

# MOOC learners' demographics, self-regulated learning strategy, perceived learning and satisfaction: A structural equation modeling approach

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## Abstract

Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCs) provide a great platform to study individual and group differences of learners in perceptions, motivations, and behaviors under self-directed learning context. This study examined the relationships, in particular, influential relationships, among MOOC learners' demographics, their self-regulated learning (SRL) strategy usage, perceived learning, and satisfaction. Participants were 4503 learners from 17 Coursera courses who responded to an online survey in 2018. Structural equation modeling showed that participants' age, gender, highest degree, and the number of online courses previously taken significantly predicted both goal setting and environment structuring usage. Previous experience with the course topics only predicted goal setting, not environment structuring. Gender, goal setting and environment structuring strategy usage predicted participants' perceived affective learning. Highest degree, the number of online courses previously took, goal setting, environment structuring strategy usage and perceived affective learning predicted participants' satisfaction with the course. Participants identified themselves with a *Latin America* culture had better environment structuring strategy usage than any other cultural group and higher perceived affective learning than the other cultural groups except for *Other*. The results provided implications for researchers studying self-directed learning environments, differences in learning of learners with diverse backgrounds, and SRL behaviors, as well as for educators dealing with increasing SRL strategy usage, improving online learners' satisfaction and teaching cross-culturally.

**Keywords:** MOOC, self-regulated learning, perceived learning, satisfaction,

## 1. Introduction

Since the rapid expansion of online education, students' behaviors, perceptions, and motivations in online environments have been studied extensively for both theory and practice development. Pintrich & De Groot (1990) urged more researchers to investigate the relationships between students' motivations and behaviors in different learning contexts to understand how these two factors independently or jointly influence students' learning. Practically, designing effective and engaging learning environments requires the knowledge of the factors that influence students' learning and perceptions. For instance, in online learning contexts, course design, interactions with instructors, and interactions with students were three factors having an influence on students' perceived learning and satisfaction with the online course (Swan, 2001). Practitioners can focus on enhancing the three areas when designing online courses.

With the more diversified student body in modern educational contexts, individual and group differences in attitudes, behaviors, and perceptions of online learning environments have also been examined. Gender differences in perceived learning, demographics that associated with online students' dropout, perceived cognitive learning differences among different cultural groups are some examples in this research area (Rovai & Baker, 2005; Lee & Choi, 2011; McCroskey et al., 1996). The overall findings generally support that individual/group differences exist. This information can be used to develop targeted interventions aimed at changing online learners' attitudes, increasing their motivations and preventing them from dropping out for a specific group/individual learners.

Online education and global reach shorten the distance between learners from different cultures. Previous studies have reported the differences in values, beliefs, and behaviors of students from different cultures. An example is the phrase of the "paradox of the Chinese learners" where scholars tried to understand why Chinese learners outperformed learners from the West even though

29 the Chinese educational system focused too much on memorization instead of  
30 understanding (Watkins, 2000). Hofstede (1986) described the differences of  
31 student/teacher and student/student interactions in terms of a four dimension  
32 model: Individualism versus Collectivism, large versus small Power Distance,  
33 strong versus weak Uncertainty Avoidance, and Masculinity versus Femininity,  
34 which explained the cultural differences among many countries. In addition,  
35 studying similarities and differences between different cultures helps educators  
36 to develop cultural competency and effectively teach cross-culturally. As early  
37 as 2001, Sleeter (2001) proposed to have large-scale curriculum preparing teach-  
38 ers to teach cross-culturally in the U.S. Nowadays, culturally diverse schools are  
39 growing in not only the U.S. but many other countries. Thus, the research  
40 examines cross-culture differences in teaching and learning is imperative.

41 As a special type of online education, the Massive Open Online Course  
42 (MOOC) has even more diverse learner characteristics. The early batch of  
43 MOOC research found there was a diverse student body in terms of locations  
44 and demographics, as well as behaviors in courses (Breslow et al., 2013; Kizilcec  
45 et al., 2013). The variety of motivations for enrolling in MOOCs is another  
46 recognizable difference between MOOCs and traditional credit-bearing online  
47 courses. Reasons for enrolling vary from preparation for advanced education  
48 to simply examining an online course (Shapiro et al., 2017). Because of the  
49 wide range of learner demographics and motivations, their behaviors can differ  
50 greatly from completing the course with a good grade to totally disengaged  
51 with the course (Kizilcec et al., 2013). Learners' motivations and participation  
52 in a MOOC also influence their performances greatly (De Barba et al., 2016).  
53 Similarly, their self-regulated learning (SRL) levels and strategy usage can be  
54 quite different, such as that professionals reported a higher level of SRL strategy  
55 usage than novice learners in MOOCs (Hood et al., 2015). The wide range of  
56 learners, their behaviors and motivations have made MOOCs a great platform  
57 to study individual and group differences in teaching and learning.

