







Exploring Extended Reality (XR) in Teaching AI: A Comparative Study of XR and Desktop Environments

Miguel A. Feijoo-Garcia¹^a, Yiqun Zhang¹^b, Yiyin Gu²^c, Alejandra J. Magana¹^d,
Bedrich Benes²^e and Voicu Popescu²^f

¹Department of Computer and Information Technology, Purdue University, 401 N. Grant St., West Lafayette, IN 47907, USA

²Department of Computer Science, Purdue University, 305 N. University St., West Lafayette, IN 47907, USA
{mfeijoog, zhan2897, gu251, admagana, bbenes, popescu}@purdue.edu

Keywords: Extended Reality, Educational Technology, Immersive Learning, User Experience, Human-Computer Interaction


Abstract: Artificial Intelligence (AI) concepts are abstract and difficult to understand. This paper explores how immersive technologies, such as extended reality (XR), can offer interactive learning experiences that can significantly enhance the educational outcomes of teaching fundamental concepts in artificial intelligence. This comparative study analyzes the effectiveness of an XR environment for introducing Neural Networks and Handwritten Digit Recognition by comparing the engagement, user experience, and learning outcomes of students using XR headsets (Meta Quest 3) to those relying on a traditional desktop setup. Engagement, usability, and user satisfaction were measured using standardized metrics, including the System Usability Scale (SUS), Immersion Presence Questionnaire (IPQ), User Satisfaction Questionnaire (USQ), and Net Promoter Score (NPS), on a diverse group of 56 participants. The findings indicate that the participants in the XR group reported higher levels of engagement and immersion than those in the desktop setting. Furthermore, they reported higher levels of satisfaction. They were more likely to recommend the experience for educational reasons compared to the users of the Desktop group, suggesting that XR technology increases motivation and may thus improve learning. Nevertheless, XR users recognized restrictions like unease or lack of familiarity with immersive technologies. In addition, this study highlights how XR can help transform science, technology, engineering, and mathematics education.


1 Introduction


Artificial Intelligence (AI) can be abstract and difficult to understand for learners. Modern AI generally involves deep neural networks and natural that have distinct particular complexities, characteristics, limitations, and principles (Pham and Sampson, 2022). Consequently, users cannot easily see or comprehend the internal operations of the algorithms, causing a gap between the technology and its users (Kim, 2023), adding to the difficulty in facilitating teaching and learning processes of systemic and critical thinking toward AI concepts from a holistic perspective


(Feijóo-García et al., 2021). Due to the abstract nature of AI, students may not feel prepared to interact with it, leading to a lack of confidence (Chen et al., 2020; Pedró, 2020). Considering all these educational challenges when teaching and learning AI, it is necessary to think of new innovative educational methods to facilitate learners, demystifying the complexity of AI and helping them engage with its concepts learner-centered.


Technology is a driving force for better education (Guo et al., 2021; Zwoliński et al., 2022). Emerging technologies such as extended reality (XR) have helped create learner-centered environments in education (Rangel-de Lázaro and Duart, 2023; Kuleto et al., 2021). XR combines computer software with wearable devices to produce interactive settings that blend real and digital components (Gu et al., 2024). Interactions can occur through immersive headsets, augmented reality (AR) glasses, or mobile devices (Kosko et al., 2021). XR includes AR, virtual re-


^a <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5648-9966>

^b <https://orcid.org/0009-0000-0958-0943>

^c <https://orcid.org/0009-0004-6612-0563>

^d <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-6117-7502>

^e <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-5293-2112>

^f <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-8767-8724>

ality (VR), and mixed reality (MR) (Kharvari and Kaiser, 2022; Jagatheesaperumal et al., 2024). AR integrates real and digital objects, VR offers simulated environments, and MR facilitates interaction between physical and digital elements (Ferreira and Qureshi, 2020). The affordability and efficiency of XR make it a practical and versatile tool for education, further demonstrating its potential in education (Kharvari and Kaiser, 2022). XR applications span various fields in education, including STEM, architecture, management, medicine, and art (Zhang et al., 2024; Chiang and Liu, 2023; Kharvari and Kaiser, 2022; Zwoliński et al., 2022; López-Ojeda and Hurley, 2021; Koukopoulos et al., 2022). As a tool that promotes educational sustainability, XR has gained worldwide interest in research and practice (Guo et al., 2021).

Using XR in education is beneficial as it can foster soft skills such as teamwork, problem-solving, and technical skills (Gu et al., 2024; Guilbaud et al., 2021a). More benefits include enhanced content sharing and knowledge acquisition (Idrees et al., 2022), personalized learning experiences (Fernández-Batanero et al., 2024), and better support for students with special needs (Meccawy, 2022). However, its implementation has limitations, including the lack of motivation or technical ability among instructors, cybersickness, and the high costs of purchasing virtual learning platforms (Zhang et al., 2024; Obeidallah et al., 2023).

As XR technology evolves, educators are encouraged to adopt it to create engaging and effective learning experiences (Guilbaud et al., 2021a). Immersive technologies like VR are increasingly utilized in computer science education, which involves teaching the fundamentals of abstract concepts in STEM fields (Zhang et al., 2024). Nevertheless, the teaching process must be incremental, integrating new topics while reinforcing prior knowledge and involving new technologies as instructional resources.

Different questionnaires are related to the effectiveness and user experience of educational tools. System Usability Scale (SUS) (Grier et al., 2013) is often used to evaluate usability and satisfaction and to identify the strengths and areas to improve (Romeike, 2019). Similarly, the User Satisfaction Questionnaire (USQ) emphasizes how usable it is and what the user's experience is. The Immersion Presence Questionnaire (IPQ) (Schwind et al., 2019) is used to determine the immersive quality of virtual environments, and the Net Promoter Score (NPS) (Baquero, 2022) provides us with evidence of student advocacy and satisfaction. Overall, the results of these assessments help optimize immersive technologies to en-

hance engagement and improve learning experiences and outcomes in computer science education and related fields (Kara et al., 2021).

