Student Engagement, Factors, and Methods Affecting Active Learning in English Language Teaching

by Muzayyanah Muzayyanah

Student Engagement, Factors, and Methods Affecting Active Learning in English Language Teaching

*Daniel Ginting

Universitas Ma Chung, Indonesia

*Correspondence:
daniel.ginting@machung.ac.id

Abstract

Learning is the process of gathering information, determining its relevance, and combining it with existing knowledge to rebuild knowledge. Students' academic improvement is aided by learning. One of the most important determinants of successful learning is student involvement. Student involvement is defined as active participation in a variety of academic, co-curricular, or school-related activities, as well as a dedication to achieving learning objectives. The current research has two main goals. The first step is to learn about the current condition of participation in both online and offline settings. The second goal is to comprehend the factors that influence engagement. The research finishes with pedagogical implications for active learning, classroom flipping, case-based learning, problem-based learning, and peer education as English language teaching approaches.

Keywords: language teaching, flipped class, problem-based learning

INTRODUCTION

One of the most important determinants of successful learning is student involvement. Student engagement, in general, refers to active participation in a variety of academic and co-curricular or school-related activities, as well as a commitment to achieving learning objectives. Students who are interested in learning are more likely to devote time and effort to achieve their goals. As a result, involvement is viewed as a motivator in obtaining academic success or achievement (Astin, 1984; Pascarella & Terenzini, 1991; Robinson & Hullinger, 2008; Tinto, 2012; Kuh et al., 2009). The degree to

which students act in terms of attention, curiosity, interest, enthusiasm, and motivation to accomplish advancement in their studies can be used to determine how engaged they are in learning.

Some important questions start to surface. Is student engagement linked to good learning in any setting, whether offline or online? A similar question was once posed by certain authors (Chen, Lambert, & Guidry, 2010; Chen & Jang, 2010; Fisher, 2010; Rabe-Hemp, Woollen, & Humiston, 2009; Robinson & Hullinger, 2008; Wyatt, 2011). What variables influence student participation? How can teachers construct their lessons so that students are actively engaged in learning activities? This research aims to provide a comprehensive evaluation of the literature on a number of experts' perspectives on student participation in the field of English language instruction. This paper closes with some practical implications for English language teaching strategies, as well as recommendations for further research on student participation.

STUDENT ENGAGEMENT IN OFFLINE SETTING STUDIES

Connell and Wellborn (1991), Skinner and Belmont (1993), Finn, Pannozzo, and Voelkl (1995), and Birch and Ladd (1995) are just a few of the authors that have contributed to the development of a theory of student participation in offline contexts (1997). These authors state that student engagement is linked to their school experiences, which support their learning attempts. Behavior, emotion/affective, and cognitive engagement are the three types of engagement. These three engagements are all linked together. Teachers' instructions, for example, can positively influence students' behavioral engagement (e.g., class participation, attendance, and positive classroom/school behavior) by promoting students' self-regulation (cognitive engagement) or relationships/sense of belonging to school (affective or emotional engagement). The three categories of engagement discussed in this section are behavioral engagement, emotional engagement, and cognitive engagement.

The following behaviors are examples of behavioral engagement. The first is following rules, adhering to class norms, or engaging in disruptive activity, such as skipping school. The second habit is demonstrating interest in learning and academic work, such as perseverance, concentration, attention, asking questions, and active participation in class discussions. The third option is to participate in school-related extracurricular activities. Finn, Pannozzo, and Voelkl (1995) found that the more autonomously students behave or take initiative, the more deeply they engage in learning activities. Similarly, if professors take the lead in initiating actions, students may be less engaged in learning. Students' participation in group activities, obedience to class regulations, willingness to become autonomous learners, or any academic activity aimed at school achievement are examples of these behaviors (Birch & Ladd, 1997).

Students' affective reactions to classroom learning activities are referred to as emotional involvement. Their interest in anything, boredom, happiness, grief, and anxiety,

as well as sentiments of pleasure or unhappiness with school, teachers, or job, are all examples of this behavior (Connell & Wellborn, 1991; Skinner & Belmont, 1993). Low and high emotional engagement is defined by Csikzentmihalyi (1988). Students work more enthusiastically when they interact with something in a dynamic way.