58 Several recent attempts have been made to reveal the individual or group dif-  
59 ferences in MOOC learners' attitudes, perceptions, and behaviors (e.g. De Barba

et al. (2016); Kizilcec et al. (2017)). However, little attention has been paid to the differences in MOOC learners' perceptions and behaviors among different cultural groups. As mentioned above, MOOC learners can be from any one country in the world, which adds another layer of the diverse background of the learners. In addition, no existing study has examined the relationships between the four variables: MOOC learners' demographics, learning behaviors, particularly SRL behaviors, perceived learning and satisfaction, including mediating effects. This study seeks to explore the relationships among the four variables by applying a structural equation model (SEM). The paper is organized as follows: section 2 reviews relevant literature on demographics, SRL, perceived learning, and satisfaction in online and MOOC environments. Hypotheses are formed from the demonstrated relationships and particularly those contradicted results in previous research. Section 3 describes the research method, data collection, and data analysis. Section 4 presents the study results. Section 5 discusses the results, reveals the study limitations, and provides implications for researchers and practitioners. Section 6 concludes the study.

## 2. Literature review

### 2.1. Student demographics and online learning

Students' demographics have long been studied for relationships with many aspects of online learning. Age, gender and prior knowledge are among the frequently investigated demographic variables. Prior experience of online learning has been identified as an important demographic factor that may affect students online learning experiences. Yukselturk & Bulut (2007) reported no relationship between students' general demographic information, such as age and gender, and their success in online courses. Gender was shown as a significant factor in predicting learners' perceived learning — female students had higher perceived learning than their male peers (Rovai & Baker, 2005). While Willging & Johnson (2009) concluded that students' demographics did not influence their dropout decisions from online courses, in a literature review on online

89 course dropout, Lee & Choi (2011) identified three groups of factors that affect  
90 students' dropout. Student demographics, including elements like "academic  
91 background, relevant experiences, relevant skills, and psychological attributes"  
92 (p. 604), was among the three factors.

93 There are a number of studies focusing on learners' demographics and their  
94 learning outcomes in Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCs). MOOCs are  
95 special online environments in that the students enrolled in MOOCs can be  
96 much more diverse in demographics (Breslow et al., 2013). Thus, demographic  
97 variables, which are not reported in traditional learning environments because  
98 they are not diversified, such as students' highest degree obtained and current  
99 job status have been introduced. Morris et al. (2015) identified that learners'  
100 age, prior online learning experience, educational attainment, and job status  
101 predicted their learning outcomes. Kennedy et al. (2015) reported that learners'  
102 prior knowledge of the topic is the best predictor for success. And DeBoer et al.  
103 (2013) found learners' educational attainment a significant predictor for success,  
104 but not their prior knowledge of the course topic. The letter H with a numeric  
105 number (e.g. H1) denote the hypothesis and its number in this article.

106 H1: Gender significantly predicts perceived learning.

107 H2: Experience significantly predicts perceived learning.

## 108 2.2. *Self-regulated learning*

109 Self-regulated learning (SRL) strategies are defined as "the strategies that  
110 students use to regulate their cognition as well as the use of resource man-  
111 agement strategies that students use to control their learning" (Pintrich, 1999,  
112 p. 459). Self-regulated learners are aware of their strengths, weaknesses and  
113 they are able to attribute time, resources, and mental effort toward their goals  
114 in learning (Zimmerman, 2002). Paechter et al. (2010) stated that SRL was  
115 positively related to learning achievements.

