Student Engagement in Blended English Language Learning: Insights from a Vietnamese University

Duyen T. Tran[1*], Trinh T. T. Tran[1], Tue N. Hoang[1], Giang T. H. Hoang[1]

[1] Hanoi University of Industry, Vietnam
[*]Corresponding author's email: tranthiduyen@haui.edu.vn
https://orcid.org/0000-0002-8207-9845
https://doi.org/10.54855/callej.262721

®Copyright (c) 2026 Duyen T. Tran, Trinh T. T. Tran, Tue N. Hoang, Giang T. H. Hoang

Received: 12/10/2025 Revision: 14/05/2026 Accepted: 26/05/2026 Online: 26/06/2026

ABSTRACT

Blended learning has become a growing trend in higher education for its potential to create an optimal learning environment and enhance learner engagement. Nevertheless, research on how students engage in such learning environments remains limited. This paper examines student engagement in blended English language courses at a Vietnamese university and explores whether engagement varies across disciplines and academic years. Drawing on Halverson and Graham's (2019) conceptualization of learner engagement, a sequential mixed-method design was employed. Survey data collected from 827 students from eight disciplinary areas were complemented by semi-structured interviews with 31 students to further elaborate on and explain the survey results. Quantitative results show high cognitive and positive emotional engagement in face-to-face classes but only moderate levels online, while negative emotional engagement was relatively low across both learning modes. Engagement varied significantly across disciplines and declined across year levels, with juniors reporting the highest negative emotional engagement. Interviews identified instructional support, peer interactions, self-regulated learning capacity and content relevance as key influences. Findings carry implications for blended English language course design and teaching practice in Vietnam and similar contexts.

Keywords: Learner engagement, Blended learning, English as a Foreign language, Higher education

Introduction

Blended learning, the purposeful combination of face-to-face and online instruction within a single course (Garrison & Vaughan, 2008), has become an increasingly popular mode of delivery in higher education, including Vietnam (Cao, 2023; Ho & Le, 2024; Tran, 2024). Driving forces include the demand to accommodate a rapidly growing and more diverse student population, the development of educational technology, and, most importantly, the potential of the blended approaches to provide an optimal environment for enhancing learning and improving learning outcomes (Al-Samarraie et al., 2020; Song & Lai, 2025). Yet this dual mode

CITATION | Tran, T. D., Tran, T. T. T., Hoang, N. T., & Hoang, T. H. G. (2026). Student Engagement in Blended English Language Learning: Insights from a Vietnamese University. *Computer-Assisted Language Learning Electronic Journal (CALL-EJ), 27*(2), 1-22. DOI: https://doi.org/10.54855/callej.262721

of delivery poses a persistent pedagogical challenge: the face-to-face and online components differ fundamentally in their social dynamics, instructional immediacy, and demands on learner autonomy, and there is no guarantee that a student who is deeply engaged in one mode will remain so in the other. Although student engagement is key to understanding and enhancing learning experiences and outcomes, research remains limited on how it varies between the two components of the same blended course, and across disciplines and academic years, particularly in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) university settings. This gap limits a nuanced understanding of how engagement manifests across particular learning environments and student groups, such as in Vietnamese higher education. The present study, therefore, examines student engagement in the face-to-face and online components of blended EFL courses in a Vietnamese university, paying particular attention to potential differences across academic disciplines and stages of study, with the aim of informing more effective design and implementation of blended EFL instruction in higher education.

Literature Review

Student Engagement

Student engagement is a multidimensional construct that has been defined in various ways, with scholars differing on the number and nature of its constituent dimensions. The dimensions have variously been characterized as behavioral, cognitive and emotional in nature (Fredricks et al., 2004). While analytically distinct, these dimensions are widely recognized as closely interrelated and mutually overlapping in practice (Halverson & Graham, 2019). For the purpose of this study, Halverson and Graham's (2019) two-dimensional model, developed in the context of blended learning, is adopted to examine student engagement, which is conceptualized here as the cognitive and emotional energy students invest in a learning task.

Cognitive engagement refers to the mental energy a student invests in learning. This includes the quantity of mental energy (indicated by attention, effort, persistence, and time on task) and the quality of that energy (indicated by deep concentration or absorption, individual interest or curiosity, and the use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies) (Halverson & Graham, 2019). Emotional engagement encompasses students' affective responses to learning and is broadly categorized as either positive or negative (Halverson & Graham, 2019). Positive emotional engagement includes emotions such as enjoyment, happiness, and self-confidence, which have been associated with sustained motivation and willingness to invest effort in learning tasks (Fredricks et al., 2004). Negative emotional engagement, by contrast, encompasses emotions such as boredom, frustration, and anxiety. Confusion is included in Halverson and Graham's (2019) emotional dimension but left unclassified as either positive or negative, given its varied effects across contexts. It is worth noting that the two dimensions are not always empirically distinguishable in practice. Positive affective states such as enjoyment, interest, and enthusiasm are closely intertwined with sustained attention, effortful processing, and deep cognitive investment in learning tasks (Fredricks et al., 2004). This conceptual and empirical overlap suggests that the boundaries between cognitive and positive emotional engagement may be more fluid than the two-dimensional framework implies, particularly in contexts where learners' positive affect and cognitive efforts amplify each other.

Pekrun's (2006) control-value theory (CVT) offers a theoretical lens to explain how students' emotions during learning are produced and how they, in turn, activate or inhibit cognitive engagement. CVT proposes that such emotions are generated by students' appraisals of two dimensions: their perceived control over learning outcomes and the subjective values they assign to tasks. When both dimensions are high, learners experience enjoyment - a positive activating emotion that sustains cognitive effort and engagement; when perceived value is low, boredom emerges as a deactivating emotion that withdraws motivational resources from learning; when task value is high but perceived control is low, anxiety arises as a negative activating emotion (Pekrun, 2006). Critically, because these appraisals are shaped by features of the learning environment, including the availability of instructional support, opportunities for competence demonstration, and the social conditions that confer meaning to tasks, CVT predicts that the same learner may experience markedly different emotional states across different learning contexts (Pekrun, 2006). In EFL contexts, this emotional dimension is further compounded by foreign language anxiety, which has a well-documented inhibitory effect on participation, willingness to communicate, and learners' confidence in both face-to-face and online learning environments (Horwitz et al., 1986; Mercer & Dörnyei, 2020).

Student Engagement in Blended Learning Environments

Blended learning has become an increasingly prevalent pedagogical approach in higher education (Garrison & Kanuka, 2004; Heilporn et al., 2021). Despite this prominence, the term is variably applied, ranging from predominantly face-to-face teaching with minimal web-based support to highly synchronous hybrid formats in which on-campus and remote students participate simultaneously (Heilporn et al., 2021; Oliver & Trigwell, 2005). In the present study which emphasizes pedagogical perspectives, blended learning is defined as the purposeful integration of online and face-to-face instruction to capitalize on the strengths of both environments in fostering learning (Garrison & Vaughan, 2008; Hoang, 2015).

