problems or new situations	3.29	0.77	
	Analyzing an idea, experience, or line of reasoning by examining its parts	3.33	0.68	
	Evaluation a point of view, decision, or information source	3.48	0.69	
	Forming a new idea or understanding from various pieces of information.	3.41	0.77	
	<b>Reflective &amp; Integrative Learning</b>	3.21	0.76	Mean, 3.29; standard deviation, 0.45
	Combined ideas from different courses when completing assignments	3.12	0.70	
	Connected your learning to societal problems or issues	3.54	0.70	
	Included diverse perspectives (political, religious, racial/ethnic, gender, etc.).	3.01	0.60	
	Examined the strengths and weaknesses of your own views on a topic.	3.15	0.79	
	Tried to better understand someone else's views by imagining how an issue looks from his or her perspective	3.14	0.61	
	Learned something that changed the way you understand the concept	3.33	0.62	
	Connected ideas from your courses to your prior experiences	3.12	0.88	
	<b>Learning Strategies</b>	3.45	0.70	Mean, 3.19; standard deviation, 0.50
	Identified key information from reading assignments	3.24	0.73	
	Reviewed your notes after class	3.55	0.60	
	Summarized what you learned in class from course materials	3.02	0.61	
	<b>Quantitative Reasoning</b>	3.01	0.54	Mean, 2.79; standard deviation, 0.56
	Reached conclusions based on your own analysis of numerical information	3.10	0.68	
	Used numerical information to examine a real-world problem or issue	3.23	0.69	
	Evaluated what you learned in class or from course materials.	3.11	0.77	

**Students Engagement in Educational Practices:-**

Table 4.2 indicated that maximum Beta value in case of dependence on academic factors was obtained as 0.191 that means variable was the most capable of explaining variance of collaborative learning. The Beta values for learning and quantitative reasoning were 0.165 and 0.129 respectively. Hence, variances of these two variables were explained by dependence on academic engagement. However, amount of variance of autonomy was explained by dependence on academic engagement was higher than amount of explanation of student-faculty interaction and

effective teaching practices. The maximum Beta value in case of experience with faculty explanation of student-faculty interaction and effective teaching practices was obtained as 0.128 and 0.122 which means that variable has the most capable explaining variance of experience with faculty. In addition. Beta values for quality of interaction and supportive environment were respectively 0.105 and 0.103. Therefore, majority of variances of these three variables were explained by academic engagement, learning with peers and experience with faculties.

**Table 4.2:-**The regression coefficient of independent variables to dependent variables of assesses the students engagement in educational practices

Items	Variables	Non-Standard Coefficient		Standardized coefficient		p-value
		B	SE	Beta	T	
Higher-order learning	<i>Academic engagement</i>					
Reflective & Integrative Learning		-0.031	0.052	-0.058	0.530	0.530
Learning Strategies		0.081	0.055	0.165	0.553	0.553
Quantitative Reasoning		0.012	0.050	0.129	0.231	0.231
Collaborative Learning	<i>Learning with Peers</i>	0.040	0.034	0.191	0.560	0.560
Discussions with Diverse Others		-0.010	0.047	-0.100	0.021	0.021
Student-Faculty Interaction	<i>Experiences with Faculty</i>	0.111	0.044	0.128	0.000	0.000
Effective Teaching Practices		0.133	0.056	0.122	0.000	0.000
Quality of Interactions	<i>Campus Environment</i>	0.127	0.041	0.105	0.000	0.000
Supportive Environment		0.155	0.050	0.103	0.022	0.022

#### Major Challenges of Coursework and the Perceptions of the College Environment:-

In practice, most of the students face problems that are of different dimensions and magnitudes. These problems, generally, prevent these students from realizing their potential. A complex web of academic, learning with peers, experience with faculty and campus environment challenges were revealed as key challenges to students. Table 4.3 showing the scoring of scale components. Table 4.4 presents views regarding challenges facing students. Statistical analysis identifies academic challenges as the most important. Academic challenges includes the higher-order learning, reflective & integrative learning, learning stogies, and quantitative reasoning.