Immersive technologies and simulation-based experiences can be incorporated to increase student engagement and the understanding of complex concepts. This stems further to interactive virtual experience encouraging active participation and practice, resulting in better learning outcomes (Zhang et al., 2024). That is, evidence-based decision-making is important for improving design and addressing challenges (Brown et al., 2010), ensuring decisions are grounded in facts rather than assumptions (Feijoo-Garcia et al., 2024). Therefore, the following question arises: *What is the effectiveness of XR environments in enhancing student engagement and user satisfaction compared to traditional desktop learning setups?*

2 Methods

2.1 Context and Participants

This study is based on the survey responses collected from $N=56$ participants on how they experienced an educational approach that involved an XR environment or a traditional desktop setup to introduce Neural Networks (NN) and Handwritten Digit Recognition. The study was carried out between the spring and summer of 2024, using a questionnaire to collect demographic information and assess user experiences in VR and XR, including measuring familiarity with technologies such as NN and Handwritten Digit Recognition. In addition, another questionnaire was provided to participants that included different scales to assess their experiences in the XR and desktop environments, which were chosen because of their effectiveness in measuring user experience from different perspectives. These diverse lenses ensure that the overall analysis captures comprehensive user insights. Thus, the questionnaire included:

- **System Usability Scale (SUS):** Evaluates user satisfaction with the XR experience, covering usage frequency, perceived complexity, ease of use, need for technical support, function integration, consistency, learning curve, and user confidence and comfort. The questionnaire comprises ten elements, rated on a scale [1, 5].
- **Immersion Presence Questionnaire (IPQ):** Assesses participants' immersion and satisfaction in the XR environment, focusing on visual quality, interaction, realism, disconnection from surroundings, presence, and overall engagement. It

includes twelve elements, rated on a scale $[-3, 3]$.

- **User Satisfaction Questionnaire (USQ):** Measures user satisfaction in the XR environment, emphasizing usability, functionality, and overall experience through three elements, rated on a scale $[1, 5]$.
- **Net Promoter Score (NPS):** Assesses participants' likelihood or willingness to recommend the experience to others, reflecting the users' overall satisfaction and user advocacy regarding their experience with the system posed. This score is rated on a scale from $[0, 10]$.

The age of the participants ranged from 18 to 32 years ($M = 22.2$, $SD = 3.9$) and were 67.9% male and 38% female. Many reported limited VR headset usage, with 14 (25.0%) having never used one and 17 (30.4%) using it only once. Similarly, 32 participants (57.1%) had never used XR, and 13 (23.2%) had used it once. Most of the participants were Computer Science majors (41, 73.2%), with the majority being undergraduate students (30, 53.6%).

In the XR group (29, 51.8%), most were male (18, 62.1%), undergraduate students (20, 68.9%), and in Computer Science (18, 62.1%). Many had used VR headsets only once (11, 37.9%), and many had never used XR (15, 51.7%). While 17 participants (58.6%) were familiar with Neural Networks (NN), 18 (62.1%) were unfamiliar with Handwritten Digit Recognition. In the Desktop group (27, 48.2%), on the other hand, there was also a male majority (20, 74.1%), with some being undergraduate students (10, 37.1%) and studying Computer Science (23, 85.2%). Like the XR group, many had limited VR headset experience, with 8 participants (29.6%) using them fewer than five times and another 8 (29.6%) never using them. Familiarity with NN and Handwritten Digit Recognition was relatively balanced, with 13 participants (48.1%) familiar with Handwritten Digit Recognition and 14 (51.9%) with NN (see Table 1).

2.2 Data collection

Data collection sessions lasted up to one hour and involved no more than two participants at a time. Upon arrival, participants completed a consent form. Depending on the experimental condition, they were provided with either VR headsets (i.e., Meta Quest 3) or a laptop (see Figure 1). All participants used tablets to respond to demographic, pre-test and post-test questionnaires, with confidentiality ensured through unique numeric identifiers assigned to each participant.

The steps in this study are as follows (see Figure 2): **(1)** Participants take time to review and sign

Variable	XR (n=29)	Desktop (n=27)	Total (N = 56)
Gender			
Male	18 (62.1%)	20 (74.1%)	38 (67.9%)
Female	11 (37.9%)	7 (25.9%)	18 (32.1%)
Other	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
VR Headset Usage			
Frequently	2 (6.9%)	2 (7.4%)	4 (7.1%)
<5 times	7 (24.1%)	8 (29.6%)	15 (26.8%)
>5 times	3 (10.3%)	3 (11.1%)	6 (10.7%)
Never	6 (20.7%)	8 (29.6%)	14 (25%)
Once	11 (37.9%)	6 (22.2%)	17 (30.4%)
XR Usage			
Frequently	1 (3.5%)	2 (7.4%)	3 (5.4%)
<5 times	4 (13.8%)	1 (3.7%)	5 (8.9%)
>5 times	1 (3.5%)	2 (7.4%)	3 (5.4%)
Never	15 (51.7%)	17 (62.9%)	32 (57.1%)
Once	8 (27.6%)	5 (18.5%)	13 (23.2%)
Major			
Computer Sc.	18 (62.1%)	23 (85.2%)	41 (46.4%)
Data Science	3 (10.3%)	1 (3.7%)	4 (7.1%)
Computer Tech.	0 (0%)	1 (3.7%)	1 (1.8%)
Other	8 (27.6%)	2 (7.4%)	10 (17.9%)
Role			
Undergraduate	20 (68.9%)	10 (37.1%)	30 (53.6%)
Graduate	9 (31.1%)	17 (62.9%)	26 (46.4%)
Familiarity with Neural Networks			
No	12 (41.4%)	13 (48.1%)	25 (44.6%)
Yes	17 (58.6%)	14 (51.9%)	31 (55.4%)
Familiarity with Handwritten Digit Recognition			
No	18 (62.1%)	14 (51.9%)	32 (57.1%)
Yes	11 (37.9%)	13 (48.1%)	24 (42.9%)

Note: Any discrepancies in percentages are due to rounding. Values represent frequencies with percentages in parentheses.