By combining the social presence and immediacy of face-to-face interaction with the greater learner control over time, place, and pace of learning that online environments afford, as well as access to a wide range of web-based technologies and resources, blended learning holds considerable promise for sustaining and enhancing student cognitive and emotional engagement (Garrison & Kanuka, 2004; Halverson & Graham, 2019; Lima et al., 2021). In language education specifically, blended learning offers distinct affordances that are particularly significant for student engagement and development. Access to rich digital language resources and tools, combined with expanded opportunities for interaction, communication, and collaboration with teachers and peers across both modes, creates a learning environment that accommodates diverse learning styles and preferences, fostering greater learner agency and more individualized, meaningful language learning experiences (Siyuan & Wah, 2024; Yang & Chano, 2025). Blended approaches provide language students more satisfying learning experiences, enhance their engagement (Gao et al., 2020; Ha, 2024), support the development of knowledge and skills for effective language use (Siyuan & Wah, 2024), and improve academic outcomes (Yang & Chano, 2025).

Despite its affordances, findings on engagement levels across the two modes of blended learning remain inconclusive and largely depend on contextual and instructional factors. While

face-to-face settings have generally been found to support higher engagement, attributed largely to greater teacher presence, immediate feedback, and more structured learning activities (Dwivedi et al., 2019; Heilporn et al., 2021), Henrie et al. (2015) found that online activities produced both lower and higher engagement scores than face-to-face ones, depending on the specific task. Huang et al. (2022) and Manwaring et al. (2017) similarly demonstrated that cognitive and emotional engagement are shaped by task features and teacher roles, with Manwaring et al. (2017) further finding that students' interest in subject matter, perceived task value, opportunities for choice, social interaction, and perceived relevance to existing knowledge are all associated with higher engagement. These findings suggest that the quality of instructional design and teacher facilitation, rather than mode *per se,* may be the more decisive factor in determining engagement levels. At the same time, students' capacity for self-regulated learning, effective learning strategies, and digital literacy have been identified as critical preconditions for sustained engagement, particularly in online settings where external structure is reduced and learners must take greater responsibility for managing their own learning (Hu & Xiao, 2025; Ho & Le, 2024; Song & Lai, 2025). Together, these insights point to the need for careful attention to both instructional design and learner preparedness.

Student engagement in blended learning may also vary across academic disciplines and stages of study, although the evidence base remains limited and warrants further investigation. With respect to disciplinary variation, Leach (2016), while not focusing specifically on blended learning, found that students in hard disciplines such as sciences, information technology, and engineering reported higher engagement than those in some soft disciplines such as management and social sciences, though lower than those in disciplines such as education, health, and creative arts, suggesting that disciplinary culture, pedagogical norms, and the perceived relevance of course content all play a role in shaping engagement. Regarding temporal variation, Saqr et al. (2023), specifically examining online learning, found that distinct student subgroups exhibit markedly different engagement trajectories over time: some maintain consistently high engagement, others show increasing engagement, and others experience progressive decline. This challenges uniform approaches to engagement support and highlights the need for ongoing, differentiated strategies to sustain engagement across different stages of study. In EFL contexts, such temporal variation may be further compounded by shifts in students' relationships with the target language and perceptions of its relevance (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). In particular, language learners' motivation is significantly shaped by the perceived relevance of the target language to their future selves and whether their needs, interests, and priorities are adequately reflected in the learning environment (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011).

EFL blended learning in Vietnamese higher education is set within a context of significant reforms aimed at advancing educational quality, international integration, and digital transformation (Communist Party of Vietnam, 2025). These reforms are accompanied by national initiatives to strengthen English proficiency among the labour force and gradually establish English as a second language in schools (Prime Minister of Vietnam, 2017, 2025). Against this backdrop, student engagement is likely to be shaped by a multifaceted array of contextual factors. On the one hand, the growing instrumental importance of English for academic success and future employability (Hoang et al., 2024; Hoang & Tran, 2022) may

encourage and sustain student engagement. On the other hand, a potential tension exists between established cultural educational traditions and the demands of modern digital learning environments. In particular, cultural values, such as respect for learning and appreciation of diligence (Tran, 2015), may support student effort and persistence, yet deeply rooted teacher-centered traditions could inhibit the learner autonomy required for online learning. Furthermore, variability in instructors' capacity to transition into facilitator roles and design effective blended activities, alongside variability in students' digital competencies, constitutes an additional layer of contextual constraint (Hoang, 2015; Ho & Le, 2024).

Despite the strategic convergence of digital transformation and EFL education in Vietnam, empirical research on student engagement in blended EFL courses remains limited. Little is known about how student engagement manifests across different learning modes within blended environments, as well as across academic disciplines and stages of tertiary education. The present study investigates these patterns of variation to generate contextually grounded insights that can inform the design and delivery of blended EFL courses in similar contexts.

Research Questions

This study addresses the following research questions:

1. What are student engagement levels in blended EFL courses?

2. Are there any significant differences in engagement levels across learning modes, academic disciplines or stages of tertiary education?

Methods

Research Context

This study was conducted at a public, multidisciplinary university in Vietnam with approximately 50 undergraduate programs. For EFL education, students are grouped into eight disciplinary areas, and follow a sequence of six blended EL courses, each consisting of 75 instructional periods, 40 delivered face-to-face (54%) and 35 completed online (46%), over a 10-week semester. Students attend two 50-minute face-to-face sessions per week and are required to complete online tasks both before and after each session.

Learning materials are discipline-specific and collaboratively developed by English and content lecturers to facilitate alignment with students' professional fields. The online component, delivered via an internally developed learning management system, is for students' self-study of vocabulary, grammar, reading, listening, and writing. The face-to-face lessons focus on oral communication through peer and teacher interaction, drawing on and extending the online content. All graded assessments are administered face-to-face; online task completion and face-to-face attendance serve as eligibility criteria for the final examination. Students enter the program at varying levels of English proficiency, ranging from elementary to pre-intermediate, with the courses targeting B1 exit proficiency in line with the Common European Framework of Reference.

Research Design

This study employed a sequential mixed-methods design in which questionnaire data were

collected first (n=827), followed by 31 semi-structured interviews. Interview questions were developed in parallel with the questionnaire items to address the same engagement dimensions. However, when the initial interview data were insufficient to explain the patterns identified in the quantitative findings, additional participants were invited to follow-up interviews. Quantitative and qualitative findings were integrated at the interpretation stage.

Instruments and Participants

Questionnaire

Student engagement was measured using a questionnaire adapted from Halverson (2016), selected for its structural compatibility with blended learning contexts and its coverage of Halverson and Graham's (2019) cognitive and emotional engagement dimensions. The original instrument comprised 38 parallel item pairs, each measuring the same engagement indicator in both online and face-to-face settings. Four additional items were included: two collecting demographic information (academic year and disciplinary major), and two assessing the perceived relevance of course content. The instrument was translated into Vietnamese using a back-translation procedure, and a pilot test with 30 students was conducted prior to the main data collection. Following Principal Component Analysis (PCA), items that failed to load onto any of the three emergent factors were removed, reducing the 38 original pairs to 23 retained pairs, resulting in a final questionnaire of 50 items. Responses were rated on a five-point Likert scale (1 = never/extremely low; 5 = all the time/extremely high).