116 H3: SRL strategy usage significantly predicts perceived learning.

### 117 2.2.1. *Student backgrounds and self-regulated learning*

118 Researchers have investigated the relationship between students' backgrounds,  
119 such as demographics, and their learning strategy usage, including SRL strate-  
120 gies. Some researchers reported positive relationships between certain demo-  
121 graphics and strategy usage. For example, Colorado & Eberle (2012) found  
122 that older and higher level (graduate) students tended to be more self-regulated  
123 in learning. Older students used more advanced strategies to monitor their  
124 own learning behaviors and used more frequently than younger students (Lan,  
125 2005). Vermunt & Vermetten (2004) reported that older and more experienced  
126 learners showed better mastery and usage of effective learning strategies. Demo-  
127 graphic variables like gender influenced students' cognitive strategy usage but  
128 not regulation/management strategy usage (Wolters & Pintrich, 1998). Artino  
129 & Stephens (2009) found that graduate students showed more critical thinking  
130 pattern during learning than undergraduate students when their experiences  
131 were controlled. Students who had taken online courses before used more SRL  
132 strategies (Wang et al., 2013). Law et al. (2008) did not find significant differ-  
133 ent SRL strategy usage between students of different ages, but they did reveal  
134 that female students reported more SRL strategy usage than their male peers.  
135 Wang et al. (2013) reported that students who had more successful prior online  
136 learning experiences tended to use more SRL strategies.

137 In MOOCs, researchers also investigate the relationship between student  
138 demographics and self-regulated learning because compared to traditional online  
139 courses, MOOCs require learners, even more, to be self-regulated in order to  
140 learn. As a first step to examine SRL in MOOCs, researchers have studied the  
141 differences of self-regulated behaviors in self-reported format between student  
142 groups. For example, Hood et al. (2015) found that learners who were pursuing a  
143 higher degree in the subject tended to be more self-regulated in the same subject  
144 MOOC. It was assumed that the SRL strategy ability was transferable from their  
145 own learning contexts. In addition, learners who were already professionals  
146 in the field tended to use more SRL strategy. The authors hypothesized that

147 learners who were more familiar with the content and more confident were better  
148 able to use SRL strategies. Similarly, Kizilcec et al. (2017) reported that learners  
149 with Ph.D. used more SRL strategies than non-PhDs while learners who were  
150 current students used fewer strategies than non-students. The authors also  
151 found that learners who had different motivations for enrolling in the MOOC  
152 reported different numbers of SRL strategy usage. The authors suggested these  
153 factors be integrated when designing adaptive learning paths for learners in  
154 MOOCs.

155 H4: Number of MOOCs previously taken significantly predicts SRL strategy  
156 usage.

157 H5: Degree significantly predicts SRL strategy usage.

158 H6: Experience significantly predicts SRL strategy usage.

159 H7: Age significantly predicts SRL strategy usage.

160 H8: Gender significantly predicts SRL strategy usage.

### 161 2.2.2. *Culture, learning and SRL*

162 Because of the differences in educational systems, cultural values, beliefs, and  
163 emphasis on learning, it is possible that students from different cultural back-  
164 grounds have different perceptions towards learning. For example, Li (2005)  
165 pointed out that education in Confucius cultures emphasized on virtual while  
166 Western education focused on the mind. These differences will influence stu-  
167 dents' beliefs and learning behaviors. Purdie et al. (1996) reported that Japanese  
168 and Australian students had different perceptions toward learning. Researchers  
169 have examined the relationship between culture and SRL beliefs and strategy  
170 usage. Pintrich (2003) emphasized the importance of understanding cultural  
171 impacts on individuals' beliefs about self, learning, motivation, and various  
172 concepts related to SRL. Wolters et al. (2005) stated that SRL strategy use was  
173 very context dependent, meaning, a student might use a completely different set  
174 of strategies when studying different subjects or under different learning circum-  
175 stances. They also stressed the needs to extend the SRL work to a more diverse  
176 context with different ethnic groups. Purdie et al. (1996) reported similar SRL

strategy usage between Australian and Japanese students despite their different views of education.

Several studies found that students in different countries with different cultural beliefs used different SRL strategies. Purdie & Hattie (1996) discovered slight differences in SRL strategy usage between Japanese and Australian students, specifically using memories-based strategies. They also revealed that the SRL strategies Japanese students who studied in Australia were different from their Japanese peers in Japan and Australian students, showing the SRL strategy usage could be affected by both culture and learning contexts. Unlike the student-centered classroom emphasis in western contexts, a study conducted in Hong Kong revealed that when teachers were involved in students' learning, students tended to use more SRL strategies (Lee et al., 2009). Studies have found different SRL strategy usage among female students in Singapore and America Alexander et al. (1998). While Olaussen & Bråten (1999) reported that Norwegian students reported similar SRL strategy usage as American students, they identified that female Norwegian students used more SRL strategies than their male peers.