Cognitive engagement refers to a person's efforts to demonstrate his capacity to learn new skills or knowledge. Those who have a high level of cognitive engagement are more committed to finishing their work than the average person. They never give up easily when confronted with challenges since they are resilient. Instead, they hunt for answers and positively perceive issue. Metacognitive methods are well-used by students who have a high level of cognitive engagement. When performing activities, they can plan, monitor, and assess their cognition. They prefer to undertake learning tasks individually, such as exercises, summarizing lessons, and elaborating on new materials, during the learning process.

STUDENT ENGAGEMENT IN ONLINE SETTING STUDIES

For distance education, Kember (1995) developed a paradigm of student participation. He concentrates on adult learners who study from home and have a variety of responsibilities, including family, work, and other obligations. Student engagement is measured in his model by the following behaviors.

The first difficulty with distance education student engagement is their participation in academic concerns. Adult learners who study online can usually finish their studies. Several factors, such as work experience or previous schooling, influence their learning persistence. Online students who have taken distance classes before and have prior expertise will find it easier to study online. The second point to consider is social integration. This means that high-engagement online learners are more likely to receive support from their social surroundings, such as family and friends. The third issue concerns external hurdles that they encountered while participating in the online program. Adult online students who suffer few external obstacles, such as a lack of time, support, or unanticipated life events, are more likely to finish their education. Academic integration is the last option. This means that online students who have little or no problems with course objectives, assignments, or activities can persevere and finish their distance learning program on time.

Students are engaged in meaningful learning activities when they connect with other learners and complete substantial tasks, according to Kearsley and Schneiderman (1998). The availability of technology devices to support learning activities occurring in a group context (project-based, authentic, or meaningful interactions), assignments or learning activities to practice teamwork challenges, and learning outputs with well-defined objectives applicable in real-life situations were all found to be important in their study.

According to Kuh (2003), pupils get engaged when they have a strong desire to master the subjects. As a result, individuals see learning as a worthwhile endeavor for their

advantage. Similarly, students who are engaged in learning are ready to practice and learn from comments on their work, as well as carry out problem-solving approaches autonomously. Teachers and schools must also provide engaging activities and high-quality instruction, according to Kuh.

Community of Inquiry (CoI)

Garrison, Anderson, and Archer founded the Community of Inquiry (CoI) in 2000 as a complete theoretical framework (Garrison, 2007). Student participation is divided into three sorts of presences, according to this theory: social presence, cognitive presence, and teaching presence. First and foremost, students can be "engaged" in learning if they understand and can apply the learning objectives. As a result, creating high-quality instruction using a variety of instructional methods is critical. These instructional strategies require online teachers to provide a conducve learning environment, encourage collaborative projects, and engage students in critical thinking through learning activities. Students should be able to practice their thinking skills with a successful instructional presence (Aykol & Garrison, 2008). Despite the fact that social presence has little effect on learning, it does have an impact on student pleasure (Aykol & Garrison, 2008). In online learning communities, Cho and Tobias (2016) discovered that engagement with instructors is critical for developing students' social presence. They also underlined the importance of timely feedback from teachers in developing an online community.

Keller (1987) established the ARCS model as a theoretical framework in the early 1980s. Attention, relevance, confidence, and satisfaction (ARCS) are acronyms meaning attention, relevance, confidence, and satisfaction. According to Keller, students are more inclined to participate in learning activities if they feel satisfied after meeting learning goals (Keller, 1987). Keller proposes four factors that must be met in order for kids to become motivated.

Table 1. Keller's ARCS Model (1987)

Main Categories	Definition	Process questions
Attention	Capture student interest, stimulate curiosity to learn	How can I make this learning experience both stimulating and engaging?
Relevance	Meet the student's personal needs/goals to influence a positive attitude	In what ways will this learning experience be valuable to the students?
Confidence	Help students believe/feel that they will succeed and control their success.	How can I follow instructions that help students succeed and allow them to take control of their success?

| Satisfaction | Reinforce achievements with rewards (internal and external) | What can I do to help students feel good about their experience and desire to continue learning? |

Keller identified attention as a motivator as well as a requirement for learning. Instructors must respond to students' needs and concerns at this stage, while also encouraging them to become more involved in the material. However, educators should not overwhelm students with too much information, as this may cause them to get disengaged from the topic. The second criterion, known as relevancy, is critical for linking students with relevant knowledge so that they may apply it to present or future employment prospects. This is especially important for adult learners who are more interested in what they study in college than their primary professional objectives. Confidence has a significant role in one's capacity to persevere and achieve success. Naturally, some people are more confident than others in their ability to learn well. Students must be satisfied with their work to be in this category (Keller, 1987; Keller, 2010).