**Table 4.3:-** The scoring of scale components.

Component	Items
<i>Academic Challenges</i>	Higher-order learning 3-8-11-14-28-31-43
	Reflective & Integrative Learning 4-9-21-29-32-36-38
	Learning Strategies 1-5-12-15-23-27-37
	Quantitative Reasoning 2-6-13-20-33-47
<i>Learning with Peers Challenges</i>	Collaborative Learning 7-16-25-34-39
	Discussions with Diverse Others 10-17-24-35
<i>Experiences with Faculty Challenges</i>	Student-Faculty Interaction 18-22-26-42
	Effective Teaching Practices 19-30-45
<i>Campus Environment Challenges</i>	Quality of Interactions 41-46
	Supportive Environment 40-44

**Table 4.4:-**The results of Cronbach's alpha for variables

Components	p-value	Correlation (Pearson)	R <sup>2</sup>	B-value	T-test
<i>Academic Challenges</i>	0.3301	0.8871	0.7967	13.8	0.81
<i>Learning with Peers Challenges</i>	0.2086	0.7706	0.4655	8.0	0.15

<i>Experiences with Faculty Challenges</i>	0.0169	0.9565	0.8584	8.5	0.18
<i>Campus Environment Challenges</i>	0.2061	0.7806	0.4655	8.0	0.15

Academic learning was significantly ( $P < 0.3301$ ) and positively correlated (0.8871) to target group. The co-efficient of determination therefore expressed that 79.67% of the support higher-order learning, reflective & integrative learning, learning stogies, and quantitative reasoning. The regression co-efficient (B value) expressed that each strategies in measures resulted in 13.8%. The T-test expressed significant association between academic challenges and learning. The positive correlation depicts that as learning with peers includes collaborative learning and discussions with diverse. The learning with peers was significant ( $P < 0.2086$ ) with a coefficient of determination of 77.06%. Experience with faculty was significant at even ( $P < 0.0169$ ) respectively. They co-efficient of determination (95.65%) shows that target deposit was responsible for 85.84% of poor support of faculties and supportive environment. These challenges include student-faculty interaction and effective teaching practices to prepare students. Campus environment challenges rank fourth in importance was significantly ( $P < 0.2061$ ) and positively correlated (0.7806). The co-efficient of determination therefore expressed that 46.55% of the variables incases the challenges. The regression co-efficient (B value) expressed that each frustration in target deposit resulted in 8% cases of hypertension for each failed attempt. The T-test expressed significant association between poor quality of interaction and supportive environment. Supportive environment challenges refer to the providing support to help students succeed academically, using learning support services (tutoring services, writing center, etc.). Using learning support services (tutoring services, writing center, etc.) and so on.

### Conclusion and Recommendations:-

The paper provided insights on how Saudi Electronic University students involvement in academic at the institutional level. Firstly, it was found that students have a variety of experiences with E-learning in university. These include the use of tools such as Twitter, Facebook, YouTube and wikis, etc. Secondly, it was found that the e-learning environment provides a good way for Saudi students to ease into the education setting. Through the affordances provided by e-learning resources, such as the ability to communicate to classmates and teachers without any face to face interaction, Saudi students feel more comfortable with engaging in online interaction, and become better prepared to do so in face to face classes. Students expressed that E-learning gave them the opportunity to learn from their classmates, and made them appreciate the value of peer knowledge. On the other hand, when we look at emerged factors through the discussion of other segregation and language barriers. While e-learning led to students participating in a neutral environment, the prevalence of their enculturation on segregation hindered some of the students from interacting as actively as they could. The language barrier was also found to be an extra, initial barrier that Saudi students needed to break through first before they could utilize e-learning opportunities to their utmost potential to gain a deeper and wider understanding of their studies. This paper identified, the most engaging teaching methods as well as the least engaging. The application of established measures of engagement is novel and provides insights into specific teaching methods for enhancing the engagement of particular groups of students at the course level.