H9: Culture significantly predicts SRL strategy usage.

H10: Culture significantly predicts perceived learning.

### 2.3. Student satisfaction

Students' satisfaction in learning is important because it is often found to be positively correlated with learning outcomes. Course design and structure is one of the factors that significantly predict students' satisfaction and/or perceived learning in online courses (Swan, 2001). Perceived learning has also been found as a significant predictor of students' satisfaction (Eom et al., 2006). Shen et al. (2013) identified that the number of previous online courses taken, gender and grade level (undergraduate or graduate students) significantly predicted students' self-efficacy, which significantly predicted their satisfaction. Ke & Kwak (2013) reported that students with higher educational degrees and minority students both felt less satisfied with online learning. It is also found that minority



207 students tended to be more satisfied with their interactions with teachers while  
208 less satisfied with online learning in general (Ke & Kwak, 2013).

209 H11: Perceived learning significantly predicts satisfaction.

210 H12: Number of previous online courses taken significantly predicts satis-  
211 faction.

212 H13: Gender significantly predicts satisfaction.

213 H14: Degree significantly predicts satisfaction.

#### 214 2.3.1. *Student satisfaction and self-regulated learning*

215 Researchers have realized the potential relationship between SRL and stu-  
216 dent satisfaction and several attempts have been made to address it. Because  
217 self-regulated learners constantly monitor their progress and status in order to  
218 adjust the strategies that they will use toward their goals, these learners are  
219 always satisfied with their learning experiences (Zimmerman, 2002). Research  
220 reported that students who had higher metacognition, time and effort man-  
221 agement scores — elements of SRL — had higher satisfaction with the online  
222 course (Puzziferro, 2008). Students who used more SRL strategies tended to be  
223 more satisfied with the course (Wang et al., 2013). On the other hand, some  
224 researchers found that students' SRL did not predict their satisfaction (Kuo  
225 et al., 2013) nor their achievement significantly (Cho & Heron, 2015) in online  
226 learning.

227 H15: SRL strategy usage significantly predicts satisfaction.

#### 228 2.3.2. *Student satisfaction and culture*

229 The relationship between students' cultural background and their satisfac-  
230 tion with courses has been investigated. Students' cultural backgrounds influ-  
231 enced their satisfaction with computer-supported learning (Zhu, 2013). Zhu  
232 (2012) found significant differences of satisfaction with online learning between  
233 Chinese students and Flemish students. Although one cannot derive that it is  
234 the cultural differences that lead to the different satisfaction, researchers con-  
235 sidered culture to influence participants' perceptions of education and learning

236 styles by communication, value, and educational system (Morse, 2003). In ad-  
 237 dition, research suggests that online course design should consider students'  
 238 cultural characteristics to make the learning experiences satisfactory (Liu et al.,  
 239 2010). Morse (2003) studied students' perceptions of online learning and the  
 240 differences between students from different cultures. He found that students  
 241 from high context cultures, which did not require a lot of explicit information  
 242 because the high cues contexts provided, had different satisfactory opinions  
 243 toward online learning's various of aspects from students from low context cul-  
 244 tures. Figure 1 shows all hypotheses (denoted by letter H with a number) in  
 245 the graphical representation of the SEM.

246 H16: Culture significantly predicts satisfaction.

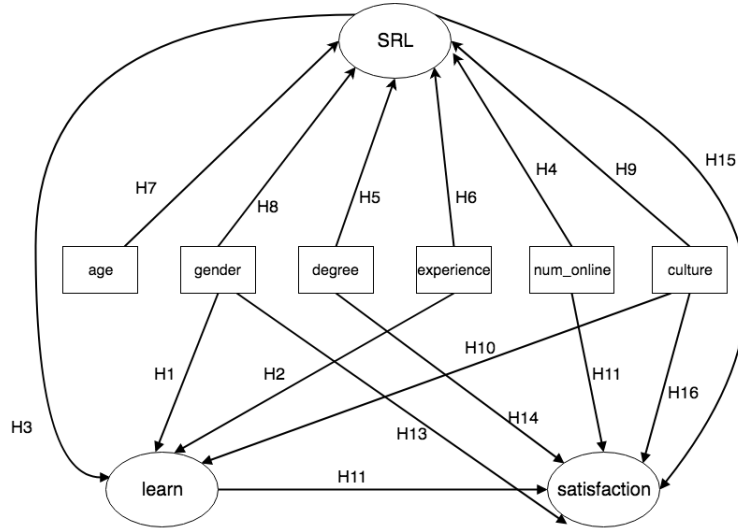


Figure 1. Research model

### 247 3. Method

#### 248 3.1. Participating MOOCs and students

249 Seventeen MOOCs offered by Duke University on Coursera were used in the  
 250 study. Courses with more than two instructors were excluded because too many

