



Blended Learning and Student Engagement in Post-Pandemic Northern Nigerian Universities

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Abstract

This study investigated the impact of blended learning components (pedagogy, place, service, technology, and time) on student engagement in post-pandemic Northern Nigeria universities. A quantitative approach was used. Data were collected through self-reported surveys administered to a sample of 260 final-year undergraduate and postgraduate students at seven Open Distance Learning (ODL) centres. PLS-SEM was used to analyse the hypothesized relationships between the variables. The results revealed that pedagogy and time are significantly and positively associated with student engagement. Technology, however, exhibited a significant negative effect. Also, had a marginally significant effect, while services showed no significant effect. Overall, the model explained a modest portion of the variance in student engagement (adjusted $R^2 = 0.178$), suggesting the presence of other uncaptured factors influencing student engagement. The findings suggest that educators in blended learning environments should focus on the effective use of pedagogy, time, and technology to promote student engagement. While the specific support services studied did not show a significant effect, further research is needed to explore the types of services most beneficial for student engagement in blended learning environments within the under-researched context of post-pandemic Northern Nigerian universities..

Keywords: Blended Learning, Student Engagement, Post-Pandemic Education, Northern Nigeria

JEL Classification: I230

Contribution to/Originality Knowledge

1.0 Introduction

The emergence of COVID-19 in 2019 has had a devastating global impact. As of April 2024, it has caused 7,010,681 confirmed deaths (https://www.worldometers.info/coronavirus/), making it one of the deadliest pandemics in history (Lele and Goswami, 2024). The educational sector has also been heavily impacted. School closures and shifts to online learning disrupted the education of millions (Okoye *et al.*, 2024), with concerns lingering about potential learning gaps and unequal access to technology hindering some students more than others (Jakubowski *et al.*, 2024). However, though the challenges of the COVID-19 pandemic has subsided, the dynamics it has generated still reverberates across diverse facets of the global economy. The education section is not an exception.



The pandemic compelled a rapid shift towards blended learning in universities globally (Singh *et al.*, 2021), including Nigeria (Eli-Chukwu *et al.*, 2022). However, as institutions move beyond this reactive phase, blended learning emerges as a strategic approach for the post-pandemic education industry. Blended learning combines face-to-face classroom methods with online educational materials and opportunities for interaction, creating a flexible and potentially engaging learning experience (Cronje, 2020). However, despite the growing adoption of blended learning (Jeong and Hwang, 2023; Sugandini *et al.*, 2024) and the mounting evidence of its positive effects on student engagement in various settings (Cao, 2023; Li and Xue, 2023; Yu *et al.*, 2023), such studies often overlook context-specific factors and challenges in their analyses (Singh, 2015; Tian and Song, 2023). In other words, crucial context-relevant factors (such as infrastructure limitations, cultural norms, time and locational differences, and pedagogical approaches) responsible for increased student engagement in blended learning environments largely remain unexplored.

This knowledge gap has significant consequences. Overlooking context-specific factors may risk suboptimal implementation of blended learning initiatives, leading to a limited impact on student engagement (Boelens *et al.*, 2017). Specifically, the unique challenges and opportunities present in Nigerian universities may require specific adaptations to blended learning approaches for optimal student engagement (Eli-Chukwu *et al.*, 2022). However, the lack of sufficient specificity in extant research regarding this may hinder the development of targeted strategies to address potential barriers to student engagement in blended learning in Nigerian universities. Addressing these critical problems is vital. Furthermore, extant studies (e.g., Gopinathan *et al.*, 2020; Sahni, 2019; Shohel *et al.*, 2020) suggest that while blended learning gives fillip to student engagement, academic self-efficacy, performance, and motivation in Nigerian universities, there is less coverage in the literature on students' perspectives relating to challenges associated with pedagogy, place, service, technology, and time in hybrid learning environment. the current study contributes towards bridging this gap.

Given the foregoing, this research aims to investigate the influence of blended learning on student engagement in Nigeria's post-Covid 19 universities. To address this overarching objective and contribute to the ongoing conversation on blended learning and student engagement, the literature review section situated the study within the field and justified its significance by providing strong conceptual, theoretical and empirical foundations to the study. The methodology section detailed the research design, data collection methods, and analysis techniques employed. The results and discussion section presented the findings and explored their meaning in relation to the research objective and existing literature. Finally, the conclusion highlighted the study's contributions to the understanding of blended learning and student engagement, and acknowledged some limitations that might guide future research.