An email explaining the research and inviting participation was sent through the university system to all students enrolled in EFL courses across all eight disciplinary areas. Participation was voluntary, informed consent was obtained prior to data collection, and all responses were treated confidentially. After data cleaning, 827 valid responses were retained (see Table 1).

Table 1.

Profile of Questionnaire Respondents (N = 827)

No	Major disciplines	Freshman		Sophomore		Junior		Total	
		n	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*	*N*	*%*
1	Business Management & Accounting	21	17%	19	15%	87	69%	**127**	**15%**
2	Tourism	28	35%	31	39%	20	25%	**79**	**10%**
3	Electrical & Electronics Engineering Technology	7	7%	23	24%	64	68%	**94**	**11%**
4	Information Technology	23	26%	35	40%	30	34%	**88**	**11%**
5	Automobile Technology	10	15%	27	41%	29	44%	**66**	**8%**
6	Garment Tech. and Fashion Design	37	33%	47	42%	29	26%	**113**	**14%**
7	Chemical Technology	50	43%	10	9%	55	48%	**115**	**14%**
8	Mechanical Engineering	36	25%	47	32%	62	43%	**145**	**18%**
		212	**26%**	**239**	**29%**	**376**	**45%**	**827**	**100%**

Semi-structured Interviews

Thirty-one students were selected for interviews from among questionnaire respondents who had voluntarily indicated their willingness to participate. The interviewees were selected to ensure representation across all eight disciplinary areas and three-year levels. The sample was intentionally weighted to include more Tourism students and additional senior students from three disciplines to explore the underlying reasons for engagement variations indicated in the quantitative findings (see Table 2). Interview questions were designed in parallel with the questionnaire items to elicit rich explanatory information. Interviews lasting 30–45 minutes were conducted in Vietnamese and audio-recorded with consent. Transcripts were prepared verbatim for thematic analysis, and selected excerpts were translated into English for reporting using a back-translation procedure.

Table 2.

Profile of Interviewees (N = 31)

Major disciplines	**Freshman**	**Sophomore**	**Junior**	**Total**	
				N	***%***
Business Management & Accounting	1	1	3	5	16%
Tourism	2	2	2	6	19%
Electrical & Electronics Engineering Technology	1	1	1	3	10%
Information Technology	1	1	2	4	13%
Automobile Technology	1	1	2	4	13%
Garment Tech. and Fashion Design	1	1	1	3	10%
Chemical Technology	1	1	1	3	10%
Mechanical Engineering	1	1	1	3	10%
	9 (29%)	**9 (29%)**	**13 (42%)**	**31**	**100%**

Data Analysis

Questionnaire data were coded in Excel and transferred to SPSS Version 25. Descriptive statistics addressed Research Question 1. Principal Component Analysis (PCA) with Varimax rotation was conducted to identify the factor structure of the engagement items. The KMO value (.950) and Bartlett's test ($\chi^2(1035) = 30050.99$, $p < .001$) confirmed the suitability of the data. Rather than replicating the theoretically proposed two-dimensional model, three factors emerged from the PCA: cognitive and positive emotional engagement in face-to-face learning (20 items, $\alpha = .951$), cognitive and positive emotional engagement in online learning (20 items, $\alpha = .960$), and negative emotional engagement across both modes (6 items, $\alpha = .821$). These three factors served as the dependent variables in subsequent one-way ANOVA analyses addressing Research Question 2. Interview data were analyzed thematically following Braun and Clarke's (2006) six-phase framework. Credibility was enhanced through iterative coding until thematic stability was achieved. Finally, qualitative findings were integrated with the quantitative results for interpretation.

Findings and Analysis

Student Engagement in English Language Blended Learning Courses

Student engagement in the blended English learning environment was examined across three empirically-derived factors: cognitive and positive emotional engagement in face-to-face classes; cognitive and positive emotional engagement in online learning; and negative emotional experiences. Each factor is discussed in turn, with face-to-face and online engagement referring specifically to their cognitive and positive emotional dimensions, and negative emotional experiences treated as a distinct construct.

Table 3.

Students' Engagement in Face-to-Face Classes (N = 827)

Engagement statement	Mean	SD
You felt happy when participating in face-to-face learning activities.	4.1	0.9
When you didn't understand something in a face-to-face class, you listened more carefully to improve your understanding.	4.0	0.9
To what extent did you feel glad during face-to-face classes?	4.0	0.9
Describe your level of happiness during face-to-face classes.	3.9	0.9
You enjoyed the time you spent in face-to-face classes.	3.9	1.0
You looked forward to attending face-to-face classes.	3.9	1.0
Describe your level of attentiveness during face-to-face classes.	3.8	0.8
Describe your level of absorption/deep concentration during face-to-face classes.	3.8	0.8
Describe your level of interest during face-to-face classes.	3.8	0.9
Even when the face-to-face classes were uninteresting, you made an effort to learn.	3.8	1.0
During face-to-face classes, you consciously tried to connect different ideas and make sense of them.	3.8	0.9
How often did you take notes in face-to-face classes to help you understand what you were learning?	3.7	1.0
How interesting was the material covered in face-to-face classes?	3.7	0.9
Something you discussed in face-to-face classes stayed with you and continued to interest you.	3.7	1.0
You became fully engaged in face-to-face learning activities in this course.	3.6	0.9
Describe your level of curiosity during face-to-face classes.	3.6	0.9
During face-to-face class, your curiosity was piqued, and you wanted to know more about the principles and concepts being taught.	3.6	0.9
How persistent were you in trying to understand the material in face-to-face class?	3.6	0.8
To what degree did you thoughtfully analyze and evaluate the information presented in face-to-face classes?	3.6	0.8
How often did you lose track of time during face-to-face classes?	3.1	0.9

Note: 1-never/extremely low;2-rarely/low;3-sometimes/about average;4-often/high;5-all the time/extremely high

As demonstrated in Table 3, students reported high levels of engagement during face-to-face classes with average ratings ranging from 3.6 to 4.1. Happiness (M = 4.1, SD = 0.9), gladness (M = 4.0, SD = 0.9), and attentive listening when encountering difficulties (M = 4.0, SD = 0.9)

were rated highest, with over two-thirds of students reporting high levels. Indicators of deeper cognitive engagement, absorption, idea connection, and analytical thinking were rated similarly, around M = 3.8, with 60-67% of students rating them highly. The exception was temporal absorption (M = 3.1, SD = 0.9), which was substantially lower than the others, with only around 30% of students reporting high frequency.