FACTORS AFFECTING STUDENT ENGAGEMENT

The characteristics that influence student involvement are viewed differently by researchers. Motivation, attention, engagement, and intellectual effort are all characteristics that influence engagement, according to Major (2015). Attitudes, personality, drive, effort, and self-confidence all influence the interaction, according to Gray and DiLoreto (2016). Interaction, motivation, effort, engagement, active learning, and time commitment, according to other researchers, are all components of engagement (Robinson & Hullinger, 2008; Kuh, 2009; Dixson, 2010; Hoskins, 2012).

Student motivation, attentiveness, and related elements, engagement and active learning, and level of academic challenge and intellectual work are categorized into four categories in this research. This overview of the literature focuses on each of the four aspects of student engagement among online students.

Student Motivation

Motivation is the primary characteristic that encourages students to participate actively in their studies. The term "motivation" refers to a person's desire to learn something new. Students that are motivated comprehend the purpose and rewards of what they do, and as a result, they are more resilient to learning problems.

Intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation are the two types of motivation. Extrinsic motivation is concerned with external incentives such as riches and recognition, but intrinsic motivation is concerned with one's interest and enjoyment of the work. Both have been shown to influence student motivation, although intrinsic motivation is more effective in supporting students' need for autonomy as well as overall competence and performance (Chen & Jang, 2010; Schunk & Zimmerman, 2012).

Extrinsic incentive, such as prizes supplied by employers, has an impact on intrinsic motivation. It suggests that for adult online learners, connecting content to real-world concerns is critical (Yoo & Huang, 2013). When students are permitted to participate in activities that allow them to practice specific interesting abilities, receive constructive feedback, and avoid demeaning or needless evaluations, extrinsic motivation can be transformed into intrinsic motivation (Harnett et al., 2011; Shillingford & Karlin, 2013).

Because online students are often non-traditional students, they can complete their education while working full-time and caring for their families. While they have a lot of duties, it's important to know what motivates them to pursue and achieve their personal goals, whether intrinsic or extrinsic, such as their desire to be involved in their academic program.

Attention, Interest, and Self-Regulation

The ability to focus on a single task is referred to as attention. Attention is both a motivator and a requirement for learning. When students are highly motivated, they devote 100% of their attention to the job at hand. They are also actively involved in their education. However, maintaining involvement is more difficult when it comes to paying attention (Milman & Wessmiller, 2016). Mindfulness, according to O'Brien et al. (2008), is based on people's assessments of the importance of tasks related to their interests. Students are more likely to generate interest and keep attention in completing a task if they can identify it with themselves (O'Brien et al., 2008).

"Interest has a crucial function in focusing attention," according to the literature (Hidi & Ainley, 2012). When participants sustain attention through good emotions caused by their interest in the learning activities, the engagement is more likely to continue. Students that are more enthusiastic about their studies are also more engaged in the classroom (Chih-Yuan & Rueda, 2012). Students are more likely to develop self-regulation skills to maintain engagement throughout the learning program when their attention is triggered by student interest (Hidi & Ainley, 2012).

Self-regulatory behavior refers to one's ability to control one's own actions. Students can use this skill to control and manage their thoughts, emotions, and behavior in relation to the social-contextual environment in order to reach their objectives or anticipated future states (Reeve, Ryan, Deci, & Jang, 2012). Students that can self-regulate are also capable of self-motivation. As a result, they are willing to accept the blame for both their accomplishments and failings. Distance learners must regulate their time commitments while completing the study program, as well as other duties at home and at work, which necessitates self-regulation.

Engagement and Active Learning

Physical participation in student clubs, attendance at campus events, and direct connection with lecturers and peers are all examples of engagement (Astin 1999). Student involvement, according to this definition, is the willingness to commit a significant amount

of time and energy to academics, spend a significant amount of time on campus, participate in numerous student groups and events, and communicate with lecturers and students (Astin, 1999).

Interactions and engagement are synonymous, and engagement is one of the most dependable predictors of student success in higher education (Tinto, 1997). Students who are more involved intellectually and socially in educational activities are more likely to succeed in college (Tinto, 2012). The more students participate in numerous events on campus in diverse contexts, the more fresh experiences they will gain, such as conversations, presentations, and group collaborations. This one-of-a-kind experience has a positive impact on student engagement in the classroom and the overall learning experience (Lundberg & Sheridan, 2015).