2.0 Literature Review

2.1 Conceptual Review

It is germane to give working definitions of the two key concepts investigated in this study: namely, blended learning and student engagement. Blended learning is a combination of face-to-face learning experience and online education delivery, resulting in a dynamic and flexible



learning experience. The learning experience is mediated through time, place, technology, pedagogy and service elements of the learning environment (Cronje, 2022). In terms of place, it goes beyond traditional physical classrooms, allowing students to engage in learning activities across diverse settings such as home environments, libraries, or virtual spaces (Glassman and Burbidge, 2014; Korson, 2023). Time in blended learning is not bound by rigid schedules; instead, it offers flexibility, enabling students to access course materials and participate in discussions at their convenience, fostering autonomy and accommodating diverse schedules (Müller and Mildenberger, 2021). Service aspects of blended learning encompass support structures such as academic advising, tutoring, and technical assistance, providing students with resources and assistance tailored to their individual needs (Brown and Forcheh, 2023). Technology forms the backbone of blended learning, offering a wide array of digital tools and platforms to facilitate communication, collaboration, and content delivery, enhancing accessibility and interactivity (Martín-García, 2020). Pedagogically, blended learning combines traditional instructional methods with innovative approaches such as flipped classrooms, collaborative learning, and experiential activities, catering to diverse learning styles and fostering deeper engagement and understanding among students (Vásquez Astudillo, 2020). Finally, place in blended learning refers to the physical and online environments where learners access content, interact, and engage in the learning process (Korson, 2023). Together, these dimensions of blended learning create a holistic and learner-centred approach to education, enhancing flexibility, accessibility, and effectiveness in teaching and learning processes.

The study's outcome variable, student engagement, encompasses cognitive, behavioural, and emotional involvement in learning activities (Zepke, 2024). The cognitive dimension involves mental processes such as critical thinking, problem-solving, and information processing, while the behavioural dimension encompasses observable actions like participation, attendance, and completion of tasks (Kelly *et al.*, 2024). Affective engagement pertains to students' emotional investment, motivation, and sense of belonging in the learning environment (Kelly *et al.*, 2024). These three aspects of student engagement coalesced to inform the student's learning experience. Bozan *et al.* (2024), Li and Xue (2023), and Moges *et al.* (2024) collectively underscore its profound impact on academic success, retention rates, and overall student satisfaction.

2.2 Empirical Review

The general picture emerging from the extant empirical literature is that blended learning has a positive and significant influence on student engagement, academic self-efficacy, learning achievement, and satisfaction in post-pandemic educational environments (Eralita and Amriyati Azzizzah, 2023; Haruna *et al.*, 2022; Nong *et al.*, 2023), although it may also increase cognitive load which could negatively affect academic self-confidence (Almasi and Zhu, 2020; Tokuno *et al.*, 2024). Specifically, the literature seems to infer that blended learning pedagogy influences student engagement in a positive manner by promoting student-centred learning, enhancing satisfaction, self-efficacy, critical thinking, and autonomy (Buchan and Precey, 2023; Fisher *et al.*, 2021; Shorey *et al.*, 2018). Similarly, some researchers suggest that the concept and physical/virtual environment of a place, such as a university campus and online



learning platforms, positively influence student engagement, community identity, and wellbeing, which are important for learning and retention (Cicchino *et al.*, 2023; Stave, 2020). Regarding service in blended learning, the empirical literature suggests that its various forms including online resources (He *et al.*, 2019), social support (Vayre and Vonthron, 2017), and service-learning programmes (Celio *et al.*, 2011), positively impact student engagement, academic performance, and educational equity. While some caveats have been entertained concerning the relationships of pedagogy, place, and service with student engagement, that with technology seems to command a near universal recognition. This is because the empirical literature strongly holds that technology has a positive association with student engagement across behavioural, cognitive, and affective dimensions, and can enhance self-directed learning, active and collaborative learning, and teacher-student interactions (Bedenlier *et al.*, 2020; Greener, 2022; Rashid and Asghar, 2016). Finally, Baragash and Al-Samarraie (2018) and Dwivedi *et al.* (2019) suggest that the time dimension of blended learning, including time spent online and promptness of teachers' responses to students' needs, positively shapes student engagement.