Consistent with the survey results, interview participants frequently described classroom experiences as fun, exciting and highly focused. Many students experienced a state of "flow" in which they became so absorbed in interactive activities that "time passes very quickly" (S#2), and "the lesson ended too soon" (S#14). Three environmental conditions were identified to foster student engagement in face-to-face classes. First was the convergence of teacher support and structured activities. In particular, teacher enthusiasm, immediate corrective feedback, and game-like competitive tasks generated both positive affect and sustained concentration: "The teacher taught with great enthusiasm, which made the lessons easier to understand" (S#15). Second, peer interaction and collaboration during the learning process allowed students opportunities to demonstrate their competence: "working in pairs and groups enables me to express my ideas actively" (S#17), and the visible diligence of classmates reinforced individual effort: "seeing everyone working hard and staying focused motivates me to concentrate more on studying" (S#16). Third, bonus marks for voluntary participation provided extrinsic value, enhancing deeper engagement for some students: "the additional mark can help increase the possibility of passing the course" (S#4). In Pekrun's (2006) control-value terms, face-to-face conditions supported both cognitive and emotional engagement: students perceived high control over outcomes through immediate support and flexible teacher assessment, and high task value through meaningful interaction and tangible incentives.

These mechanisms were confirmed by their absence in exceptions. Students whose teachers provided inadequate feedback or monotonous activities reported frustration and boredom: "she didn't give any corrections at all… That made me feel fed up" (S#22); insufficient pair or group work was cited as a source of disengagement: "there were only one or two pair work activities, and we worked on our own for the rest of the lesson" (S#11). For lower-proficiency students, English-only instruction undermined perceived control and led to feelings of "overwhelmed" (S#12), consistent with Pekrun's (2006) prediction that engagement collapses when comprehension and competence are not adequately supported.

As shown in Table 4, students overall reported a moderate level of engagement when studying online, with average ratings ranging from 2.8 to 3.6. Persistence when encountering difficulties (M = 3.6, SD = 1.0) and interest in online materials (M = 3.5, SD = 1.0) were rated highest, with fewer than half of the students reporting high levels. Positive emotions such as happiness and gladness, and cognitive indicators including attentiveness, deep concentration, and curiosity, were slightly lower, ranging around M = 3.3-3.4, with approximately 38-45% of students reporting high frequency. Eagerness for online activities (M = 3.0, SD = 1.0) or temporal absorption (M = 2.8, SD = 1.0) were rated notably lower than other indicators, with

only about one-third to one-half of respondents reporting occasional engagement in online tasks.

Table 4.

Students' Engagement in Online Classes (N = 827)

Engagement statement	Mean	SD
If you didn't understand something in the online work for this course, you kept working on it until you thought you'd solved it.	3.6	1.0
How interesting was the material covered in the online work for this course?	3.5	1.0
During online instructions, you consciously tried to connect different ideas and make sense of them.	3.4	1.0
Describe your level of happiness during online work for this course.	3.4	1.0
You felt happy during online activities.	3.4	1.0
Even when the online work for this course was uninteresting, you made an effort to learn.	3.4	1.1
Describe your level of attentiveness during online work for this course.	3.3	0.9
To what degree did you thoughtfully analyze and evaluate the information presented in online instruction?	3.3	0.9
Describe your level of absorption or deep concentration during online work for this course.	3.3	1.0
How persistent were you in trying to understand the online material?	3.3	0.9
Describe your level of interest during online work for this course.	3.3	1.0
Describe your level of curiosity during online work for this course.	3.3	1.0
To what extent did you feel glad during online learning activities?	3.3	1.0
During online learning activities, your curiosity was piqued, and you wanted to learn more about the principles and concepts being taught.	3.3	1.0
How often did you take notes while reading or listening online to help you understand what you were learning?	3.2	1.1
Something you read or watched online for this course stayed with you and continued to interest you.	3.2	1.0
You enjoyed the online activities for this course.	3.2	1.1
You became fully engaged in online learning activities for this course.	3.1	1.0
You looked forward to online learning activities for this course.	3.0	1.1
How often did you lose track of time when doing online activities for this course?	2.8	1.0

Note: 1-never/extremely low;2-rarely/low;3-sometimes/about average;4-often/high;5-all the time/extremely high

Interview data elaborated and explained quantitative patterns. Students who were highly engaged in online learning described the experience as rewarding: "the visuals and sounds are also engaging, which makes it easier to understand the lessons" (S#16); they valued asynchronous access for self-pacing (S#8) and consolidating face-to-face content (S#18). The relatively higher persistence score is explained by the co-existence of extrinsic accountability and perceived subject utility: students' sustained effort to avoid absence penalties, "if we do not fulfil online work, we will be reminded by the teachers and be considered absent" (S#21), and because they valued English as instrumentally important: "since English is an important

language, I would still study even when there was no requirement to complete the online exercises" (S#15).

The lower scores for eagerness and temporal absorption reflect the absence of conditions that generated intrinsic engagement in face-to-face settings. Without teacher timely support, comprehension difficulties triggered avoidance rather than effort: "I often find the tasks too difficult to understand, so I click to view the answers. Sometimes, I abandon the task without completing it" (S#14). In Pekrun's (2006) terms, this reflects a control-depletion process: when students cannot demonstrate competence and no support is available to restore it, they withdraw from cognitive engagement. Issues with the automated assessment system compounded this effect: Students reported being penalized for formatting variants, further diminishing their perceived control: "even a slight difference leads to losing all the points, which is very discouraging, and sometimes I don't understand why" (S#21). Distraction from social media accelerated disengagement for students with weaker self-regulatory capacity: "when a Facebook notification pops up, I tend to click on it… it takes up my time and disrupts my concentration" (S#19). Task-proficiency mismatch without compensatory strategies led to a similar outcome, with students describing online tasks as "extremely challenging… almost as if I were illiterate" (S#4) and reporting no path to improvement (S#8). By contrast, students with stronger self-regulatory capacity managed affective fluctuations, "if I get too bored, I stop, and when the boredom passes, I continue again" (S#10), and deployed compensatory strategies such as real-time translation: "If I can't understand a listening exercise, I hold up my phone so it can translate" (S#15).

Table 5.

Students' Negative Emotional Engagement (N = 827)

Engagement statement	Mean	SD
How worried did you feel while working online for this course?	2.7	1.2
How worried did you feel during face-to-face classes?	2.6	1.1
You felt confused while completing the online assignments for this course.	2.5	1.1
Face-to-face classes make you feel stressed.	2.3	1.1
Online work for this course made you feel stressed.	2.2	1.1
You felt confused in face-to-face classes.	2.1	1.0

Note: 1-never/extremely low;2-rarely/low;3-sometimes/about average;4-often/high;5-all the time/extremely high

As shown in Table 5, students reported relatively low levels of negative emotions across both modes, with mean scores ranging from 2.1 to 2.7, below the "sometimes" threshold, and fewer than 10% of students frequently experiencing these states. Consistent with its empirical loading onto the negative emotional engagement factor in the PCA, confusion is treated here as a negative emotional indicator, although it was theoretically unclassified in the source framework (Halverson & Graham, 2019). Negative emotions, particularly confusion, were more evident online than in face-to-face settings, which could be attributed to the lack of timely support online as students' recourse to internet searches was not consistently effective:

> "When I get confused and mix up the knowledge, I look back at the textbook or search online, sometimes I can find the answer, sometimes I can't" (S#11).