251 teaching styles could potentially affect students' learning experiences. Courses  
252 that are part of a specialization were excluded because students have to pay for  
253 specialization courses to access all materials, which would make their experiences  
254 quite different than those with free access. If a course has subsequent courses  
255 (e.g. part 1 and part 2), only the first course was selected to avoid the possibly  
256 large number of overlapping learners. An online survey was distributed to all  
257 active students since the launch date in each course via the Coursera email tool.  
258 The participating MOOCs, sample sizes and response rates are shown in Table  
259 1.

**Table 1**

*Participating MOOCs and Response Rates*

Course Name	Student Num- ber	Sample Size	Response Rate
Advertising and Society	5464	94	1.72%
Art of the MOOC: Activism and Social Movements	5637	135	2.39%
Behavioral Finance	21616	665	3.08%
Bioelectricity: A Quantitative Approach	3549	77	2.17%
Dog Emotion and Cognition	88650	3221	3.63%
Healthcare Innovation and Entrepreneurship	3853	72	1.87%
Image and Video Processing: From Mars to Holly- wood with a Stop at the Hospital	17713	498	2.81%
Introduction to Chemistry: Reactions and Ratios	14553	381	2.62%
Introductory Human Physiology	186929	2525	1.35%
Medical Neuroscience	72321	1723	2.38%
Music as Biology: What We Like to Hear and Why	27271	653	2.39%
Sports and Society	7562	260	3.44%
The Brain and Space	17840	372	2.09%
The Challenges of Global Health	17300	416	2.40%
Think Again I: How to Understand Argument	86401	1588	1.84%
Understanding 9/11: Why 9/11 Happened & How Terrorism Affects Our World Today	1361	36	2.65%
Visual Perception and the Brain	11472	250	2.18%

## 260 3.2. Instruments

### 261 3.2.1. Self-regulated learning strategy usage

262 Self-regulated learning (SRL) strategies were measured using the Online Self-  
263 regulated Learning Questionnaire (OSLQ) designed by Barnard et al. (2009).  
264 The OSLQ measures students' SRL usage in blended or online environments —  
265 MOOC is a special online learning platform. The total number of the OSLQ  
266 items is 24, which makes the instrument suitable to include in a survey con-  
267 taining items measuring other variables of interest. The OSLQ uses a five-point  
268 Likert scale response ranging from *Strongly agree* to *Strongly disagree*.

### 269 3.2.2. Satisfaction with the course

270 Three items were designed to measure learners' satisfaction with the course  
271 for the reason of both suitable for the research purposes and limiting the total  
272 number of questions in the survey. The responses are five-point Likert scales  
273 ranging from *Strongly agree* to *Strongly disagree*. The 3 items are: 1. overall I  
274 am satisfied with the course. 2. I would recommend this course to other people.  
275 and 3. I would take another course taught by the same instructor(s) of this  
276 course.

### 277 3.2.3. Perceived learning

278 Perceived learning was measured by the Cognitive, Affective and Psychomo-  
279 tor (CAP) Perceived Learning Scale designed by Rovai et al. (2009). The CAP  
280 scale was designed for both face-to-face and online learning. Since many of the  
281 participating courses did not include psychomotor skills in their learning goals,  
282 for comparable results across courses purposes, only the six cognitive and af-  
283 fective items of the instrument were included in the survey. These items use a  
284 seven-point likelihood Likert scale ranging from *Not at all* to *Very much so*.

### 285 3.2.4. Demographic information

286 Table 2 displays the demographic information that was collected in the sur-  
287 vey. The participants were asked to self identify their major culture based on

288 a culture map from research on the World Values Survey website. The re-  
 289 search classified cultural beliefs into two dimensions: traditional values versus  
 290 secular-rational values and survival values versus self-expression values. Then  
 291 the researchers mapped all countries onto a two-dimension coordinate system  
 292 and clustered similar countries together to form these cultural groups. The map  
 293 can be viewed using the following link <http://www.worldvaluessurvey.org/WVSContents.jsp?CMSID=Findings>.