2.3 Theoretical Review

This study examines how blended learning design, through its dimensions of place, time, service, technology, and pedagogy, generates student engagement in Nigerian universities by nurturing the three core psychological needs (i.e., autonomy, competence, relatedness) of the Self-Determination Theory (SDT) (Ryan and Deci, 2019). For instance, the flexibility of blended learning in terms of place and time fosters autonomy (McHone, 2020), while diverse learning spaces and personalised services enhance competence (Mynard and Shelton-Strong, 2022). However, poorly designed technology or limited digital skills can hinder these benefits (Rasheed *et al.*, 2020; Teane, 2024).

SDT offers a lens to understand how blended learning can promote student engagement in postpandemic Nigerian universities (Noour and Hubbard, 2015). Its concept of autonomy provides choices in pedagogy and time (McHone, 2020), while the competence concept explains the possibility of personalized learning through technology. Finally, SDT's relatedness construct provide the basis for explaining student connection through collaborative activities and servicelearning (Rahayu *et al.*, 2024). Overall, the SDT explains how blended learning can enhance intrinsic motivation and ultimately student engagement (Chiu, 2021; Noour and Hubbard, 2015). However, the design of the blended learning environment needs to consider all these aspects to avoid hindering student motivation in the post-pandemic context (Ameloot *et al.*, 2024).

While lockdowns and social distancing restrictions forced a shift towards online learning (Oyediran *et al.*, 2020), limited internet access (Ibrahim, 2023), inadequate technological infrastructure (Nwankwor *et al.*, 2018), and unreliable electricity supply in the North (Naibbi and Tukur, 2017), severally and collectively hampered online delivery (Rasheed *et al.*, 2020). The rapid shift also exposed the need for pedagogical adjustments to effectively engage students in virtual environments, a reality the teachers were least prepared for in the North (Doghonadze *et al.*, 2020). While blended learning offered some flexibility post-Coronatimes,



pre-existing inequities in access to technology and limited digital literacy skills as earlier noted exacerbated challenges. How fare blended learning in that contested environment? The current study unravels that phenomenon based on its effects on student engagement. Accordingly, this study was guided by the following assumed relationships:

- H₁: There is a significant relationship between pedagogical approaches in blended learning and student engagement.
- H₂: There is a significant relationship between the learning spaces (place) in blended learning programme and student engagement.
- H₃: There is a significant relationship between the support services offered in blended learning and student engagement.
- H₄: There is a significant relationship between the technology tools used in blended learning and student engagement.
- H₅: There is a significant relationship between time flexibility in blended learning and student engagement.

3.0 Methodology

3.1 Study Context and Population

In Nigerian universities, the implementation of blended learning is intertwined with the sector's unique characteristics. The sector consists of universities, polytechnics, and colleges of education. Each sub-sector has its unique expertise domain and concomitant challenges and opportunities. However, they are all influenced by infrastructure and resource deficits as well as student demographics (Salisu, 2023). For instance, challenges arise from limited internet access, outdated technological infrastructure, and overcrowded classrooms, necessitating innovative solutions and strategic resource allocation to ensure equitable access and optimal technology utilisation (Nwuke and Nwanguma, 2024). Also, the digital divide and socio-economic disparities compound issues, requiring initiatives to address inequalities to promote inclusive access to blended learning benefits (Martens *et al.*, 2020). Nigeria's cultural diversity and linguistic landscape further underscore the need for culturally sensitive content and support for diverse learning styles to foster meaningful engagement and inclusivity within blended learning environments (Brown and Nthoi, 2022).