Table 1: Participant Demographics and Characteristics

the consent form [S1]; **(2)** Participants use the tablets to answer the demographic questionnaire [S2]; **(3)** Participants use the provided tablets to answer the pre-test questionnaire [S3]; **(4)** Six educational slides were provided to teach participants how to use the headset to complete the study [*VR headset users only*] [S4]; Participants wear the headset to learn the topic. [*VR headset users only*]; **(5)** Participants use the designated laptop to learn the topic [*Desktop users only*]; Participants respond during the intervention to 6 multiple choice questions [*VR headset and Desktop users*] [S5]; **(6)** Participants use tablets to answer the post-test questionnaire [S6].

The research team guided the participants through each procedure, with the preparation phase lasting 15 minutes, the learning phase lasting roughly 15 minutes, and the final step lasting 5 to 10 minutes. The team was available to attend and answer all inquiries throughout the experimental session. The start times for the learning phase were staggered by 10 minutes for the two participants using VR headsets in

XR Environment



Desktop (Laptop) Environment

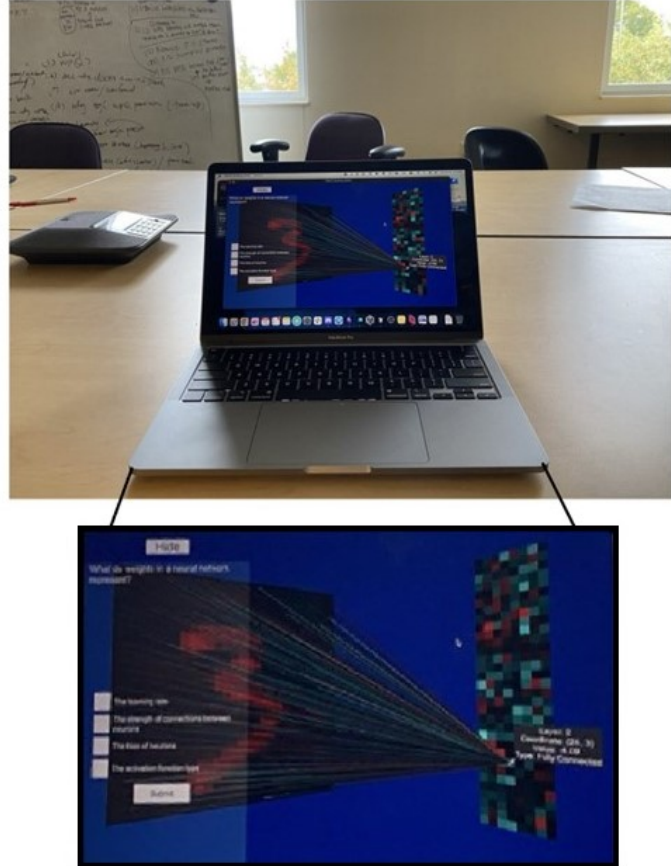


Figure 1: XR and Desktop/Laptop Environments used for the experimental approach

the same session to minimize distractions during verbal response questions. The participants then completed a post-questionnaire with 26 items from the four metrics mentioned—the XR group responded to all the items of the four metrics; the desktop group responded to 14 questions, with three out of the four metrics, excluding the IPQ. Figure 2 depicts the outline of the lesson design for this comparative study.

2.3 Ethical Considerations

This study has been approved by Purdue University’s Institutional Review Board under IRB-2024-57. A four-page consent form was designed to inform participants about the purpose, duration, confidentiality, benefits, risks, and other pertinent information of the study. If they chose to participate, the participants signed and dated the consent form first. Participants could also withdraw at any time.

3 Results

3.1 Lesson Design

In this study, a lesson was designed on the foundational concepts of Neural Networks and Handwritten Digit Recognition. This study compared the performance of two groups of participants exposed to the same lesson in two settings (i.e., XR and Desktop environments), using the MNIST data set trained on a fully connected network (Deng, 2012). Participants began by answering five out of 14 multiple choice questions assessing their prior knowledge of Neural Networks.

These questions covered introductory concepts such as the definition of a Neural Network, the roles and functions of nodes and layers, and data processing sequences. Participants also demonstrated an understanding of concepts/practices like supervised and unsupervised learning, the impact of network architecture on energy consumption, and the significance of