Opportunities to enhance themselves through involvement are difficult to come by in remote asynchronous classes with limited interaction between students and professors or other academics. Adult students scored much lower on survey items than traditional students, according to Price and Baker (2012), since adult learners have distinct motives and desires to learn new skills and knowledge. They are less interested in social relationships (Price & Baker, 2012), especially given their multiple commitments at home and at work.

Level of Academic Challenge and Intellectual Efforts

The amount of intellectual effort a student puts into a learning program is referred to as the academic challenge (Robinson & Hullinger, 2008). These difficulties include the amount of time or effort spent studying, reading, writing, and preparing for class activities or examinations (Kuh, 2009; Robinson & Hullinger, 2008).

Online students achieve the same learning results as students who attend classes on college campuses (Collins & Pascarella, 2003). In a study comparing the replies of students enrolled in traditional on-campus learning programs against students enrolled in online learning programs, Rabe Rami et al. (2009) discovered a substantial difference in views of academic challenge. Students in online learning programs reported more class preparation time, higher class participation rates, and more contact with professors, despite having equal grades (Rabe-Hemp et al., 2009).

Asynchronous online learning techniques, according to researchers, allow students to be more contemplative and thoughtful when performing academic tasks and activities (Rabe-Hemp et al., 2009; Robinson & Hullinger, 2008). Students who work more than expected to match the learning program's requirements can improve their learning outcomes in areas such as general education, practical competence, and personal development (Lundberg & Seridan, 2015). Furthermore, students' technical skills in adjusting to the requisite technology can influence the amount of academic challenge (Rabe-Hemp et al., 2009). Students' ability to complete coursework and participate in other classroom activities may be hampered if they are unable to use the essential software or gain access to particular technologies.

METHODS TO PROMOTE STUDENT ENGAGEMENT

Active Learning

Instead of sitting and listening silently, active learning requires students to participate in class. Approaches to active student teaching methods include short question and answer sessions, conversations integrated into lectures, impromptu writing assignments, hands-on activities, and experiential learning events. Teachers utilize frequent evaluations to monitor achievement and comprehension of course content in active learning (Weimer, 2002). Regular daily quizzes covering discrete units of instruction, discussions, and group problem-solving exercises are all part of this dynamic learning style. The goal of this systematic assessment-based teaching strategy is to improve basic concept mastery. As a result, the questions include factual-recall assessments. Because of their firm conceptual foundation, students will feel more secure when they are used to conducting exercises to evaluate their memory and understanding skills. The teacher will need more time to prepare for the test and provide comments on this strategy.

Flipping Classrooms

The flipped classroom is a teaching strategy in which the teacher introduces the material outside of class time. During class, students, on the other hand, are encouraged to study, apply, and evaluate the learning material. Readings, pre-recorded video lectures, and research assignments are examples of teaching materials. Video is, without a doubt, the preferred method of delivering the out-of-class portion of the instruction. However, in order to prepare students for in-class activities, the teacher must carefully customize readings and videos. We frequently observe in the field that not all films prepared by teachers are of high quality. As a result, the video confused students. Instead, teachers can use several resources on the internet for these videos, such as the Kahn Academy (http://www.khanacademy.org/) and Bozeman Science (http://www.boze-manscience.com/science-videos/).

Students are encouraged to work on the subject matter both individually and in groups during classroom activities. When teachers are present to advise and guide students, the fundamental purpose of flipped classes is to develop a more immersive learning experience for them. This strategy also encourages students to apply difficult problem-solving skills and stresses higher-order thinking skills. The flipped classroom's basic idea is that any homework that students accomplish at home is performed in class under the supervision of the teacher. As a result, the instructor obtains insight into the issues that students face, as well as student achievement, interest, and engagement (Fulton, 2012). Teachers can also adapt the content of the material according to the level of student understanding. Thus, the flipped class method makes classroom time more effective and efficient.