It was against this general background that this study investigated the effects of blended learning on student engagement in universities with approved Open Distance Learning (ODL) centres in Northern Nigeria. The universities meeting this criterion are presented in Table 1. The existence of pre-COVID-19 online learning infrastructure in these universities facilitated the ease with which they transitioned to online education delivery during the 2019 pandemic. This placed them in a unique position to be candidates for this study on blended learning in the post-COVID-19 era. However, the nominal rolls of the student population were not accessible at the time of conducting the research. Thus, the population was considered infinite. To determine the study sample size, we assumed a 50% potential access to the population (thus

becoming our target population) and calculated the planned sample size of 384 respondents using the following Charan and Biswas' (2013, p. 122) formula, thus:

Sample Size =
$$\frac{Z_{1-\frac{\alpha}{2}}^2 p(1-p)}{d^2}$$

where: $Z_{1-\alpha/2}^2 = Z$ -score at 95% confidence level (i.e., 1.96); $P_{(1-p)} = Expected proportion of study population (i.e., 50% or 0.5); and d = Absolute precision (proxied by level of significance) (i.e., 5%). Thus,$

Sample Size =
$$\frac{1.96^2 \times 0.5(1-0.5)}{0.05^2} = 384.16 \approx 384$$

Table 1. Northern Nigeria Universities with Approved ODL Centres and Sample Sizes

| SN | University | n | % |
|-------|--|-----|--------|
| 1 | Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria | 89 | 23.18 |
| 2 | University of Maiduguri, Maiduguri | 81 | 21.09 |
| 3 | University of Abuja, Abuja | 74 | 19.27 |
| 4 | Modibbo Adama University of Technology, Yola | 66 | 17.18 |
| 5 | Usmanu Danfodio University, Sokoto | 37 | 9.64 |
| 6 | Federal University of Technology, Minna | 22 | 5.73 |
| 7 | University of Ilorin, Ilorin | 15 | 3.91 |
| Total | | 384 | 100.00 |

Source: https://www.nuc.edu.ng/distance-learning-centers/

In apportioning the planned sample size among the seven university-based ODLs, we relied on an expert's suggestion from one of the universities that Ahmadu Bello University, University of Maiduguri, University of Abuja, and Usmanu Danfodio University potentially had larger ODL students, as shown in Table 1.

3.2 Data Collection and Sampled Respondents

The survey instrument was produced in Google Forms and its link was distributed via WhatsApp to the 384 students. Unengaged responses were determined using a standard deviation (SD) < 0.05 indicating low engagement based on intra-individual response variability analysis (Dunn *et al.*, 2018). This approach ensured data collection from engaged respondents using a popular user-friendly platform and a targeted distribution method. Eventually, a 67.71% response rate was realised (i.e., 260 students) across the seven ODL centres. The realised sample emerged as follows: Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria (60, 23.08%), University of Maiduguri, Maiduguri (55, 21.15%), University of Abuja, Abuja (50, 19.23%), Modibbo Adama University of Technology, Yola (45, 17.31%), Usmanu Danfodio University, Sokoto (25, 9.62%), Federal University of Technology, Minna (15, 5.77%), and University of Ilorin, Ilorin (10, 3.85%).





3.3 Measures

Guided by Cronje's (2022) five-dimensional conceptualisation of blended learning, the current study measures blended learning as a multidimensional construct consisting of place, time, service, technology, and pedagogy. An initial set of ten items was adopted from Shakeel *et al.* (2023) to evaluate the technology factor. The service dimension was also initially assessed using ten items adapted from Seo and Um (2023), while time, place, and pedagogy were measured using ten items each developed based on Norberg *et al.* (2011), Korson (2023), and Oke and Salaam (2023), respectively. All items were rated on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 = Strongly disagree to 5 = Strongly agree.

Student engagement was assessed using an initial ten-item scale adapted from Almutairi and White (2018), Heilporn *et al.* (2020), Ma *et al.* (2017), and Zhao *et al.* (2023). The items were also rated on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 = Strongly disagree to 5 = Strongly agree.

The instrument containing the two scales was pilot-tested for content validity and internal consistency reliability in a sample of 70 students drawn from the University of Maiduguri. The Content validity index (CVI) was used in assessing the content validity (Yusoff, 2019), and the results (i.e., blended learning, CVI = 0.93; student engagement, CVI = 0.93) confirm that the two scales are content valid. Also, the scales' Cronbach alphas (i.e., blended learning, $\alpha = 0$. 789; student engagement, $\alpha = 0.830$), computed in JASP, exceeds the recommended threshold of 0.70 (Njeri *et al.*, 2024).