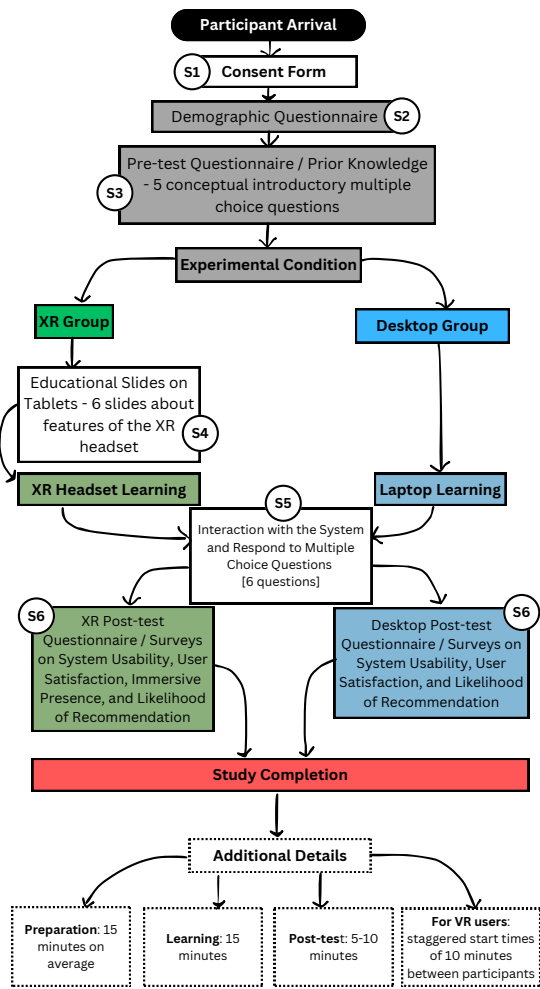


Figure 2: Outline of the Lesson Design for the Comparative Study between XR and Desktop Environments

hardware components like CPUs, GPUs, and TPUs. For example, participants faced questions like *What is a layer in a neural network?* and *How are GPUs, CPUs, and TPUs important for neural networks or CNNs?* All questions were closed-ended, either multiple choice or True / False, to gauge the foundational knowledge of neural network theory.

Further analysis of the 14 multiple choice questions showed a generally high level of understanding by the participants, with an average of 80.7% correct. Most of the questions were correctly answered, but some had rates below 60%, indicating knowledge gaps—topics that need more explanation to help understand.

Moreover, an independent samples *t*-test compared mean differences between the XR and Desktop groups regarding “correctness” and “time spent responding to questions” (in seconds). Welch’s test was employed due to the lack of equal variances, as

	t	df	p	Mean Difference	SE Difference	Cohen’s d	SE Cohen’s d
Correctness	-6	54	.7	.1	.3	.2	.3
Duration	-4.4	34.7	.0	-47.1	10.8	-1.2	.3

Note. For all tests, the alternative hypothesis specifies that group *Desktop* is less than group *XR*.
Note. Welch’s *t*-test.

Table 2: Independent Samples T-Test

indicated by Levene’s test for “correctness” (refer to Table 2).

Regarding correctness, both groups had similar mean scores (4.2 for XR and 4.1 for Desktop) with no significant difference ($p = .7$), indicating comparable prior knowledge of Neural Networks. Nevertheless, the period taken by the XR group to complete the pre-questionnaire was significantly longer than the Desktop group (33.4 seconds versus 68.7 seconds; $p < .001$). This extended duration might result from XR participants’ lack of familiarity with Neural Networks—the need for much more cognitive effort.

On the other hand, during the intervention, the lesson asked six multiple-choice questions assessing learning outcomes. These questions focused on foundational concepts related to Neural Networks and Handwritten Digit Recognition, for example, about *How many input neurons are there in network handling MNIST images*, and *What do weights in the neural network represent*. Some of the topics addressed in other questions were *What ReLU does when given a negative input* and *What ReLU is used to break in?*, and *Which of the predefined test cases (0, 1, 3, and 8) has the least confidence in prediction?*. These questions assessed student understanding and interest in the material presented in the lesson.

Table 3 depicts the scores for the multiple choice questions during the intervention. The XR group scored a mean of 4.2 (SE Mean = .2, SD = 1.2), indicating high score variability, with skewness of -1.2, suggesting more participants scored above the mean. The scores varied from 1.0 to 6.0. In contrast, the Desktop group got a mean score of 4.4 (SE Mean = .1, SD = .8), indicating less variability and more consistent performance. The skewness of zero indicates a near-normal distribution, which means the scores are uniformly distributed around the mean. In addition, the kurtosis of -.4 indicates fewer extreme values, which means fewer high or low scores, resulting in more consistent performance. Their scores ranged from 3.0 to 6.0. Although the Desktop group

Statistic	XR (n=29)	Desktop (n=27)
Mean	4.2	4.4
SE Mean	.2	.1
Std. Deviation	1.2	.8
Skewness	-1.2	0
SE Skewness	.4	.4
Kurtosis	1.2	-.4
SE Kurtosis	1.9	1.9

Table 3: Multiple Choice Questions Scores

showed higher average performance and less variability, the XR group’s lower mean score and more significant variability may stem from their unfamiliarity with XR technology. As participants become more accustomed to XR, their performance may improve, potentially narrowing the gap with the Desktop group.

Furthermore, user engagement was assessed in both the XR and desktop contexts, with the session time metric considered an important factor in analyzing user engagement and persistence. Extended periods demonstrate a deeper engagement with the topic matter.

In addition, Table 4 depicts the results on Session Time. Using the XR headset, the XR group had a mean session time of 723.7 seconds (SE Mean = 33.4, $SD = 179.8$), indicating considerable variability. The skewness of -.2 suggests a near-normal distribution, meaning that session times are mostly balanced around the average. Most of the participants had session times close to the mean, reflecting a balanced experience. Furthermore, a kurtosis of -.9 suggests that the distribution is slightly flatter, with fewer extreme values and more consistent session times. That is, this kurtosis suggests that there was a more uniform experience among the XR group than among the other group. The session lasted 359.0-1009.0 seconds.