**Table 2**

*Demographic Questions and Choices*

Question	Choices
How many online courses have you completed before this course?	• None • Less than 5 • 5 - 10 • More than 10
Prior to taking this course, please identify your experience with this course topics.	• I was new to the course content • I was familiar with some topics • I was familiar with most topics • I was an expert on this course content
Please use the culture map to identify the culture that best matches you. (it may not fit you in a perfect sense or you may find multiple cultures apply to you, but please identify one which describes you the most)	• African-Islamic • Baltic • Catholic Europe • Confucian • English Speaking • Latin America • Orthodox • Protestant Europe • South Asia
What is your age?	• Under 18 years old • 18-24 years old • 25-34 years old • 35-44 years old • 45-54 years old • 55-64 years old • 65-74 years old • 75 years or older
What is your gender?	• Male • Female • Other
What is the highest degree or level of school you have completed? If currently enrolled, highest degree received.	• Some high school, no diploma • High school graduate, diploma or the equivalent (for example: GED) • Some college credit, no degree • Trade/technical/vocational training • Associate degree • Bachelor's degree • Master's degree • Doctorate degree • Professional degree (e.g. M.D., J.D.)

### 295 3.3. Procedure

296 The Coursera courses taught by Duke University faculty with one or two  
297 instructors were selected. After the IRB approval was obtained, the author  
298 asked all instructors teaching these courses for permission to collect data. An  
299 Email with the survey link was then sent to all active students in these courses  
300 with the instructor(s)' permission in February 2018. All active students since  
301 the launch date (vs. active students since last week, last month, etc.) were  
302 selected to avoid neglecting students who were inactive for a certain amount  
303 of time but still would like to share experiences. The survey was open for two  
304 weeks to give participants enough time to complete.

### 305 3.4. Data analysis

306 This study used structural equation modeling (SEM) to test the model. All  
307 data cleaning, visualization, and analysis were done using *R* 3.4 and relevant  
308 packages. Confirmatory data analysis (CFA) and SEM modeling were performed  
309 using *R* package *lavaan* 0.6.2, which has been widely used in Psychology, Social  
310 Science and other fields. Package *semTools* 0.5.1 was used to report several  
311 model fit indicator measures. After removing rows with missing values, only 23  
312 (0.51%) respondents indicated *Other* in the gender question. Thus, they were  
313 removed from the analysis. The final sample consists 4503 observations ( $n =$   
314 4503), of which 2609 (57.9%) are female and 1894 (42.1%) are male. Participants  
315 who were new to content, familiar with some course topic, familiar with the  
316 most topic and an expert in course content are 1207 (26.8%), 2300 (51.1%), 900  
317 (20.0%), and 96 (2.13%) respectively. Participants who took zero online courses,  
318 less than 5, 5 to 10, and more than 10 are 733 (16.3%), 2151 (47.8%), 1010  
319 (22.4%), and 609 (13.5%) respectively. Figures 2, 3, and 4 respectively show  
320 the numbers and percentages of participants' degree, age, and self-identified  
321 culture.

322 A two-step modeling approach was adopted with a CFA followed by an  
323 SEM analysis. Because the CFA result was not satisfactory as suggested by  
324 model fit indicators and factor loadings, an exploratory factor analysis was