3.4 Data Analytic Techniques

Data analysis was conducted using SmartPLS (for model testing) and SPSS (for descriptive analysis). Data pre-processing included outlier detection via Mahalanobis Distance, multicollinearity assessment with variance inflation factor (VIF), and correlation analysis using Spearman's rho (Ethington *et al.*, 2002). Measurement model assessment employed Cronbach's alpha (α), composite reliability (CR), and item loadings for reliability, and average variance extracted (AVE), Fornell-Larcker Criterion, and Homotrait-Monotrait Ratio (HTMT) for validity (Hair *et al.*, 2022). The structural model was evaluated through a bootstrapping technique (Hair *et al.*, 2022). Finally, model fit was determined using the Unweighted Least Squares discrepancy (d_{ULS}), the Geodesic discrepancy (d_G), the standardized root mean square residual (SRMR), and R-squared (R²) supported by the f² statistic(Hair *et al.*, 2022).

4.0 Results and Discussion

The heatmap of Spearman's rank correlations (Figure 1) revealed several interesting relationships among the variables: a moderate negative correlation between pedagogy and place (r = -0.237, p < .001), suggesting the inability of teachers' dominant pedagogical inclination to align with the various learning spaces; a moderate positive correlation between pedagogy and student engagement (r = 0.141, p < .05), suggesting an increase in student engagement alongside the familiar pedagogical approach in universities; and a strong negative correlation between student engagement and technology (r = -0.332, p < .001), highlighting the difficulty students face in dealing with learning technologies often used in blended learning



environments. Interestingly, a weak negative correlation was found between service and technology (r = -0.134, p < .05), indicating a modest decrease in service as more online education delivery technologies are deployed.



Note: * p < .05, ** p < .01, *** p < .001

Figure 1. Spearman's Rho Heatmap

Before the regression analyses were run, we utilised Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) values to assess the presence of multicollinearity among predictor variables. The results, shown in Table 2, show the VIF values ranging from 1.022 to 2.674. Thus, all of the constructs' VIF values fall within Hair *et al.*'s (2022) recommended threshold of VIF \leq 3, suggesting the absence of problematic multicollinearity in the study dataset, thus justifying the subsequent measurement and structural analysis. Thus, the internal consistency analysis, also shown in Table 2, revealed good reliability for all constructs, supporting the instruments' suitability for the study. Alpha values exceeded the recommended 0.7 and CR values surpassed the threshold of 0.8 for pedagogy, place, service, student engagement, and technology, indicating strong internal consistency within these constructs. However, the time construct exhibited acceptable, yet slightly lower, reliability ($\alpha = 0.708$, CR = 0.807).



| | | Item | VIF Values | | | |
|------------|-------------|-------------------|------------|-------|-------|-------|
| Constructs | Items | Loadings | Outer | Inner | CA | CR |
| | PEDA1 | 0.673 | 1.427 | | | 0.941 |
| Dadagogy | PEDA4 | 0.900 | 1.883 | 1.072 | 0767 | |
| Fedagogy | PEDA5 | 0.795 | 1.507 | 1.072 | 0.707 | 0.041 |
| | PEDA6 | 0.632 | 1.485 | | | |
| | PLAC1 | 0.649 | 1.678 | | | |
| Dlaga | PLAC4 | 0.766 | 1.613 | 1.001 | 0766 | 0.832 |
| Place | PLAC6 | 0.876 | 1.454 | 1.091 | 0.700 | |
| | PLAC7 | 0.673 | 1.751 | | | |
| | SERV1 | 0.578 | 1.313 | | | |
| | SERV2 | 0.744 | 2.169 | | | 0.879 |
| | SERV3 | 0.818 | 2.601 | | | |
| Service | SERV4 | 0.595 | 1.589 | 1.042 | 0.849 | |
| | SERV5 | 0.789 | 2.674 | | | |
| | SERV6 | 0.776 | 1.687 | | | |
| | SERV7 | 0.679 | 2.231 | | | |
| | STEN1 | 0.721 | 1.616 | | | |
| Student | STEN2 | 0.774 | 1.625 | | 0.785 | |
| Studelli | STEN3 | 0.838 | 1.952 | _ | | 0.854 |
| Engagement | STEN7 0.808 | 0.808 | 1.672 | | | |
| | STEN8 | 0.506 | 1.152 | | | |
| | TECH1 | 0.823 | 2.597 | | | |
| | TECH2 | TECH2 0.706 1.661 | | | | |
| Tashnalasy | TECH3 | 0.795 | 2.255 | 1.024 | 0.010 | 0.070 |
| Technology | TECH5 | 0.643 | 1.418 | 1.034 | 0.818 | 0.808 |
| | TECH7 | 0.726 | 1.864 | | | |
| | TECH8 | 0.638 | 1.580 | | | |
| | TIME2 | 0.646 | 1.334 | | | |
| Timo | TIME3 | 0.551 | 1.275 | 1.022 | 0 700 | 0.807 |
| Time | TIME4 | 0.850 | 1.509 | 1.022 | 0.708 | 0.807 |
| | TIME6 | 0.791 | 1.363 | | | |