The interview data reflected two distinct types of negative emotions: anxiety and boredom. Although most students reported rarely feeling stressed or worried, some associated anxiety with specific low-control situations. S#12 reported worry when unable to comprehend online listening exercises, and S#17 described performance anxiety when wanting to volunteer for bonus marks but lacking confidence, a response consistent with Horwitz et al.'s (1986) account of communication apprehension as a distinct source of foreign language anxiety, tied to self-perceived inadequacy in public language performance. Exam anxiety was more widespread, with around half of students reporting fear of failure regardless of learning mode. These instances reflect Pekrun's (2006) proposal that anxiety arises when perceived task value is high but perceived control is low.

Boredom was more prevalent in online mode and characteristically linked to task design and, low perceived task value (Pekrun, 2006) arising from repetitive or excessively long exercises, content perceived as redundant with face-to-face instruction, and the absence of meaningful feedback: "there are some lessons where I feel like I already know everything, so it gets quite boring… the online exercises are quite long" (S#19). Frustration with the inflexible marking system represented a compound negative emotion, with boredom leading to abandonment when perceived control was exhausted: "I do and redo the exercises so many times without success, so I have to click to see the answers" (S#8).

Comparison and Correlation of Face-to-Face and Online Learning Engagement

A comparison of students' engagement across modes confirmed that face-to-face engagement (M=3.6-4.2) was consistently higher than online (M=2.8-3.6), with all interview participants reporting higher focus and enjoyment in face-to-face classes. Pearson correlation analysis (Table 6) revealed a strong positive association between the two modes, $r(825) = .60$, $p < .001$, and moderate negative correlations between negative emotions and both online engagement, $r(825) = -.45$, $p < .001$, and face-to-face engagement, $r(825) = -.47$, $p < .001$.

Table 6.

Correlations, Means, and Standard Deviations for Student Engagement Variables

Variable	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3
Online Engagement	3.29	0.76	—		
Face-to-Face Engagement	3.76	0.66	.60**	—	
Negative Emotions	2.40	0.80	-.45**	-.47**	—

Note. $N = 827$. $^{**}p < .01$.

The strong positive correlations between face-to-face and online engagement indicate that engagement was partly a function of individual characteristics, especially students' underlying orientations toward perceived control and task value. Students who habitually perceived high task value and felt capable of demonstrating competence tended to engage consistently across

learning contexts; those experiencing lower perceived control engaged when the environment compensated through scaffolding and interpersonal support but disengaged when it did not. This pattern simultaneously explains both the positive correlation and the systematic mode gap: the correlation reflects shared individual variance; the gap reflects the environmental conditions that participants' face-to-face settings provided and their online settings did not, notably, timely instructional support, peer interaction, structured activity, and flexible assessment.

The moderate and negative correlations between negative emotions and engagement in both modes further suggest that boredom and anxiety extended beyond incidental affective responses and operated as active inhibitors of engagement. Consistent with Pekrun's (2006) account of deactivating negative emotions, boredom in particular was incompatible with sustained cognitive effort, and its greater frequency in online settings partially accounts for the lower engagement means observed there.

Student Engagement Across Disciplines

Table 7.

Student Engagement Across Disciplines (N = 827)

Disciplines	N	F2F engagement		Online engagement		Negative emotions	
		Mean	*SD*	*Mean*	*SD*	*Mean*	*SD*
Tourism	79	4.1	0.6	3.5	0.7	2.2	0.7
Information Technology	88	3.9	0.7	3.4	0.8	1.9	0.8
Garment Technology and Fashion Design	113	3.9	0.6	3.3	0.7	2.5	0.8
Chemical Technology	115	3.7	0.7	3.4	0.8	2.4	0.8
Electrical & Electronics Engineering Tech.	94	3.7	0.7	3.2	0.8	2.3	0.8
Mechanical Engineering	145	3.7	0.7	3.2	0.8	2.5	0.8
Business Management & Accounting	127	3.7	0.6	3.2	0.6	2.6	0.7
Automobile Technology	66	3.6	0.7	3.1	0.8	2.4	0.7

A one-way ANOVA revealed significant effects of discipline on face-to-face engagement, $F(7, 819) = 5.28$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .04$; online engagement, $F(7, 819) = 2.80$, $p = .007$, $\eta^2 = .03$; and negative emotional engagement, $F(7, 819) = 7.10$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .03$. Although effect sizes were small to small-medium, the consistency of significant differences across all three engagement dimensions, in a sample of 827, indicates that disciplinary context constitutes a genuine structural influence on engagement rather than a sampling bias.

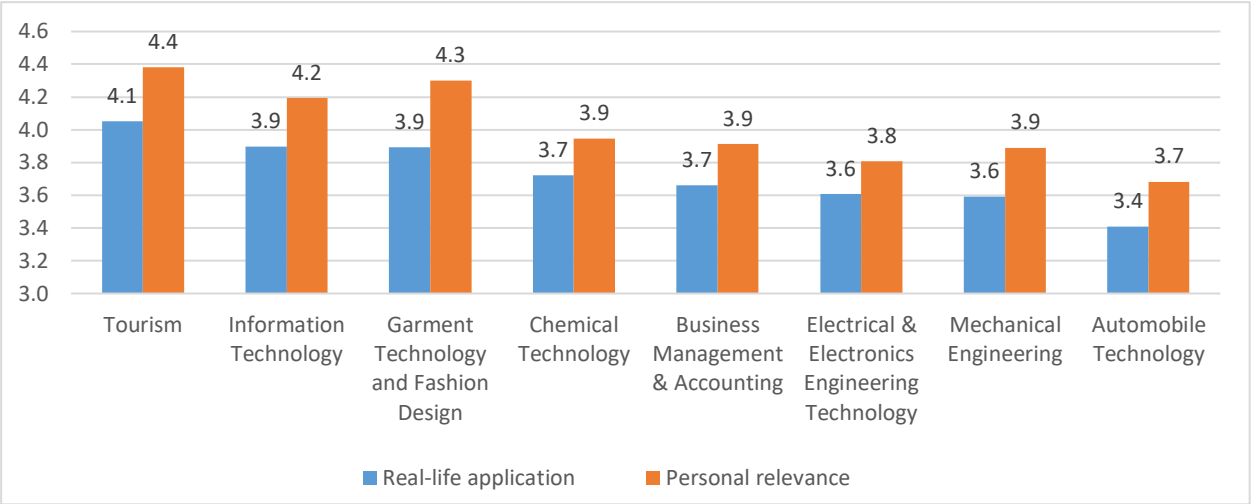
Post hoc comparisons revealed that Tourism students (M = 4.07) reported significantly higher face-to-face engagement than most disciplines, though not significantly higher than Information Technology or Garment Technology and Fashion Design. Tourism students also reported significantly higher online engagement than Automobile Technology students (M = 3.09). Regarding negative emotional engagement, Business Management and Accounting students (M = 2.63) reported significantly higher levels than both Tourism (M = 2.23) and Information Technology (M = 1.95) students, while Information Technology students reported significantly

lower negative emotional engagement than most other disciplines, apart from Tourism and Electrical and Electronics Engineering Technology (M = 2.30).