However, the mean session duration for desktop users was 578.5 seconds (SE mean = 40.1), showing greater variability due to a standard deviation of 212.2 seconds, suggesting that the duration of the sessions varied significantly within the desktop group, with certain participants spending more or less time

Statistic	XR (n=29)	Desktop (n=27)
Mean	723.7	578.5
SE Mean	33.4	40.1
Std. Deviation	179.8	212.2
Skewness	-.2	.8
SE Skewness	.4	.4
Kurtosis	-.9	1.5
SE Kurtosis	1.9	1.9

Table 4: Session Time (in seconds)

compared to others. This indicates that most of the participants finished their sessions on time, while a small number took significantly longer, resulting in a skewed distribution to the right. The skewness of .8 indicates a right-skewed distribution, meaning most session times were shorter, with a few much longer outliers. Most desktop users had shorter session times, but a few participants took much longer than the average. Furthermore, a kurtosis of 1.5 indicates more noticeable tails, implying more extreme session times, both shorter and longer, resulting in increased variability during the intervention. The session times ranged from 239.0 to 1237.0 seconds.

3.2 Evaluation: Usability and Satisfaction

The results show that participants using the XR setting reported higher levels of usability, satisfaction, and likelihood to recommend the system than those using the Desktop version. The XR group ($n = 29$) experienced consistently positive interactions, while Desktop users ($n = 27$) faced more usability challenges and lower satisfaction levels. Detailed findings for each scale assessing user experiences in both environments focused on Neural Networks and Handwritten Digit Recognition are provided.

The results of the System Usability Scale (SUS) (Grier et al., 2013) indicate that users found the XR system more engaging and easier to navigate. For instance, the statement “*I think that I would like to use this system frequently*” (SUS1) received a mean score of 3.3 in the XR group versus 3.2 in the Desktop group, showing a stronger inclination to use the XR system. Although both groups rated the statement “*I thought the system was easy to use*” (SUS3) similarly, the Desktop group exhibited greater variability, reflecting inconsistent experiences.

Moreover, as indicated in Table 5, the XR group achieved an average SUS score of 60.1, which aligned closely with the standard norm of 68. This shows that the perceived usability was acceptable, yet it suggests that there is still room for enhancement. Nonetheless, the average SUS score for the Desktop group of 57.9 indicated increased challenges. This also indicates that while both systems require enhancements, the XR system is showing superior performance in terms of overall usability compared to the Desktop system.

The User Satisfaction Questionnaire (USQ) results indicate high overall satisfaction, particularly among XR participants, who reported greater satisfaction than Desktop users. The XR group achieved a mean score of 4.1 for “*satisfaction with the XR ex-*

	SUS1	SUS2	SUS3	SUS4	SUS5	SUS6	SUS7	SUS8	SUS9	SUS10
Descriptive Statistics: XR (n=29)										
Mean	3.3	2.4	3.6	2.5	3.8	2.0	2.2	2.9	2.8	2.2
SE Mean	.1	.1	.1	.2	.1	.1	.1	.2	.2	.2
Std. Dev.	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.3	.9	.9	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.3
Skewness	.1	.4	-.7	.6	-.5	.9	.4	.2	-.4	.8
SE Skew.	.3	.3	.3	.3	.3	.3	.3	.3	.3	.3
Kurtosis	-.7	-1.0	.1	-.7	-.4	.2	-.8	-.6	-1.1	-.6
SE Kurt.	.6	.6	.6	.6	.6	.6	.6	.6	.6	.6
Descriptive Statistics: Desktop (n=27)										
Mean	3.2	2.2	3.6	2.3	3.7	2.2	2.6	3.3	2.3	2.3
SE Mean	.2	.2	.2	.2	.2	.2	.2	.2	.3	.3
Std.Dev.	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.1	.9	1.1	1.0	1.0	1.3	1.3
Skewness	.3	.5	-.4	.6	-.5	.7	-.2	-.3	.4	.5
SE Skew.	.5	.5	.5	.5	.5	.5	.5	.5	.5	.5
Kurtosis	-.8	-.7	-.8	-.4	-.3	-.6	-1.3	-.4	-1.3	-1.2
SE Kurt.	.9	.9	.9	.9	.9	.9	.9	.9	.9	.9

Table 5: System Usability Scale

perience” (USQ1), with a standard deviation of .8. In contrast, the Desktop group reported a mean satisfaction score of 3.6 and a higher standard deviation of .9, indicating more variability. For satisfaction with visual quality (USQ3), the XR group scored higher at 3.9, compared to the Desktop group’s score at 3.6. This suggests a better perceived visual quality and a more consistent positive perception in the XR environment, indicating an effective user expectation management, compared to the lower scores of the Desktop group, indicating some areas needing improvement (see Table 6).

In general, the participants who used the XR system were very satisfied, with an overall average rating of 4.1 out of 5. Despite this, desktop users had an average rating of 3.6, suggesting that there is room for improvement in visual appeal and user-friendliness, although users in this group were generally satisfied.

On the other hand, findings from the Immersive Presence Questionnaire (IPQ) (Schwind et al., 2019) show that participants in the XR group experienced a higher sense of presence than desktop group participants. For instance, the item *How aware were you of the real-world surrounding while navigating in the virtual world?* (IPQ1), had a mean of 1.8, standard deviation of .9, indicating high immersion and reduced awareness of the real world. In contrast, the item *How real did the virtual world seem to you?* (IPQ4) had a mean score of .6 and a standard deviation of 1.6, indicating varied perceptions of realism. This variation may stem from individual sensitivities to immersive experiences. The moderate immersion measured by the overall IPQ score of 3.48 on

	USQ1	USQ2	USQ3
Descriptive Statistics: XR (n=29)			
Mean	4.1	4.0	3.9
SE Mean	.1	.2	.2
Std. Dev.	.8	1.1	.9
Skewness	-.1	-1.0	-.3
SE Skewness	.4	.4	.4
Kurtosis	-1.2	.6	-.7
SE Kurtosis	.9	.9	.9
Descriptive Statistics: Desktop (n=27)			
Mean	3.6	3.6	3.6
SE Mean	.2	.2	.2
Std. Dev.	.8	1.2	1.1
Skewness	-1.2	-.3	-.7
SE Skewness	.5	.5	.5
Kurtosis	.6	-.7	-.0
SE Kurtosis	.9	.9	.9

Table 6: User Satisfaction Questionnaire

56 participants demonstrates the strong experience of presence when users are engaged in the virtual world. However, these results also indicate room to improve the consistency in engagement and realism for all the users.