Table 2. Reliabilities and Collinearity Statistics

Convergent and discriminant validity analyses supported the robustness of the measurement instruments. As shown in Table 3, all constructs achieved acceptable convergent validity with AVE exceeding 0.5, indicating their measures effectively capture the intended variance. Moreover, discriminant validity was established through the Fornell-Larcker criterion, wherein the square roots of the AVE values for each construct were found to be higher than their correlations with other constructs, indicating adequate differentiation between the constructs. Additionally, Table 4 presents a more robust discriminant validity index, the HTMT ratio,



where the HTMT values for the study constructs are all below 0.85. This suggests these constructs share minimal variance and are distinct in the model.

| Table 5. Average Variance Extracted (AVE) and Fornen-Darteker Criterion | | | | | | | |
|---|-------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|-------|
| Constructs | AVE | PEDA | PLAC | SERV | STEN | TECH | TIME |
| Pedagogy | 0.574 | 0.758 | | | | | |
| Place | 0.557 | -0.256 | 0.746 | | | | |
| Service | 0.514 | 0.077 | -0.132 | 0.717 | | | |
| Student Engagement | 0.546 | 0.148 | 0.113 | 0.106 | 0.739 | | |
| Technology | 0.526 | 0.008 | -0.046 | -0.125 | -0.353 | 0.725 | |
| Time | 0.517 | 0.018 | -0.046 | 0.087 | 0.194 | -0.122 | 0.719 |

| Table 3. Average Varian | nce Extracted (AVE) and | Fornell-Larcker Criterion |
|-------------------------|-------------------------|---------------------------|
|-------------------------|-------------------------|---------------------------|

| Table 4. Homotrait-Monotrait Ratio | | | | | | | | |
|---|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|---|--|--|
| Constructs PEDA PLAC SERV STEN TECH TIM | | | | | | | | |
| Pedagogy | _ | | | | | | | |
| Place | 0.337 | — | | | | | | |
| Service | 0.143 | 0.138 | | | | | | |
| Student Engagement | 0.165 | 0.165 | 0.118 | | | | | |
| Technology | 0.082 | 0.08 | 0.168 | 0.431 | | | | |
| Time | 0.071 | 0.094 | 0.137 | 0.239 | 0.178 | — | | |

The data shown in Table 5 (and displayed structurally in Figure 2) indicate that the hypothesised relationships between the five blended learning factors and student engagement were partially supported. Pedagogical approaches ($\beta = 0.183$, p = 0.004) and time flexibility ($\beta = 0.153$, p = 0.016) exhibited significant positive associations with student engagement, while technology use displayed a significant negative effect ($\beta = -0.320$, p < 0.001). The relationship between learning spaces and student engagement was, however, marginally significant ($\beta = 0.161$, p = 0.045), and support services showed no significant effect ($\beta = 0.060$, p = 0.431). These findings suggest that pedagogical approaches, time management in blended learning environments.



| Hypotheses | β | SD | <i>t</i> -Stat | р | Comment |
|---|--------|-------|----------------|-------|---------------|
| H1: Pedagogy \rightarrow Student Engagement | 0.183 | 0.064 | 2.859 | 0.004 | Supported |
| H2: Place \rightarrow Student Engagement | 0.161 | 0.080 | 2.009 | 0.045 | Supported |
| H3: Service \rightarrow Student Engagement | 0.060 | 0.076 | 0.788 | 0.431 | Not Supported |
| H4: Technology \rightarrow Student Engagement | -0.320 | 0.054 | 5.959 | 0.000 | Supported |
| H5: Time \rightarrow Student Engagement | 0.153 | 0.063 | 2.422 | 0.016 | Supported |