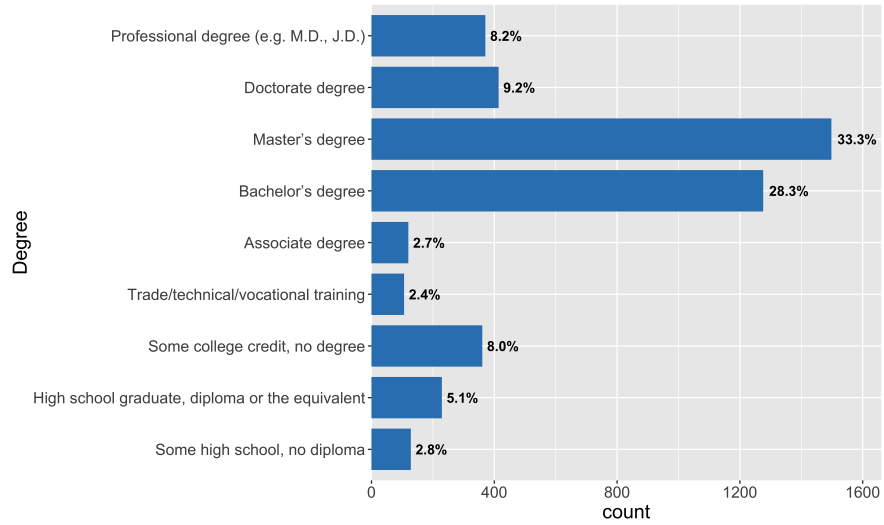


Figure 2. Number and Percentage of Degree

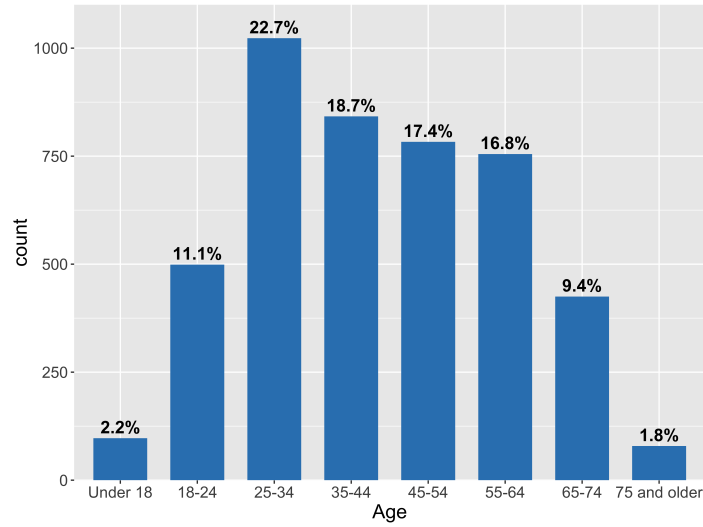


Figure 3. Number and Percentage of Age Group

325 performed by randomly splitting the sample into two, one of which was used  
 326 to run the (EFA) and the other one was used to run CFA to cross-validate  
 327 the EFA results. Only eight items from the OSLQ and two items from the

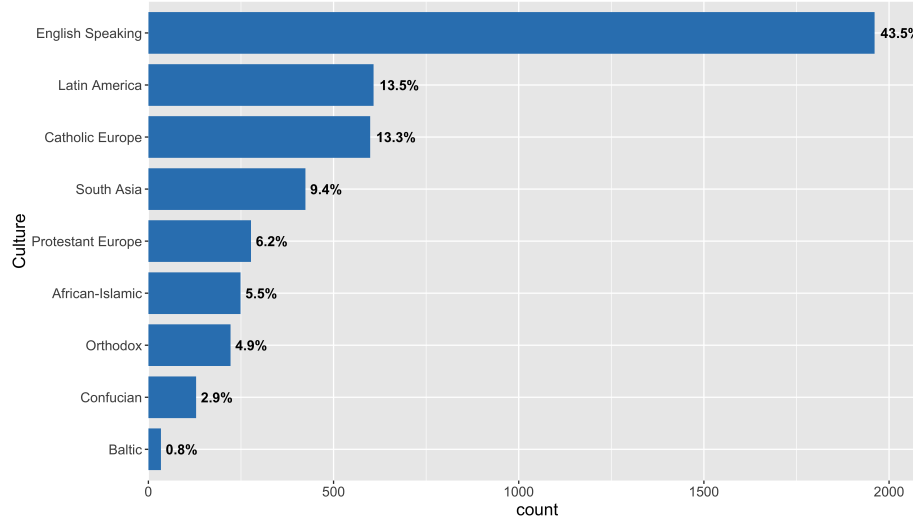


Figure 4. Number and Percentage of Culture

CAP instruments were selected in the final analysis because other sub-scales contradicted with the original instrument. Since instrument validation is beyond the scope of this article, only the ones consistent with the original instrument were included. Because the numbers of respondents with *Baltic*, *Confucian*, and *Orthodox* cultures had the fewest numbers of students and the three were in close positions in the culture map, they were combined into a category named *Other* in the SEM model. Originally, every other cultural group was compared with *English Speaking* because *English Speaking* consisted of the largest proportion of the sample. But later in the analysis, *Latin America* showed strong differences from *English Speaking* in several paths. *Latin America* was then made the base group to which the other groups were compared.