This leads to a few recommendations for future research:

1. Comparative studies to develop a national picture of student engagement in the KSA;
2. Finer-grained studies on student engagement in structures and practices, including
3. Student governance, student voices in curriculum-shaping and the perennial problem of 'closing the feedback loop';
4. Exploration of the concept of 'student engagement' from the student perspective, including the changing contexts such as part-time students, students who return to interrupted studies, working students and students with family responsibilities;
5. A locally grounded but internationally validated conceptualization of student engagement, which can be tested and improved in classrooms and student societies;
6. The development of a robust body of evidence built up through local studies to confirm, challenge or redefine other studies.

**References:-**

1. Astin, A. W. 1984. Student involvement: A developmental theory for higher education. *Journal of College Student Personnel*, 25(4), 518-529.
2. Bamber, J. and Tett, L. 2001. Ensuring integrative learning experiences for nontraditional students in Higher education”, *Journal of Widening Participation and Lifelong Learning*, 3(1), 8-18.
3. Barnes, N. G. and Lescault, A. M. 2011. The 2011 Inc. 500 Social Media Update: Blogging Declines as Never Tools Rule. [www.Inc.com](http://www.Inc.com).
4. Bensimon, E. M. 2009. Foreword. In *Student Engagement in Higher Education*, eds., Harper, S. R. &Quaye, S. J., Routledge, New York and Oxon, pp. xxi-xxvi.
5. Berquist, W. 1992. *The four cultures of the academy*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
6. Birnbaum, R. 1991. *How colleges work: The cybernetics of academic organization and leadership*. San Francisco: Jossey- Bass.
7. Bolman, L., and Deal, T. 1991. *Reframing organizations*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
8. Bowen, H. 1978. Some Reflection on the Current Position and Future Outlook of American Higher Education. *Academe: Bulletin of the AAUP*, 66(1), 8-15.
9. Bowen, W. G., and Bok, D. C. 1998. *The Shape of the River: Long-Term Consequences of Considering Race in College and University Admissions*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
10. Boyer, E. L., and Hechinger, F. M. 1981. *Higher Learning in the Nation’s Service: A Carnegie Foundation Essay*. Princeton, NJ: Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching.
11. Bryson, C. and Hand, L. 2007. The Role of engagement in inspiring teaching and learning, *Innovations in Education and Teaching International*. 44 (4), 349-363.
12. Carnevale, A. P., and Desrochers, D. M. 2003. Preparing Students for the Knowledge Economy: What School Counselors Need to Know. *Professional School Counseling*, 6(4), 228-236.
13. Chalmers, D. 2007. A review of Australian and international quality systems and indicators of learning and teaching. Australian Learning and Teaching Council. Retrieved July 24, 2008, from [http://www.altc.edu.au/carrick/webdav/site/carricksite/users/siteadmin/public/t&lindicatorsreport\\_1.2\\_aug07.pdf](http://www.altc.edu.au/carrick/webdav/site/carricksite/users/siteadmin/public/t&lindicatorsreport_1.2_aug07.pdf).