Collaborative learning

Collaborative learning can take place in small groups or in pairs (peer-to-peer). Students are taught to educate each other by overcoming and clarifying misunderstandings when they learn in pairs. Collaborative learning is a teaching style in which the teacher encourages students to share their expertise and information. Collaborative learning's main goal is to help students evaluate the quality and usefulness of what they know by explaining it to others, such as themselves and their classmates. A teacher offers pupils a social framework in which they can discuss conceptual concerns with their classmates. A class is a social setting in which its students become members and interact with one another while learning a second language. Several activities, such as games, role plays, and theatrical exercises, can be designed by the teacher to enhance interaction in the classroom (Crookall & Oxford, 1990). In and of it, these simulations represent actual, contemporary reality. The classroom is a secure enough environment for students to practice without fear of making mistakes.

Case-based learning

Students learn analytical thinking and reflective judgment abilities through case-based instruction, which involves reading and analyzing complicated real-life events. Case studies are used by teachers to demonstrate principles, practices, concepts, and approaches that are discussed in lectures and other presentations (Carroll & Rosson, 2005). Teachers can encourage students to uncover these concepts in language lessons by studying language examples or difficulties from a variety of sources, such as daily conversations, internet news, email, and online newspapers. Students are presented with authentic content in this case-based technique approach. The success of learning is primarily determined by the efforts of the community. Groups must self-organize, analyze ill-structured problems. Typical case-based learning activities are elaboration, discussion, and debate.

Problem-based learning (PBL)

The theoretical assumption that there is no one answer to PBL problems gave birth to this PBL method. On the other hand, there are a variety of viewpoints and answers - some are far more effective and speedier than others. PBL instills in pupils the ability to analyze the pros and disadvantages of several options and trains them to choose the optimal option at the time. PBL encourages students to strive to solve problems rather than teaching them how to do it. PBL aims to build and maintain a large interdisciplinary content base that is linked by deep conceptual understanding. Furthermore, PBL promotes pupils to improve their problem-solving abilities.

PBL is a curriculum approach as well as a teaching method. It is made up of carefully crafted challenges that require students to apply problem-solving techniques, self-study tactics, teamwork abilities, and disciplinary knowledge (Burrus, 1999). The articles and links in this part explain PBL's characteristics and purposes, as well as how to

use it. The instructor designs activities using the PBL method by modifying the challenge to match the needs of the local community. In addition, the instructor creates a schedule, determines the required content, prepares assessments, and arranges resources. After that, the students work together to solve challenges through collaborative and investigative effort. Teachers give information to students, but they also question, model, and redirect their learning. Every little resolution generates more information and new problems, resulting in a cyclical predicament.

Peer Instruction

The peer instruction method is a structured teaching method that requires students to assess their reactions as well as those of their peers. Instead of lecturing and talking, teachers encourage students to think about carefully constructed conceptual questions that address areas of uncertainty or common misunderstanding. Students write down their responses to these questions and then collaborate in small groups to come up with a consensus. During this group discussion, students frequently explain concepts and clarify them to their teammates, who may have first replied erroneously. Class discussions are guided by instructors, leading to additional concept modeling and further clarification according to student needs.

Setting the Problems

Students are engaged in cognitive processes ranging from simple to sophisticate when they design problems. Bloom's Taxonomy is a useful framework for comprehending a wide range of cognitive tasks. Remembering, comprehending, applying, analyzing, evaluating, and producing are all classified as simple to complicated functions in the taxonomy. A sequence of issues or questions could begin with a simple memory exercise that requires pupils to identify or define terms and then understand them via the use of examples. Then pupils could be asked to apply what they've learned by adjusting or anticipating something. The issue set can then progress to more analytical tasks like diagnosing and optimizing, which build on prior tasks. Validating and discussing may be included in even higher-level tasks. Finally, pupils might come up with their ideas or designs. Students will learn the topic more effectively if you create a problem set that develops a foundation for remembering and understanding before going on to higher-level assignments.

CONCLUSIONS

Theoretical frameworks for student engagement are presented in this research. Despite the fact that each theory has its emphasis, they are complementary. According to recent studies, student involvement occurs in both online and offline environments. To achieve successful learning, students must be engaged. When students are interested in learning, they pay full attention to what they are studying, develop the ability to manage their learning schedule, take initiative to learn new topics, cooperate with other students, and finish projects on time. Furthermore, they make every effort to study, organize them so

that they may take advantage of feedback from friends and teachers, motivate themselves, and have a tremendous amount of trust in them.