Furthermore, the average likelihood of 56 people recommending their experience was 7.2, indicating that their opinions differed. XR users displayed more excitement, with an average NPS score of 7.9, showing their increased likelihood of recommending the experience. In contrast, the Desktop users scored 6.5, indicating the need for improvement to match the recommendability of the XR version.

Another independent sample *t*-test was conducted to investigate the effects of the XR environment compared to the Desktop version on instructional design. This study looked at the System Usability Scale (SUS), User Satisfaction Questionnaire (USQ), and Net Promoter Score (NPS) in both the XR and Desktop groups. The goal was to demonstrate that participants in the XR environment would report higher scores in perceived presence, system usability, and overall satisfaction than those using the Desktop version (refer to Table 7).

This data analysis indicates that users of the XR system reported significantly higher user satisfaction (measured by the User Satisfaction Questionnaire, USQ) and a greater likelihood of recommending the system (indicated by the Net Promoter Score, NPS) compared to Desktop users. This suggests that XR participants were more satisfied and inclined to recommend their experience with the system. However,

	t	df	p	Mean Difference	SE Difference	Cohen's d	SE Cohen's d
System Usability Scale							
SUS1	-7	54	.2	-.2	.3	-.2	.3
SUS2	-9	54	.2	-.3	.3	-.3	.3
SUS3	.4	53.8	.7	.1	.3	.1	.3
SUS4	-1.2	53.7	.1	-.4	.3	-.3	.3
SUS5	-.1	54	.5	-.0	.3	-.0	.3
SUS6	1.0	48.8	.8	.3	.3	.3	.3
SUS7	2.9	43.5	1.0	.7	.3	.8	.3
SUS8	3.0	53.6	1.0	.8	.3	.8	.3
SUS9	-3.3	45.1	.0	-1.0	.3	-.9	.3
SUS10.3		52.5	.6	.1	.3	.1	.3
User Satisfaction Questionnaire							
USQ1	-2.1	53.2	.0	-.4	.2	-.6	.3
USQ2	-1.4	53	.1	-.4	.3	-.4	.3
USQ3	-1.2	51.8	.1	-.3	.3	-.3	.3
Net Promoter Score							
NPS	-2.4	47.7	.0	-1.4	.6	-.7	.3

Note. For all tests, the alternative hypothesis specifies that group *Desktop* is less than group *XR*.
Note. Welch's t-test.

Table 7: Independent Samples T-Test

the two groups did not have significant differences in system usability (as assessed by the System Usability Scale, SUS), indicating similar usability ratings.

For this independent samples *t*-test, Welch's test approach was used due to unequal variances indicated by Levene's test for items SUS7 and SUS9, particularly regarding ease of learning and confidence. Although normality tests showed significant deviations ($p < .05$), the Central Limit Theorem supports the idea that the distribution of sample means approximates normality as sample sizes grow larger (Lakens, 2022).

The system usability scale (SUS) analysis did not show significant differences between the XR and Desktop groups for most items. However, XR users felt more confident using the system. This was clear in their responses about user confidence (SUS9), where XR users had higher scores ($t = -3.3, p < .01$) and a strong effect size (Cohen's $d = -.9$).

In the User Satisfaction Questionnaire (USQ), apparent differences were observed in the first item (USQ1), with a p value below .05. However, effect sizes of -.6 and -.4, for USQ1 and USQ2 show that

XR users had a better overall experience and rated the visual quality higher than Desktop users. There was also a slight difference in how easy users found the system to use and visual quality (USQ2 and USQ3), with p -values of .1, suggesting that XR users found it easier to use and were more satisfied regarding the visual quality of the environment.

Finally, for the Net Promoter Score (NPS), a significant difference ($p < .01$) with a medium effect size (Cohen's $d = -.7$) was found, meaning that XR users were more likely to recommend the system. Overall, XR users reported higher satisfaction, confidence, and a greater willingness or likelihood to recommend their experience with the system.

4 Discussion

Involving immersion technologies in education, such as XR, to introduce complex concepts like AI-related topics (e.g., neural networks or handwritten digit recognition) requires a mix of sensory engagement, interactivity, and relevance. The literature has indicated that high-quality visuals, realistic simulations, and interactive features help learners actively explore complex topics (e.g., AI concepts), making them easier to understand and remember (Marougkas et al., 2023). However, it is important to avoid overwhelming students with too much information at once, so technology should support learning without causing distractions (Skulmowski, 2024). Thus, gradually introducing XR technologies and providing guidance can help students focus on their learning outcomes.

The findings indicate that XR environments boost engagement, promoting deeper cognitive processing via meaningful interactions with the content, as visualizations are particularly useful in comprehending complex ideas, such as Neural Networks, as they aid in understanding (Zhang et al., 2024). In general, users found the XR system to be easier to navigate and allowing them to focus on learning rather than struggling with technology. This is supported by the System Usability Scale (SUS) scores, where the participants in the XR group had an average score of 60.1, compared to 57.9 for the participants in the desktop group, suggesting that the XR users had a more positive experience and increased participation in their learning tasks.

Moreover, desktop interfaces often lack the immersive elements found in XR, leading to a broader range of user experiences that may hinder the educational progress of some students. However, based on the findings presented in this paper, the interactive quality of XR enables students to interact with

3D models, improving comprehension and memory of complex ideas and grasping deeper complex concepts, giving this technology a notable edge over conventional approaches.