14. Chen, H. L., Lattuca, L. R. and Hamilton, E. R. 2008. Conceptualizing engagement: Contributions of faculty to Student Engagement in Engineering, *Journal of Engineering Education*, 97(3), 339-352.
15. Chickering, A., and Gamson, Z. 1987. Seven principles of good practice in undergraduate education. *AAHE Bulletin*, 39, 3-7.
16. Comfort, H., Baker, P., and Cairns, L. 2002. A Qualitative Study Investigating Factors which Help and Hinder Learning Progression FE to HE. Report on the Transitions Project. Leicester College.
17. Creighton, J. L., Foster, J. W., Klingsmith, L., and Withey, D. K. 2013. I just look it up: Undergraduate student perception of social media use in their academic success. *The Journal of Social Media in Society*, 2(2).
18. Crosling G, Thomas, L. and Heagney, M. (eds) 2008. *Improving student retention in higher education*, New York: RoutledgeFalmer.
19. Crosling, G. 2003. Connecting New Students. A faculty academic transition program, *Widening Participation and Lifelong Learning*. 5(1).
20. Crosling, G., and Heagney, M. 2009. *Improving student retention in higher education Improving Teaching and Learning*, vol. 51, no. 2, 2009 Monash University Liz Thomas Edge Hill University, UK.
21. Davis, C. H., Deil-Amen, R., Rios-Aguilar, C., and Gonzalez Canche, M. S. 2012. *Social Media, Higher Education, and Community Colleges: A Research Synthesis and Implications for the Study of Two-Year Institutions*. *Community College Journal of Research and Practice*, 1-14.
22. Department of Employment, Science and Training, 2005. *Review of Higher Education Outcome Performance Indicators*. Report prepared by Access Economics Pty Ltd, April.
23. DEST [Department of Education, Science and Training]. 2007. *Learning and Teaching Performance Fund*. Retrieved May 12, 2007, from [http://www.dest.gov.au/sectors/higher\\_education/policy\\_issues\\_reviews/key\\_issues/learning\\_teaching/ltpf/2007ltpf.html](http://www.dest.gov.au/sectors/higher_education/policy_issues_reviews/key_issues/learning_teaching/ltpf/2007ltpf.html).
24. Duggan M., Ellison N.B., Lampe C., Lenhart A., & Madden M. (2015). *Social Media Update*. Pew Research Center. Retrieved from: <http://www.pewinternet.org/2015/01/09/social-media-update-2014>.
25. Earwaker, J. 1993. *Helping and supporting students*. Buckingham, Society for Research into Higher Education and Open University Press.
26. Education Commission of the States (ECS). 1995. *Making quality count in undergraduate education*. Denver, CO: Author.
27. Finley, A. and McNair, T. 2013. Assessing Underserved Students’ Engagement in High-Impact Practices by the Association of American Colleges and Universities. <http://www.aacu.org/assessinghips.1-33>.
28. Gil de Zuniga, H., Jung, N., and Valenzuela, S. 2012. Social media use for news and individuals' social capital, civic engagement and political participation. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication*, 17(3), 319-336.