Reasons for the variation were apparent in students' responses to the last two survey items rating content relevance (see Figure 2). Tourism students assigned the highest ratings to the relevance of course content to their real lives and personal needs (M = 4.1 on both items), while Automobile Technology students, reporting the lowest overall engagement, rated these at 3.4 and 3.7, respectively. The interview data corroborated this pattern: across all disciplines, students consistently reported higher engagement with content perceived as directly relevant to their fields, and lower engagement when it was not: "if I don't understand it or it is not related to my major, I tend to feel bored" (S#18), reflecting the role of task value appraisals in shaping engagement (Pekrun, 2006).

Figure 2.

Students' Perceptions of the Relevance of Learning Content to Real Life and Personal Needs



The elevated negative emotions among Business Management and Accounting students were due to the mixed-ability nature of their English classes. Students who entered university with high English proficiency through examination preparation perceived the course content as insufficiently challenging, noting that "lessons provided little new learning and … were a waste of time" (S#20). Compounding this, their need for English proficiency certificates for employment directed their learning efforts to external language centers. Consequently, university English courses were viewed as a mere obligation.

Student Engagement Across Academic Years

Table 8.

Student Engagement across Academic Years

		F2F engagement		Online engagement		Negative emotions	
	N	*Mean*	*SD*	*Mean*	*SD*	*Mean*	*SD*
Freshman	212	4.0	0.7	3.5	0.8	2.2	0.8
Sophomore	239	3.8	0.6	3.3	0.7	2.4	0.8
Junior	376	3.6	0.6	3.2	0.7	2.5	0.8
Total	**827**	**3.8**	**0.7**	**3.3**	**0.8**	**2.4**	**0.8**

A one-way ANOVA revealed significant effects of academic year on three engagement dimensions: face-to-face engagement, $F(2, 824) = 17.83$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .04$; online engagement, $F(2, 824) = 13.09$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .03$; and negative emotional engagement, $F(2, 824) = 14.03$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .03$. Post hoc comparisons showed that Freshmen ($M = 3.96$) reported significantly higher face-to-face engagement than sophomores ($M = 3.77$, $p = .006$) and juniors ($M = 3.63$, $p < .001$) and higher online engagement ($M = 3.51$) than sophomores ($M = 3.25$, $p = .001$) and juniors ($M = 3.19$, $p < .001$); the difference between sophomore and juniors was non-significant for online engagement ($p = .840$). Juniors ($M = 2.54$) reported higher negative emotional engagement than freshmen ($M = 2.19$, $p < .001$) and sophomores ($M = 2.35$, $p = .011$). Thus, cognitive and emotional engagement declined after the first year, while negative emotional engagement increased, peaking in the third year.

The interview data corroborated the quantitative pattern of declining engagement. First-year students benefited from a lighter disciplinary load, which allowed them to devote more time to English, and many found university teaching methods more engaging than the grammar-focused practices in secondary school. From the second year onward, however, heavier disciplinary coursework and, for many students, the onset of part-time employment, redistributed time and cognitive resources away from English study. As students grew familiar with course requirements, intensive effort gave way to strategic compliance, investing only the minimum needed to pass, further compressing engagement levels into the third year.

However, the interviews also revealed a contrasting trajectory whereby some students' engagement increased in later years, a pattern not captured by the survey results. For these students, the growing proximity of graduation and employment sharpened the perceived instrumental value of English and the relevance of content: "after starting work, I realised that the job required a higher level of English, and the content of later courses was more closely aligned with practical work, so I became more motivated to learn" (S#11). In some cases, failure in early-year English courses, resulting from poor self-discipline rather than limited ability, motivated greater effort investment. Meanwhile, others reported stronger engagement as they became familiar with blended learning and developed more effective self-regulation skills. These findings suggest that engagement trajectories across academic years are shaped by the perceived relevance of course content, academic performance, and self-regulation, all of which evolve over time. Consistent with Dörnyei and Ushioda's (2011) account of second language motivation as inherently dynamic, this points to the limitations of uniform course requirements

and undifferentiated instructional approaches in sustaining engagement over time among a motivationally heterogeneous student population.

Discussion

Findings on student engagement levels in EFL courses and their variation across learning modes, disciplines, and academic years confirm, challenge and extend prior research, while offering theoretically grounded explanations for observed patterns of variation. Collectively, they suggest that engagement is shaped less by mode per se than by the interactions of instructional conditions and students' perceived content relevance, self-regulatory capacity, and motivational orientations toward English, all of which evolve over time.

The face-to-face engagement corroborates and extends Dwivedi et al. (2019) and Heilporn et al. (2021) by specifying its conditions: teacher immediacy, structured peer interaction, and activity design - not physical co-presence per se. This challenges the interpretation in Henrie et al. (2015) that online activities may inherently support comparable engagement, reframing the online deficit instead as a product of reduced instructional scaffolding and the self-regulation demands that online learning places on learners (Hu & Xiao, 2025). Tran's (2024) finding that Vietnamese EFL students prefer face-to-face settings despite digital readiness is reinterpreted here not as cultural disposition but as a rational response to instructional conditions: when online environments fail to replicate interactional affordances, the preference is predictable. Consistent with Manwaring et al. (2017), instructional features within each mode, rather than mode itself, were the decisive determinants of engagement. The strong mode correlation ($r = .60$) confirms that learner characteristics account for substantial variance across both contexts, while negative affect - consistently inversely associated with engagement - functions as a cross-contextual inhibitor, as theorized in Pekrun's (2006) CVT.

Disciplinary variation in engagement extends Leach's (2016) finding by specifying the appraisal-based mechanism through which the alignment between course content and students' professional and personal needs shapes engagement. Within Pekrun's (2006) CVT framework, students' assessments of the relevance of English course content to their needs directly determined engagement direction and intensity: where content was perceived as relevant, positive emotional engagement and sustained cognitive effort followed; where it was not, boredom and withdrawal associated with low task value and reduced perceived control resulted. Interview data corroborated this pattern across disciplines, with Tourism students - who assigned the highest content relevance ratings ($M = 4.1$) - reporting the highest engagement, and Automobile Technology students - rating content relevance lowest - reporting the lowest. The Business Management and Accounting case further illustrates this: higher negative emotional engagement among this group stemmed from a proficiency-content mismatch in mixed-ability classes, where high-proficiency students perceived course content as insufficiently challenging, compounded by the redirection of learning effort toward external certification centers for employment purposes. These findings suggest that disciplinary variation in engagement is less a property of discipline itself than a consequence of how well course content is aligned with students' professional and personal learning needs, with direct implications for ESP course design (Heilporn et al., 2021).