Table 5. Hypotheses' Test Results



Figure 2. Structural Model Analysis

The fit of the study model was determined using four indices: d_{ULS} , d_G , the SRMR, and f²-supported R². The model fit using the two discrepancy indices (d_{ULS} and d_G) revealed mixed results. The discrepancy between the two (i.e., $d_{ULS} = 2.291$ and $d_G = 0.679$) is not insignificant, thus pointing towards acceptance of the model as of good fit (Cheah *et al.*, 2018). Furthermore, SRMR = 0.070, which is lower than Hu and Bentler's (1999) 0.08 cut-off threshold, indicates that the discrepancy between the model-implied and the empirical correlation matrix may not have been substantial, implying a good fit for the model. Thus, the discrepancies between the model's predicted relationships and the actual observed data are relatively small, supporting the hypothesised relationships between pedagogy, place, service, technology, and time, on the one hand, and student engagement, on the other.



However, despite this good fit, the model only explained a modest portion of the variance in student engagement ($\mathbb{R}^2 = 0.178$). While technology use exhibited a moderate negative effect size ($\mathbf{f}^2 = 0.123$, p = 0.011), suggesting a stronger influence on student engagement compared to other factors, the effects of pedagogy ($\mathbf{f}^2 = 0.039$, p = 0.138) and time flexibility ($\mathbf{f}^2 = 0.028$, p = 0.206) were statistically significant but potentially weak. Place or learning spaces ($\mathbf{f}^2 = 0.029$, p = 0.203) and service ($\mathbf{f}^2 = 0.004$, p = 0.726) showed negligible and non-significant effects. This pattern suggests the presence of other relevant factors not captured by the model that likely influence student engagement in blended learning environments.

The findings of the current study regarding the impact of blended learning components on student engagement align with some aspects of existing research while raising questions for further exploration. For example, The positive influence of blended learning pedagogy on student engagement ($\beta = 0.183$, p = 0.004) aligns with studies by Heilporn *et al.* (2021) and Holbrey (2020). These studies suggest that the relevant pedagogical approaches, tailored for blended learning environments, are known to give fillip to active participation and deeper learning, ultimately leading to higher student engagement. Theoretically, the result also supports the autonomy postulate of the SDT. From an SDT perspective, well-designed blended learning pedagogy likely provides students with more *choice* in how they learn (e.g., offering various learning activities, allowing for different learning paces). This increased autonomy can contribute to feelings of control and satisfaction, leading to higher student engagement (Chiu, 2021). Similarly, the positive association between time flexibility and student engagement (β = 0.153, p = 0.016) is supported by Dixit and Pathak (2023). These authors emphasise how blended learning's accommodative tendencies enable individual learning paces and schedules, empowering students and fostering a sense of control, ultimately contributing to student engagement. From an SDT lens, time flexibility inherent in blended learning likely allows students more control over their learning schedule through such mechanisms like asynchronous online modules or options for self-paced learning (Law, 2022).

However, the negative association between technology use and student engagement in blended learning ($\beta = -0.320$, p < 0.001) presents a contrasting viewpoint. While some studies (e.g., Ihnatova *et al.*, 2021; Serrano *et al.*, 2019) emphasise technology's role in enhancing interactivity and access to learning materials, findings of the current study align with concerns raised by other researchers (e.g., Günüç and Kuzu, 2014; Heflin *et al.*, 2017) on the deleterious effects of technology on student engagement. These studies highlight technology's distractive ability, usability issues, and the crucial role of proper integration strategies to ensure technology fosters, rather than hinders, student engagement. In tandem with these views is SDT's proposition that the negative association between technology use and engagement suggests a need for improvement (Rashid and Asghar, 2016). Poor design, technical difficulties, or overreliance on technology can thwart student autonomy, competence, and relatedness, hindering motivation, thus defeating student engagement.