29. Gray, R., Vitak, J., Easton, E. W., and Ellison, N. B. 2013. Examining social adjustment to college in the age of social media: Factors influencing successful transitions and persistence. *Computers & Education*, 67, 193-207.
30. Haeger, H., and BrckaLorenz, A. 2014. Bridge or Barrier: The Impact of Social Media on Engagement for First-generation College Students.
31. Heiberger, G., and Harper, R. 2008. Have you Facebooked Astin lately? Using technology to increase student involvement. *New Directions for Student Services*, 124, 19-35.
32. Helferty, A. and Clarke, A. 2009. Student-led campus climate change initiatives in Canada. *International Journal of Sustainability in Higher Education*, 10(3), 287-300. doi: 10.1108/14676370910972594.
33. Horn, L. and Carroll, C. D. 2006. Placing College Graduation Rates in Context: How 4-Year College Graduation Rates Vary with Selectivity and the Size of Low-Income Enrollment (Washington, DC: US Department of Education), ix, <http://nces.ed.gov/pubs2007/2007161.pdf>.
34. Horstmanshof, L and Zimitat, C. 2007. Future time orientation predicts academic engagement among first-year university students, *British Journal of educational Psychology*, 77, pp. 703-718.
35. Hottell, D. L., Martinez-Aleman, A. M., and Rowan-Kenyon, H. T. 2014. Summer Bridge Program 2.0: Using Social Media to Develop Students' Campus Capital. *Change: The Magazine of Higher Learning*, 46(5), 34-38.
36. Hustinx, L., Handy, F., and Cnaan, R. A. 2012. Student Volunteering in China and Canada: Comparative Perspectives. *Canadian Journal of Sociology*, 37(1), 55-83.
37. Hustinx, L., Handy, F., Cnaan, R. A., Brudney, J. L., Pessi, A. B., and Yamauchi, N. 2010. Social and Cultural Origins of Motivations to Volunteer: A Comparison of University Students in Six Countries. *International Sociology*, 25(3), 349-382. doi: 10.1177/0268580909360297.
38. Junco, R. 2012. The relationship between frequency of Facebook use, participation in Facebook activities, and student engagement. *Computers & Education*, 58(1), 162-171.
39. Kezar, A. and Kinzie, J. 2006. Examining the Ways Institutions Create Student Engagement: The Role of Mission, *Journal of College Student Development*, March/April, 47(2).
40. Kezar, A., and Eckel, P. 2002. The effect of institutional culture on change strategies in higher education: Universal principles or cultural responsive concepts? *The Journal of Higher Education*, 73(4), 435-460.
41. Knefelkamp, L. 1991. The seamless curriculum. CIC Deans Institute: Is this good for our students? Washington, DC: Council for Independent Colleges.
42. Krause, K. and Coates, H. 2008. Students' Engagement in first-year university, *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education*, 33(5), 493-505.
43. Kuh, G. 2001. Assessing what really matters to student learning: Inside the National Survey of Student Engagement. *Change*, May/June, 10-18.
44. Kuh, G. 2003. How are we doing at engaging students? *About Campus*, 8(1), 9-16.
45. Kuh, G. D. 2008. High-Impact Practices: What they Are, Who has Access to them, and Why they Matter, Association of American Colleges and Universities, Washington DC.
46. Kuh, G. D. 2009. What Student Affairs Professionals Need to Know about Student Engagement. *Journal of College Student Development*, 50 (6), 683-706.
47. Kuh, G. D. and O'Donnell, K. 2013. Ensuring Quality & Taking High-Impact Practices to Scale (Washington, DC: Association of American Colleges and Universities).
48. Kuh, G. D., Douglas, K. B., Lund, J. P., and RaminGyurnek, J. 1994. Student learning outside the classroom: Transcending artificial boundaries (ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Report No. 8). Washington, DC: ASHE-ERIC.
49. Kuh, G., Kinzie, J., Schuh, J., and Whitt, E. 2005. Student success in college: Creating conditions that matter. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
50. Lawrence, J. 2005. Re-conceptualising attrition and retention: integrating theoretical, research and student perspectives, *Studies in Learning, Evaluation Innovation and Development*, 2(3), 16-33.
51. Layer, G, Srivastava, A. and Stuart, M. 2002. Achieving student success in Student Success in Higher Education. Bradford: Action on Access.
52. Leece, R., and Campbell, E. 2011. Engaging Students through Social Media. *Journal of the Australian & New Zealand Student Services Association*, (38).
53. Leslie, D., and Fretwell, E. 1996. Wise moves in hard times: Creating and managing resilient colleges and universities. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
54. Long, M. and Hayden, M. 2001. Paying Their Way: A Survey of Australian Undergraduate University Student Finances, 2000, Canberra, Australian Vice-Chancellors' Committee.
55. Love, P. G., and Love, A. G. 1995. Enhancing student learning: Intellectual, social, and emotional integration (ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Report No. 4). Washington, DC: ASHEERIC.
56. Marton, F, and Saljo, R. 1976. On qualitative differences in learning: Outcome and process, *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 46, 4-11.
57. McCabe, R. H. 2000. No One to Waste: A Report to Public Decision-Makers and Community College. Leaders. Washington, DC: American Association of Community Colleges.