Student engagement isn't always easy to achieve. It is not, however, impossible to attain. Engagement necessitates a tremendous commitment on the part of the teachers. They must be willing to grow into thoughtful, open-minded individuals. As a result, they must be eager to update their professional development on a regular basis. Reflective open-minded people should learn from their colleagues, keep up with current educational concerns disseminated through various media (journals, seminars, and webinars), reflect on their teaching performance, and even listen to suggestions and comments from their students. Teachers should provide constant feedback on students' learning progress while maintaining effective communication and adopting multiple teaching styles while creating high-quality instructional designs. PBL, case-based learning, flipped learning, and active learning are some of the strategies proposed in this study for teachers to increase student involvement.

REFERENCES

Astin, A. W. (1984). Student involvement: A developmental theory for higher education. *Journal of College Student Development, 25*(1), 297-308.

Akyol, Z., & Garrison, D. (2008). The development of a community of inquiry over time in an online course: Understanding the progression and integration of social, cognitive, and teaching presence. *Journal of Asynchronous Learning Networks*, *12*(1), 3-4

Birch, S., & Ladd, G. (1997). The teacher-child relationship and children's early school adjustment. *Journal of School Psychology, 1*, 61-79.

Burruss, J.D (1999). Problem-based learning. *National Science Teachers Association.22*(1), 46-49

Carroll, J.M., & Rosson, M.B. (2005). Toward even more authentic case-based learning. *Educational Technology 45*(6), 5-11.

Chen, K. C., & Jang, S. J. (2010). Motivation in online learning: Testing a model of self-determination theory. *Computers in Human Behavior, 26* (1), 741-752.

Chih-Yuan Sun, J., & Rueda, Y. (2005). Situational interest, computer self-efficacy, and self-regulation: Their impact on student engagement in distance education. *British Journal of Educational Technology, 43*(2), 191-204.

Cho, M. H., & Tobias, S. (2016). Should instructors require discussion in online courses? Effects of online discussion on community of inquiry, learner time, satisfaction, and achievement. *International Review of Research in Open and Distributed Learning*, *17*(2), 123-140.

Collins, J., & Pascarella, E. T. (2003). Learning on-campus and learning at a distance: A randomized instructional experiment. *Research in Higher Education, 44*(3), 315-326.

Connell, J. P., & Wellborn, J. G. (1991). Competence, autonomy, and relatedness: A motivational analysis of self-system processes. In M. Gunnar, & L. Sroufe, *Minnesota Symposium on Child Psychology.* University of Chicago Press.

Crookall, D., & Oxford, R. L. (1990). Linking language learning and simulation/gaming. In D. Crookall & R. L. Oxford (Eds.), *Simulation, gaming, and language learning.* (2-24). Boston: Henley

Csikzentmihalyi, M. (1988). The flow experience and its significance for human psychology. In M. Csikzentmihalyi, & I. S. Csikzentmihalyi, *Optimal experience* (pp. 15-35). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University.

Dixson, M. D. (2010). Creating effective student engagement in online courses: What do students find engaging? *Journal of the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning, 10*(2), 1-13.

Finn, J. D., Pannozzo, G. M., & Voelkl, K. E. (1995). Disruptive and inattentive withdrawn behavior and achievement among fourth graders. *Elementary School Journal, 95*(1), 421-454.

Fisher, K. (2010). Online student engagement: CCSSE finds enrollment status and online experiences are key. *Community College Week, 22*(20), 7.

Fulton, K. (2012). Upside down and inside out: Flip your classroom to improve student learning. *Learning & Leading with Technology, 39*(8), 12-17.

Garrison, D. R. (2007). Online community of inquiry review: Social, cognitive, and teaching presence issues. *Journal of Asynchronous Learning Networks, 11*(1), 61-72.

Gray, J. A., & DiLoreto. (2016). The effects of student engagement, student satisfaction, and perceived learning in online learning environments. *NCPEA International Journal of Education Leadership Preparation, 11*(1), 1-20.

Harnett, M., St. George, A., & Dron, J. (2011). Examining motivation in online distance learning environments: Complex, multifaceted, and situation dependent. *The International Review of Research in Open and Distance Learning, 12*(6), 20-37.

Hidi, S., & Ainley, M. (2012). Interest and self-regulation: Relationship between two variables that influence learning. In D. H. Schunk, & B. J. Zimmerman, *Motivation and Self-regulated learning: Theory, research, and applications* (pp. 77-109). New York: Taylor & Francis Group, LLC.

Hoskins, B. J. (2012). Connections, engagement, and presence. *The Journal of Continuing Higher Education, 60*(1), 51-53.