The academic-year pattern both aligns with and complicates Saqr et al.'s (2023) divergent trajectory framework. Declining engagement, driven by increasing workload, part-time employment, and a shift from anxiety-driven effort to strategic compliance, confirms the existence of progressive disengagement trajectories. However, the simultaneous counter-trajectory of increasing engagement among some later-year students complicates any linear account of decline. This counter trajectory, driven by developing self-regulation and growing perceived occupational value of English, is more precisely accounted for by Dörnyei and Ushioda's (2011) dynamic L2 motivation model than by Saqr et al.'s (2023) broader engagement framework, demonstrating that language-specific motivational recovery is possible even where general academic engagement has declined. The identification of the first year as the critical transition point, when strategic disengagement becomes habitual and before motivational recovery is possible, points to early intervention as the most effective approach to sustaining long-term engagement. In particular, supporting learners' adaptation to blended learning in the first year, raising awareness of the consequences of disengagement, and explicitly connecting course content to students' professional futures are critical to sustaining long-term engagement.

Teacher scaffolding, varied activities, timely feedback, and gamification amplified the instructional conditions identified above, extending the findings of Dwivedi et al. (2019), Gao et al. (2024), and Le (2020) into a blended EFL context. Critically, teachers' capacity to replicate interactional affordances online, not merely to manage face-to-face settings, emerges here as the pivotal target for professional development (Gao et al., 2024; Hu & Xiao, 2025). Self-regulation difficulties, most acute online and among students who had not yet internalized the value of English, further confirm that first-year self-regulation support constitutes the highest-leverage instructional investment in blended EFL implementation.

Conclusion

This study explored student engagement in EFL blended courses at a Vietnamese university, revealing moderate to high levels of engagement with marked variation across learning modes, disciplines, and academic years. The findings illuminate the dynamic and contingent nature of engagement shaped by the interplay of instructional conditions and student-level factors including content appraisals, self-regulatory capacity, and English learning motivation.

This study makes three theoretical contributions to blended EFL engagement research. First, the three-factor PCA structure extends Halverson and Graham's (2019) two-dimensional framework by demonstrating that engagement in blended learning is mode-constituted rather than simply mode-influenced: face-to-face and online learning produce structurally distinct engagement environments whose separation has theoretical implications for how blended course design is conceptualized. Second, disciplinary variation is shown to be mediated by task-value appraisals as theorized in Pekrun's (2006) CVT, advancing Leach's (2016) empirical finding by specifying the mechanism through which the alignment between course content and students' disciplinary professional contexts shapes engagement. Third, the coexistence of declining and increasing trajectories across academic years extends Dörnyei and Ushioda's

(2011) dynamic L2 motivation model to blended EFL settings, identifying perceived occupational value of English as a recoverable motivational resource and complicating uniform accounts of engagement decline.

These contributions translate into three contextually grounded implications for Vietnamese higher education. First, the online engagement deficit demands investment in blended course redesign, incorporating structured interaction and adaptive feedback, rather than expansion of online components per se, a distinction particularly urgent given Vietnam's digital transformation agenda and its documented tension with learner autonomy demands (Ho & Le, 2024). Second, ESP curriculum alignment, matching content to disciplinary professional contexts and proficiency levels, directly addresses the primary driver of disciplinary variation and supports the national mandate to connect English proficiency to labor market readiness (Prime Minister of Vietnam, 2025). Third, the complexity of engagement trajectories across academic years, driven by increasing disciplinary demands and competing priorities that intensify from the second year onward, points to the first year as the most feasible window for intervention, when motivational scaffolding connecting English learning to students' professional futures can establish engagement patterns before these pressures take hold

The study is limited by its single-institution scope and cross-sectional design. Future research should adopt longitudinal, multi-institutional designs and real-time data collection methods to examine how engagement trajectories develop across blended EFL contexts and to test the effects of adaptive course design, ESP curriculum reform, self-regulation interventions, and motivational scaffolding on engagement and learning outcomes.

Blended learning holds considerable promise for EFL education in Vietnam and similar educational contexts. However, realizing that promise requires careful attention to course design to ensure it is responsive to who learners are, what they need, and how those needs change over time.

References

Al-Samarraie, H., Shamsuddin, A., & Alzahrani, A.I. (2020). A flipped classroom model in higher education: A review of the evidence across disciplines. *Educational Technology Research and Development, 68*, 1017–1051. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11423-019-09718-8

Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, *3*(2), 77–101. https://doi.org/10.1191/1478088706qp063oa

Cao, T. X. L. (2023). Benefits and challenges of using LMS in blended learning: Views from EFL teachers and students at a Vietnamese public university. *International Journal of TESOL & Education*, 3(3), 78-100. https://doi.org/10.54855/ijte.23335

Communist Party of Vietnam. (2025**).** *Resolution No. 71-NQ/TW on breakthroughs in the development of education and training.* Communist Party of Vietnam. https://tuyenquang.dcs.vn/DetailView/149241/1/Nghi-quyet-so-71-NQ/TW-cua-Bo-

Chinh-tri.html

Dörnyei, Z., & Ushioda, E. (2011). *Teaching and researching: Motivation* (2nd ed.). Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315833750

Dwivedi, A., Dwivedi, P., Bobek, S., & Zabukovšek, S. (2019). Factors affecting students' engagement with online content in blended learning. *Kybernetes, 48*(7), 1500–1515. https://doi.org/10.1108/K-10-2018-0559

Fredricks, J. A., Blumenfeld, P. C., & Paris, A. H. (2004). School engagement: Potential of the concept, state of the evidence. *Review of Educational Research, 74*(1), 59–109. https://doi.org/10.3102/00346543074001059

Gao, B. W., Jiang, J., & Tang, Y. (2020). The effect of blended learning platform and engagement on students' satisfaction: The case from tourism management teaching. *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism Education, 27*, 100272. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhlste.2020.100272

Gao, Z., Li, X., & Liao, H. (2024). Teacher support and its impact on ESL student engagement in blended learning: The mediating effects of L2 grit and intended effort. *Acta Psychologica, 248,* 104428. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.actpsy.2024.104428

Garrison, D. R. & Vaughan, N. D. (2008). *Blended learning in higher education: Framework, principles, and guidelines*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Garrison, D. R., & Kanuka, H. (2004). Blended learning: Uncovering its transformative potential in higher education. *The internet and higher education*, *7*(2), 95-105. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.iheduc.2004.02.001

Ha, M. J. (2024). Exploring metaverse-blended learning in an English presentation class: Student perceptions. *Computer-Assisted Language Learning Electronic Journal*, *25*(2), 130-151. https://callej.org/index.php/journal/article/view/446

Halverson, L. R. (2016). *Conceptualizing blended learning engagement* (Publication No. 5981) [Doctoral dissertation, Brigham Young University]. Harold B. Lee Library.