However, despite XR participants reporting more engagement, as evidenced by longer session lengths and higher user satisfaction, this did not transfer into better learning outcomes, as both the XR and Desktop groups provided similar correct responses. The variability in XR user performance suggests that not all benefited equally from the immersive experience, with some struggling with the technology. Factors, such as the novelty of the XR technology, can distract participants from educational content, and the learning curve associated with XR could hinder material absorption (Alnagrat et al., 2022). Then, to overcome these challenges, students may need specific training (i.e., scaffolding) and support to use technology and stay focused on learning objectives properly. Moreover, it is also important to reflect on the training that educators need when involving immersive technologies, such as XR. Educators need to understand how to use these technologies effectively in their lessons, leading them to understand how to create engaging activities and support students in using these technologies.

Despite these challenges, technologies like XR have the potential to greatly increase student engagement. They help students learn and retain complex concepts more easily by making them more accessible, improving motivation, and sparking interest (Guilbaud et al., 2021b). Integrating XR into education could create a more dynamic and effective learning environment (Zhang et al., 2024). However, further research is needed, using larger sample sizes and more diverse STEM topics, to compare XR with traditional learning methods and their impact on learning outcomes. Additionally, it is important to explore how immersive technologies like XR can support different learning styles, particularly for students who may need extra time or specific support to adapt to this technology. Future studies should focus on how XR can be used to personalize learning experiences, tailoring them to individual needs. Therefore, when used effectively, immersive technologies, such as XR, have great potential to enhance learning experiences and improve educational outcomes.

5 Conclusions, Limitations, and Recommendations

The results of this study show the differences in learning between XR environments and traditional desk-

top settings, highlighting their distinct advantages and disadvantages in teaching complex AI concepts. The students' experiences and outcomes differed, while both technological approaches intended to introduce complex topics by employing interactive tasks, such as Neural Networks and Handwritten Digit Recognition. XR technology has made learning more engaging and easier to use, but some challenges need to be considered.

The outcomes of this research reveal that the variability in performance among XR users may arise from their unfamiliarity with the technology (Bautista et al., 2023). Although performance may increase with more exposure, this leads to concerns about the initial learning process and differences in adaptability among students, particularly those who are not as familiar with technology (Parong and Mayer, 2021). Thus, training and scaffolding are needed to support the adaptability of new immersive technologies in education.

Moreover, desktop environments are generally considered more intuitive, as they do not need special equipment as XR environments, making it possible for students without XR access to participate (Zhang et al., 2024). There is also a higher price for the XR equipment, which makes it difficult to acquire. Fortunately, the performance/price ratio of XR headsets continues to increase. For example, our XR environment can now be deployed on a \$300 Meta Quest 3S.

The authors acknowledge that this research only investigated the quantitative perspective. Therefore, further research will be conducted to analyze the effectiveness of immersive technologies, such as XR, in a deeper way using different lenses. For this, multiple methods will be used to identify and reflect on the interplay between overall performance and rationales in measuring students' learning outcomes. That is, further research aims to provide a more complete understanding of how these immersive technologies impact learning outcomes, reflecting on the variability in students' experiences and on how they can be used more effectively in education.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors thank all participants who voluntarily and actively contributed to the study with their participation. This material is based upon work supported by the National Science Foundation under Grants 2417510, 2212200, 2219842, 2309564, and 2318657.

REFERENCES

- Alnagrat, A., Ismail, R. C., Idrus, S. Z. S., and Alfaqi, R. M. A. (2022). A review of extended reality (xr) technologies in the future of human education: Current trend and future opportunity. *Journal of Human Centered Technology*, 1(2):81–96.
- Baquero, A. (2022). Net promoter score (nps) and customer satisfaction: relationship and efficient management. *Sustainability*, 14(4):2011.
- Bautista, L., Maradei, F., and Pedraza, G. (2023). Strategies to reduce visual attention changes while learning and training in extended reality environments. *International Journal on Interactive Design and Manufacturing (IJIDeM)*, 17(1):17–43.
- Brown, N. J., Furtak, E. M., Timms, M., Nagashima, S. O., and Wilson, M. (2010). The evidence-based reasoning framework: Assessing scientific reasoning. *Educational Assessment*, 15(3-4):123–141.
- Chen, L., Chen, P., and Lin, Z. (2020). Artificial intelligence in education: A review. *Ieee Access*, 8:75264–75278.
- Chiang, Y.-C. and Liu, S.-C. (2023). The effects of extended reality technologies in stem education on students' learning response and performance. *Journal of Baltic Science Education*, 22(4):568–578.
- Deng, L. (2012). The mnist database of handwritten digit images for machine learning research [best of the web]. *IEEE signal processing magazine*, 29(6):141–142.
- Feijoo-Garcia, M. A., Holstrom, M. S., Magana, A. J., and Newell, B. A. (2024). Simulation-based learning and argumentation to promote informed design decision-making processes within a first-year engineering technology course. *Sustainability*, 16(7).
- Feijóo-García, M. A., Ramírez-Arévalo, H. H., and Feijóo-García, P. G. (2021). Collaborative strategy for software engineering courses at a south american university. In *Proceedings of the 13th International Conference on Computer Supported Education - Volume 1: CSEDU*, pages 266–273. INSTICC, SciTePress.
- Fernández-Batanero, J. M., Montenegro-Rueda, M., Fernández-Cerero, J., and López-Meneses, E. (2024). Extended reality as an educational resource in the primary school classroom: An interview of drawbacks and opportunities. *Computers*, 13(2).
- Ferreira, J. M. M. and Qureshi, Z. I. (2020). Use of xr technologies to bridge the gap between higher education and continuing education. In *2020 IEEE Global Engineering Education Conference*, pages 913–918.
- Grier, R. A., Bangor, A., Kortum, P., and Peres, S. C. (2013). The system usability scale: Beyond standard usability testing. In *Proceedings of the human factors and ergonomics society annual meeting*, volume 57, pages 187–191. SAGE Publications Sage CA: Los Angeles, CA.
- Gu, Y., Feijoo-Garcia, M. A., Zhang, Y., Magana, A. J., Benes, B., and Popescu, V. (2024). An xr environment for ai education: Design and first implementation. In *2024 IEEE Conference on Virtual Reality and 3D User Interfaces Abstracts and Workshops (VRW)*, pages 157–162. IEEE.
- Guilbaud, P., Guilbaud, T. C., and Jennings, D. (2021a). Extended reality, pedagogy, and career readiness: A review of literature. In Chen, J. Y. C. and Fragomeni, G., editors, *Virtual, Augmented and Mixed Reality*, pages 595–613.
- Guilbaud, P., Guilbaud, T. C., and Jennings, D. (2021b). Extended reality, pedagogy, and career readiness: A review of literature. In *International Conference on Human-Computer Interaction*, pages 595–613. Springer.
- Guo, X., Guo, Y., and Liu, Y. (2021). The development of extended reality in education: Inspiration from the research literature. *Sustainability*, 13(24).
- Idrees, A., Morton, M., and Dabrowski, G. (2022). Advancing extended reality teaching and learning opportunities across the disciplines in higher education. In *2022 8th International Conference of the Immersive Learning Research Network*, pages 1–8.
- Jagatheesaperumal, S. K., Ahmad, K., Al-Fuqaha, A., and Qadir, J. (2024). Advancing education through extended reality and internet of everything enabled metaverses: Applications, challenges, and open issues. *IEEE Transactions on Learning Technologies*, 17:1120–1139.
- Kara, A., Mintu-Wimsatt, A., and Spillan, J. E. (2021). An application of the net promoter score in higher education. *Journal of Marketing for Higher Education*, pages 1–24.
- Kharvari, F. and Kaiser, L. E. (2022). Impact of extended reality on architectural education and the design process. *Automation in Construction*, 141.
- Kim, S.-W. (2023). Change in attitude toward artificial intelligence through experiential learning