58. Mertens, D. M. 2015. *Research and evaluation in education and psychology: Integrating diversity with quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods*. Sage Publications.
59. Moquin, M. 2015. *Logged in and Engaged: Examining How Social Media Can Develop, Maintain, and Increase College Student Engagement*. Education Student Publications. Paper 8.
60. Morgan, G. 1997. *Images of organization*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
61. National Audit Office. 2007. *Staying the Course: The retention of students in higher education*. London.
62. National Center for Higher Education Management Systems Information Center, "Graduation Rates," accessed January 19, 2011, <http://www.higheredinfo.org/dbrowser/?level=nation&mode=graph&state=0&submeasure=27>. Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS) graduation rates are based on a defined cohort of first-time, full-time students who have not transferred from another institution.
63. Nunez, A. M. 1998. *First-Generation Students: A Longitudinal Analysis of Educational and Early Labor Market Outcomes*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Association for the Study of Higher Education, Miami, FL.
64. Nunez, A. M., and Cuccaro-Alamin, S. 1998. *First-Generation Students: Undergraduates Whose Parents Never Enrolled in Postsecondary Education (NCES 98-082)*. U.S. Department of Education. Washington, DC: National Center for Education Statistics.
65. Pascarella, E. T. and Terenzini, P. T. 2005. *How College Affects Students: A Third Decade of Research*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
66. Pennington, H. 2004. *Fast Track to College: Increasing Postsecondary Success for All Students*. Boston: Jobs for the Future.
67. Porter, S. R. 2006. *Institutional Structures And Student Engagement Research in Higher Education*, 47(5), 521–558.
68. Povey, H. and Angier, C. 2004. 'I can do it, but it'll be a battle': finding her place as an undergraduate mathematician. Sheffield Hallam University.
69. Sarah Lawrence College. 2012. *Student-Led Initiatives*. Sarah Lawrence College: New York. Retrieved from <http://www.slc.edu/studentlife/community-partnerships/student-ledinitiatives.html>.
70. Smart, J. C., Feldman, K. A. and Ethington, C. A. 2000. *Academic disciplines: Holland's theory and the study of college students and faculty*. Nashville, TN: Vanderbilt University Press.
71. Stensaker, B. 2008. *Outcomes of Quality assurance: A discussion of knowledge, methodology and validity*, *Quality in Higher Education*, 14 (1), 5-13.
72. Thomas, E., Woodrow, M. and Yorke, M. 2002. 'Access and Retention', in Layer, G et al. (eds) *Student Success in Higher Education*. Bradford: Action on Access.
73. Thomas, L., Quinn, J., Slack, K. and Casey, L. 2002. *Student Services: Effective approaches to retaining students in higher education*, Institute for Access Studies: Staffordshire University.
74. Tierney, W. 1988. *Organizational culture in higher education*. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 59, 2-21.
75. Tierney, W. 1991. *Organizational culture in higher education: Defining the essentials*. In M. Peterson (Ed.), *ASHE Reader on Organization and Governance* (pp. 126-139). Needham Heights, MA: Ginn.
76. Tinto, V. 2000. 'Reconstructing the first year of college', in *Student Support Services Model Retention Strategies for Two-year Colleges*, Washington DC: Council for Opportunity in Education.
77. Trow, M. 2001. *From Mass Higher Education to Universal Access: The American Advantage*. In *InDefense of American Higher Education*, edited by P. G. Altbach, P. J. Gumpert, and D. B. Johnstone, 110-143. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press.
78. Walshe, T. 2008. *Rewarding Excellence and Promoting Improvement in Higher Education Teaching in Australia*, *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, 30 (3), 273-282.
79. Warren, D. 2002. *Curriculum Design in a Context of Widening Participation in Higher Education*, *Arts and Humanities in Higher Education*, (1), 85-89.
80. Yorke, M. and Thomas, L. 2003. *Improving the Retention of Students from Lower Socio-economic Groups*, *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, 25 (1), 63-74.