Halverson, L. R., & Graham, C. R. (2019). Learner engagement in blended learning environments: A conceptual framework. *Online learning*, *23*(2), 145-178. https://doi.org/10.24059/olj.v23i2.1481

Heilporn, G., Lakhal, S., & Bélisle, M. (2021). An examination of teachers' strategies to foster student engagement in blended learning in higher education. *International journal of educational technology in higher education*, *18*(1), 25. https://doi.org/10.1186/s41239-021-00260-3

Henrie, C. R., Bodily, R., Manwaring, K. C., & Graham, C. R. (2015). Exploring intensive longitudinal measures of student engagement in blended learning. *International Review of Research in Open and Distributed Learning*, *16*(3), 131-155. https://doi.org/10.19173/irrodl.v16i3.2015

Ho, T.T.N. & Le, H. V. (2024). Challenges and Implications of Blended Learning Adoption in

the Age of Communication Technology: A Case Study of Vietnamese Universities during the COVID-19 Pandemic. *REFLections*, *31*(3), 1144-1177. https://doi.org/10.61508/refl.v31i3.276777

Hoang, N. T. (2015). *EFL teachers' perceptions and experiences of blended learning in a Vietnamese university* [Doctoral dissertation, Queensland University of Technology].

Hoang, T. N., Tran, D. T., Hoang, G. T. H., & Tran, T. T. T. (2024). English Communication Needs of Professional Engineers and the Relevance of English Language Training in Higher Education. *Taiwan Journal of TESOL*, *21*(2), 33-64. DOI: 10.30397/TJTESOL.202410_21(2).0002

Hoang, T., Tran, D. (2022). English-Medium Classroom Practices in Action: Facilitating Student Learning and Engagement in a Vietnamese University. In: Pham, M., Barnett, J. (eds) *English Medium Instruction Practices in Vietnamese Universities. Education in the Asia-Pacific Region: Issues, Concerns and Prospects*, vol 68. Springer, Singapore. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-19-2169-8_6

Horwitz, E. K., Horwitz, M. B., & Cope, J. (1986). Foreign language classroom anxiety. *The Modern Language Journal*, *70*(2), 125–132. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.1986.tb05256.x

Hu, J., & Xiao, W. (2025). What are the influencing factors of online learning engagement? A systematic literature review. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *16*, 1542652. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2025.1542652

Huang, M., Kuang, F., & Ling, Y. (2022). EFL learners' engagement in different activities of blended learning environment. *Asian-Pacific Journal of Second and Foreign Language Education*, *7*(1). https://doi.org/10.1186/s40862-022-00136-7

Le, L. T. (2020). A real game-changer in ESL classroom? Boosting Vietnamese learner engagement with gamification. *Computer-Assisted Language Learning Electronic Journal*, *21*(3), 198-212.

Leach, L. (2016). Exploring discipline differences in student engagement in one institution. *Higher Education Research & Development*, *35*(4), 772-786. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/07294360.2015.1137875

Lima, F. de B., Lautert, S. L., & Gomes, A. S. (2021). Contrasting levels of student engagement in blended and non-blended learning scenarios. *Computers & Education, 172*, 104241. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compedu.2021.104241

Manwaring, K. C., Larsen, R., Graham, C. R., Henrie, C. R., & Halverson, L. R. (2017). Investigating student engagement in blended learning settings using experience sampling and structural equation modelling. *The Internet and Higher Education*, *35*, 21-33. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.iheduc.2017.06.002

Mercer, S., & Dörnyei, Z. (2020). *Engaging language learners in contemporary classrooms*. Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/9781009024563

Oliver, M., & Trigwell, K. (2005). Can 'blended learning'be redeemed?. *E-learning and Digital Media*, *2*(1), 17-26. https://doi.org/10.2304/elea.2005.2.1.17

Pekrun, R. (2006). The control-value theory of achievement emotions: Assumptions, corollaries, and implications for educational research and practice. *Educational Psychology Review, 18*(4), 315–341. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10648-006-9029-9

Prime Minister of Vietnam. (2017). *Decision No. 2080/QĐ-TTg approving the adjustment and supplementation of the National Foreign Languages Project for the period 2017–2025.* Government of Vietnam https://vanban.chinhphu.vn/default.aspx?docid=192343&pageid=27160&utm_source=chatgpt.com

Prime Minister of Vietnam. (2025). *Decision No. 2371/QĐ-TTg on approval of the project "Making English the second language in schools during 2025–2035, with a vision to 2045"*. https://thuvienphapluat.vn/van-ban/Giao-duc/Decision-2371-QD-TTg-2025-Making-english-the-second-language-in-schools-during-2025-2035-project-682518.aspx

Saqr, M., López-Pernas, S., Helske, S., & Hrastinski, S. (2023). The longitudinal association between engagement and achievement varies by time, students' profiles, and achievement state: A full program study. *Computers & Education*, *199*, 104787. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compedu.2023.104787

Siyuan, C., & Wah, L. K. (2024). Blended learning approach in learning English communication skills for Japanese college students. *Computer-Assisted Language Learning Electronic Journal*, *25*(2), 47-70. https://callej.org/index.php/journal/article/view/455

Song, S., & Lai, Y. C. (2025). Blended learning in vocational education: Benefits, challenges, and student engagement. *Cogent Education, 12*(1), 2548348. https://doi.org/10.1080/2331186X.2025.2548348

Tran, T. D. (2015). *An exploratory study of the current assessment practices for improving the learning of English as a foreign language (EFL) in two Vietnamese universities* (Doctoral dissertation, Queensland University of Technology).

Tran, T. M. L. (2024). Blended learning in EFL classrooms at a Vietnamese university from students' perspectives. *International Journal of TESOL & Education*, 4(2), 99-117. https://doi.org/10.54855/ijte.24426

Yang, Y., & Chano, R. (2025). The impacts of blended learning on English language proficiency in higher education: A systematic literature review. *Higher Education Studies, 15*(2), 83–95. https://doi.org/10.5539/hes.v15n2p83

Biodata

Dr. Duyen T. Tran, the Director of the Testing Centre, Hanoi University of Industry, Vietnam, has over 20 years of teaching experience. Her research areas include educational assessment,

language teaching methodology, ICT in language education, English as a Medium of Instruction, and English for Special Purposes.

MA. Trinh T. T. Tran, a lecturer at Hanoi University of Industry, Vietnam, has over 10 years of experience in teaching the English language. Her research focuses on English for Specific Purposes, curriculum design, material development, the integration of ICT in education, and innovative teaching methodologies.

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Tue N. Hoang, Head of the School of Languages and Tourism at Hanoi University of Industry, Vietnam, has over 20 years of teaching experience. His research focuses on ICT in education, blended learning, English for Occupational Purposes, English as a Medium of Instruction, and teacher professional development.

MA. Giang T. H. Hoang, a lecturer at Hanoi University of Industry, Vietnam, has over 12 years of experience in teaching the English language at the tertiary level. Her professional interests include curriculum design, English for Occupational Purposes in blended learning environments, course book development, and innovative teaching methodologies.