- in artificial intelligence education. *International Journal on Advanced Science, Engineering & Information Technology*, 13(5).
- Kosko, K. W., Ferdig, R. E., and Roche, L. (2021). Conceptualizing a shared definition and future directions for extended reality (xr) in teacher education. *Journal of Technology and Teacher Education*, 29(3):257–277.
- Koukopoulos, D., Dafiotis, P., Sylaiou, S., Koukoulis, K., and Fidas, C. (2022). Xr technologies for self-regulated student exhibitions in art education: Survey and first design considerations. In *2022 International Conference on Interactive Media, Smart Systems and Emerging Technologies*, pages 1–8.
- Kuleto, V., P. M. I., Stanescu, M., Ranković, M., Šević, N. P., Păun, D., and Teodorescu, S. (2021). Extended reality in higher education, a responsible innovation approach for generation y and generation z. *Sustainability*, 13(21).
- Lakens, D. (2022). Sample size justification. *Collabra: psychology*, 8(1):33267.
- López-Ojeda, W. and Hurley, R. A. (2021). Extended-reality technologies: An overview of emerging applications in medical education and clinical care. *The Journal of Neuropsychiatry and Clinical Neurosciences*, 33(3):A4–177.
- Marougkas, A., Troussas, C., Krouska, A., and Sgouropoulou, C. (2023). Virtual reality in education: a review of learning theories, approaches and methodologies for the last decade. *Electronics*, 12(13):2832.
- Meccawy, M. (2022). Creating an immersive xr learning experience: A roadmap for educators. *Electronics*, 11(21).
- Obeidallah, R., Ahmad, A. A., and Qutishat, D. (2023). Challenges of extended reality technology in higher education: A review. *International Journal of Emerging Technologies in Learning*, 18(14).
- Parong, J. and Mayer, R. E. (2021). Cognitive and affective processes for learning science in immersive virtual reality. *Journal of Computer Assisted Learning*, 37(1):226–241.
- Pedró, F. (2020). Applications of artificial intelligence to higher education: possibilities, evidence, and challenges. *IUL Research*, 1(1):61–76.
- Pham, S. T. and Sampson, P. M. (2022). The development of artificial intelligence in education: A review in context. *Journal of Computer Assisted Learning*, 38(5):1408–1421.
- Rangel-de Lázaro, G. and Duarte, J. M. (2023). You can handle, you can teach it: Systematic review on the use of extended reality and artificial intelligence technologies for online higher education. *Sustainability*, 15(4).
- Romeike, R. (2019). The role of computer science education for understanding and shaping the digital society. In *Sustainable ICT, Education and Learning: IFIP WG 3.4 International Conference, SUZA 2019, Zanzibar, Tanzania, April 25–27, 2019, Revised Selected Papers 1*, pages 167–176. Springer.
- Schwind, V., Knierim, P., Haas, N., and Henze, N. (2019). Using presence questionnaires in virtual reality. In *Proceedings of the 2019 CHI conference on human factors in computing systems*, pages 1–12.
- Skulmowski, A. (2024). Learning by doing or doing without learning? the potentials and challenges of activity-based learning. *Educational Psychology Review*, 36(1):28.
- Zhang, Y., Feijoo-Garcia, M. A., Gu, Y., Popescu, V., Benes, B., and Magana, A. J. (2024). Virtual and augmented reality in science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (stem) education: An umbrella review. *Information*, 15(9).
- Zwoliński, G., Kamińska, D., Laska-Leśniewicz, A., Haamer, R. E., Vairinhos, M., Raposo, R., Urem, F., and Reisinho, P. (2022). Extended reality in education and training: Case studies in management education. *Electronics*, 11(3).