Furthermore, the marginally significant positive effect of learning spaces on student engagement ($\beta = 0.161$, p = 0.045) aligns somewhat with de Brito Lima *et al.*'s (2021) and Holley and Dobson's (2008) research, suggesting that well-designed physical and online



learning spaces can support collaboration and focus. This position is theoretically strengthened by the relatedness construct of the SDT (Ryan and Deci, 2019). Optimally-designed learning spaces in blended learning can promote a sense of belonging through face-to-face/virtual interaction and social support, attenuating feelings of aloneness often experienced in purely online environments (Hansen-Brown et al., 2022). This enhanced sense of connection with fellow students and teachers may lead to enhanced student engagement. However, further research is needed, as highlighted by the non-significant effect of support services on student engagement ($\beta = 0.060$, p = 0.431). This might be due to limited scope (failing to address all of the students' needs for autonomy, competence, relatedness): lack of accessibility or awareness (thereby hindering student autonomy), or even poor quality/delivery of services, thus failing to fulfil students' competence needs (Shin and Johnson, 2021). Additional studies are thus required investigate the specific types, accessibility, and quality of support services offered to gauge if they better reflect the SDT needs. Nevertheless, contrary to the findings of the current study, Raphael (2016) and Raphael and Mtebe (2016) underscore the importance of readily available academic and technical support for students and teachers, respectively, in blended learning environments. The current findings might be due to the specific services studied or their implementation in a post-crisis era.

Finally, the study's adjusted R^2 of 0.178 indicates that the model explains a modest, but statistically significant, portion of the variance in student engagement within blended learning environments. However, despite the significance, a low R^2 also suggests that a substantial portion of the variance in student engagement (82.2%) remains unexplained by the current model. In other words, blended learning pedagogy, learning spaces or place, support services, educational technology, and time flexibility collectively explains only a limited portion of student engagement variance in blended learning at Nigerian universities. This might be due to unobserved variables like student dispositions or faculty quality (not explored in the study) (Permadi and Aditya, 2021), limitations in how student engagement was measured (Lishner *et al.*, 2008), or even complex interactions between the study variables that the current model did not feature. Nevertheless, the model identified statistically significant relationships between some of the blended learning context, even if the model fails to account for all possible explanatory factors. This does not necessarily invalidate the model, but it highlights its limitations and the need to consider other factors that might be influencing student engagement.

5. Conclusion

This study examined how blended learning dimensions (i.e., teaching methods, learning spaces or place, support services, technology, and time) influence student engagement of final-year students at universities in Northern Nigeria after the COVID-19 pandemic. The study found that engaging teaching methods and flexible learning schedules boosted engagement, while technology use had the opposite effect. Support services did not seem to make a significant difference. In general, the study highlighted factors that makes blended learning successful in this under-studied context, emphasizing the importance of good teaching, flexible scheduling, and thoughtful technology use to keep students engaged.



This study advances theory, practice, and policy for blended learning and student engagement. Firstly, it highlights how instructional design (pedagogy, time, technology) affects engagement in a post-pandemic context. It confirms the positive effects of pedagogy and time but identifies drawbacks of using less integrated technology. Secondly, the study offers guidance for designing and implementing blended learning in universities, especially in Northern Nigeria. It emphasises effective pedagogy, flexible schedules, and seamless technology integration. It also highlights the need for improved support services. Finally, the study suggests initiatives for faculty development in blended learning pedagogy and time management. It also points to the need for investment in technology infrastructure, support services, and student engagement metrics for program evaluation.

Notwithstanding the foregoing contributions, the study model only explained a modest portion of the variance in student engagement. This suggests there might be other relevant factors influencing student engagement that the model did not capture. Furthermore, the study focused on a specific geographical region (Northern Nigeria) and may not be generalisable to other contexts. To address the limitations of a partially explained variance and potential regional bias, future research on blended learning and student engagement can benefit from two approaches. First, refining the model by incorporating additional factors or using qualitative methods can offer a more comprehensive understanding of student experiences. Second, replicating the study in diverse settings and conducting comparative analysis can enhance generalizability and illuminate the influence of cultural and contextual variations on student engagement in blended learning environments.

Acknowledgment

This work was supported by a research grant by Tertiary Education Trust Fund (TETFund) Nigeria awarded to the first author (Dr Aliyu Isah Chikaji).

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