Kearsley, G., & Schneiderman, B. (1998). Engagement theory: A framework for technology-based teaching and learning. *Educational Technology, 38*(5), 20-23.

Keller, J. M. (1987). Development and use of the ARCS model of instructional design. *Journal of Instructional Development, 10*(3), 2-10.

Keller, J. M. (2010). *Motivational design for learning and performance.* New York, NY: Springer.

Kember, D. (1995). *Open learning courses for adults: A model of student progress*. Englewood Cliff, NJ: Education Technology Publications.

Kuh, G. D. (2003). What we are learning about student engagement from NSSE. *Change, 35*(2), 24-32.

Kuh, G. D. (2009). The national survey of student engagement: Conceptual and empirical foundations. *New Directions for Institutional Research, 141*(1), 5-20.

Lundberg, C. A., & Seridan, D. (2015). Benefits of engagement with peers, faculty, and diversity for online learners. *College Teaching, 63*(1), 8-15.

Major, C. H. (2015). *Teaching online: A guide to theory, research, and practice*. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press.

Milman, N. B., & Wessmiller, J. (2016). Motivating the online learner using Keller's ARCS model. *Distance Learning, 13*(2), 67-71.

O'Brien, H. L., & Toms, E. G. (2008). What is user engagement? A conceptual framework for defining user engagement with technology. *Journal of the American Society for Information Science and Technology, 59*(6), 938-955.

Pascarella, E. T. & Terenzini, P. T. (1991). *How college affects students: Findings and insight from twenty years of research*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Price, K., & Baker, S. N. (2012). Measuring students' engagement on college campuses: Is the NSSE an appropriate measure of adult students' engagement? *The Journal of Continuing Higher Education, 60*(1), 20-32.

Rabe-Hemp, C., Woollen, S., & Humiston, G. S. (2009). A comparative analysis of student engagement, learning, and satisfaction in the lecture hall and online learning settings.*The Quarterly Review of Distance Education, 10*(2), 207-218.

Reeve, J., Ryan, R. M., Deci, E. L., & Jang, H. (2012). Understanding and promoting autonomous self-regulation: A self-determination theory perspective. In D. Schunk, & B. Zimmerman, *Motivation, and self-regulated learning: Theory, research, and application* (pp. 223-244). New York, NY: Taylor & Francis Group, LLC.

Robinson, C. C., & Hullinger, H. (2008). New benchmarks in higher education: Student engagement in online learning. *Journal of Education for Business, 84*(2), 101-109.

Schunk, D. H., & Zimmerman, B. J. (2012). *Motivation and Self-regulated learning: Theory, research, and applications*. New York, NY: Taylor & Francis Group, LLC.

Shillingford, S., & Karlin, N. J. (2013). The role of intrinsic motivation in the academic pursuits of non-traditional students. *New Horizons in Adult Education and Human Resource Development, 25*(1), 91–102.

Skinner, E. A., & Belmont, M. J. (1993). Motivation in the classroom: Reciprocal's effect of teacher behavior and student engagement across the school year. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 85*(1), 571-581.

Tinto, V. (2012). *Completing college: Rethinking institutional action*. Chicago, IL: The University of Chicago Press.

Weimer, M. (2002). *Learner-centered teaching: Five key changes to practice*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Wyatt, L. G. (2011). Non-traditional student engagement: increasing adult student success and retention. *The Journal of Continuing Higher Education, 59*(1), 10-20.

Yoo, S. J., & Huang, W. D. (2013). Engaging online adult learners in higher education: Motivational factors impacted by gender, age, and prior experiences. *The Journal of Continuing Higher Education, 61*(3), 151-164.
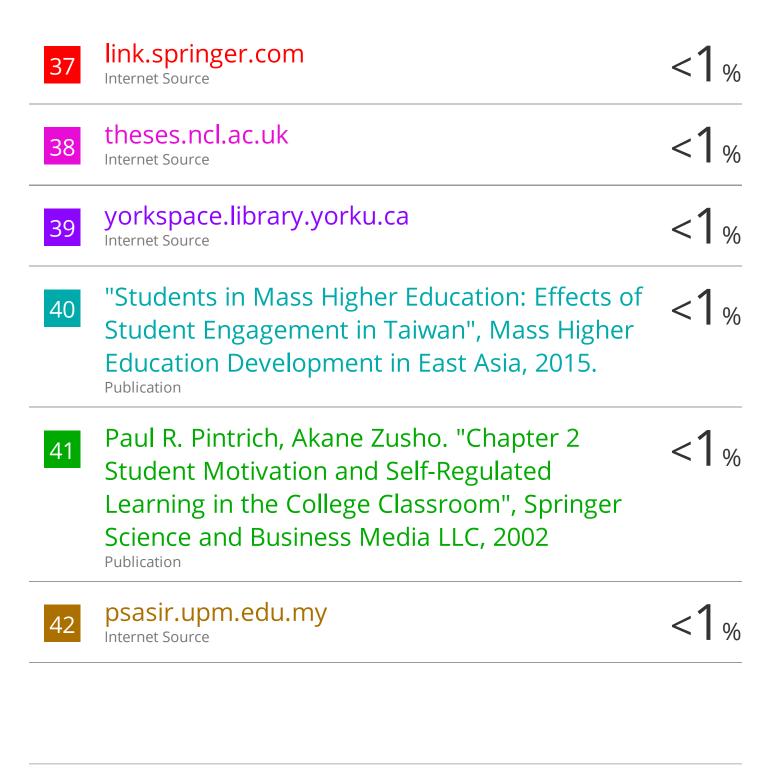
Student Engagement, Factors, and Methods Affecting Active Learning in English Language Teaching

9 Internet Source — 1%

10 Submitted to Pennsylvania State System of Higher Education
Student Paper — 1%

11 Mass Higher Education Development in East Asia, 2015.
Publication — <1%

12 Submitted to CECOS College London
Student Paper — <1%

13 www.uwex.edu
Internet Source — <1%

14 Submitted to Universitas Islam Malang
Student Paper — <1%

15 trepo.tuni.fi
Internet Source — <1%

16 Suadi Suadi. "STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF THE USE OF ZOOM AND WHATSAPP IN ELT AMIDST COVID19 PANDEMIC", SALEE: Study of Applied Linguistics and English Education, 2021
Publication — <1%

17 Submitted to University of Sheffield
Student Paper — <1%

18 Submitted to Middlesex University
Student Paper — <1%

19 Submitted to University College London
Student Paper
<1%

20 conservancy.umn.edu
Internet Source
<1%

21 tojdel.net
Internet Source
<1%

22 Lisa Neal, Diane Miller. "The basics of e-learning", eLearn, 2005
Publication
<1%

23 Martha Cleveland-Innes. "Higher Education and Postindustrial Society: New Ideas About Teaching, Learning, and Technology", The Next Generation of Distance Education, 2012
Publication
<1%

24 ceep.indiana.edu
Internet Source
<1%

25 e-journal.hamzanwadi.ac.id
Internet Source
<1%

26 research.acer.edu.au
Internet Source
<1%

27 www.coursehero.com
Internet Source
<1%

28 www.slideshare.net
Internet Source
<1%

29 Daniel Ginting, Fahmi ., Nindya Juwita Utimadini, Rahmah Purwahida, Yusawinur Barella, Husnul Khatimah. "The Interplay of Motivation and Quality of Instructions in the Self-Paced Program: A MOOC for Administration Staffs", World Journal of English Language, 2022
Publication
<1 %

30 Nicolas Gillet, Robert J. Vallerand, Marc-André K. Lafrenière. "Intrinsic and extrinsic school motivation as a function of age: the mediating role of autonomy support", Social Psychology of Education, 2011
Publication
<1 %

31 acopen.umsida.ac.id
Internet Source
<1 %

32 archive.org
Internet Source
<1 %

33 conference.eadtu.eu
Internet Source
<1 %

34 digital.auraria.edu
Internet Source
<1 %

35 es.scribd.com
Internet Source
<1 %

36 journals.sagepub.com
Internet Source
<1 %

37 link.springer.com
Internet Source
<1%

38 theses.ncl.ac.uk
Internet Source
<1%

39 yorkspace.library.yorku.ca
Internet Source
<1%

40 "Students in Mass Higher Education: Effects of Student Engagement in Taiwan", Mass Higher Education Development in East Asia, 2015.
Publication
<1%

41 Paul R. Pintrich, Akane Zusho. "Chapter 2 Student Motivation and Self-Regulated Learning in the College Classroom", Springer Science and Business Media LLC, 2002
Publication
<1%

42 psasir.upm.edu.my
Internet Source
<1%

Exclude quotes	Off	Exclude matches	Off
Exclude bibliography	On		