## 4. Results

### 4.1. Descriptive statistics

The descriptive statistics of measured variables in the model are reported in Table 3, including skewness and kurtosis which are indicators for univariate



normality. Mean scores range from 3.77 to 4.62. Standard deviation scores range from 0.76 to 1.53. All but two items' kurtosis scores (sat 1 and sat 2) do not fall in the acceptable ranges of normality suggested by Kline (2005) (skewness does not exceed |3| and kurtosis does not exceed |10|). But *lavaan* applies the diagonally weighted least squares (DWLS) estimation method for ordinal endogenous variables. DWLS has been proved to be robust with ordinal and non-normal data (Mindrila, 2010). The two items were not considered problematic in the analysis.

**Table 3**

*Descriptive statistics of the items in the measure*

Construct and item	Mean	Standard deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Goal				
Goal 1	3.89	1.00	-0.79	3.33
Goal 2	3.77	1.07	-0.77	3.03
Goal 3	4.01	1.01	-1.01	3.59
Goal 4	3.79	1.09	-0.77	2.95
Environment				
Env 1	4.22	1.00	-1.33	4.23
Env 2	4.32	0.91	-1.52	5.23
Env 3	4.38	0.88	-1.60	5.60
Env 4	4.23	0.94	-1.34	4.57
Perceived affective learning				
Learn 1	4.33	1.44	-0.97	3.73
Learn 2	4.25	1.53	-0.90	3.41
Satisfaction				
Sat 1	4.62	0.76	-2.65	11.12
Sat 2	4.61	0.78	-2.58	10.44
Sat 3	4.56	0.83	-2.31	8.76

350

#### 351 4.2. Measurement model

352 The CFA results are shown in Table 4. All standardized factor loadings  
353 were greater than 0.70, between 0.76 and 0.97. The R squared scores ranged  
354 from 0.57 to 0.93, meaning that the survey items were explained by their latent  
355 variables at a range from 57% to 93%. All Cronbach's alphas were greater than  
356 0.70 indicating good reliability of items within a construct (Cortina, 1993). The  
357 convergent validity of the measurement model was measured by two scores: the

358 composite reliability (CR) and the average variance extracted (AVE) (Fornell  
359 & Larcker, 1981). CR measures item internal consistency, which is considered  
360 less biased than Cronbach's alpha. In this study, McDonald (1999)'s *omega*  
361 was used as a measure for CR. All CR scores in the measurement model are  
362 greater than 0.70 indicating good internal consistency (Nunnally & Bernstein,  
363 1994). AVE is the measure of the variance that is explained by the constructs  
364 compared to the variance explained by measurement errors. A score greater than  
365 0.70 is considered good while a score greater than 0.50 is considered acceptable.  
366 Judging by CR and AVE, the convergent validity of the measurement model  
367 can be considered adequate.

**Table 4**

*Results for the measurement model*

Construct and item	Standardized factor loading ( $>0.70$ ) <sup>a</sup>	$R^2$	Cronbach's alpha ( $>0.70$ ) <sup>a</sup>	Composite reliability ( $>0.70$ ) <sup>a</sup>	Average variance extracted ( $>0.50$ ) <sup>a</sup>
Goal			0.91	0.87	0.71
Goal 1	0.80	0.64			
Goal 2	0.85	0.72			
Goal 3	0.86	0.74			
Goal 4	0.87	0.76			
Environment			0.90	0.88	0.71
Env 1	0.86	0.73			
Env 2	0.87	0.76			
Env 3	0.89	0.79			
Env 4	0.76	0.57			
Perceived affective learning			0.88	0.79	0.78
Learn 1	0.89	0.79			
Learn 2	0.88	0.77			
Satisfaction			0.95	0.92	0.86
Sat 1	0.94	0.88			
Sat 2	0.97	0.93			
Sat 3	0.88	0.77			

<sup>a</sup> Indicates an acceptable level of reliability or validity

368 Discriminant validity was tested using the heterotrait-monotrait ratio of cor-  
369 relations (HTMT) (Henseler et al., 2015). Table 5 shows the results of the

370 HTMT ratio of correlations. Values greater than 0.85 indicated lack of the  
 371 discriminant validity. Results of the measurement model indicate satisfactory  
 372 discriminant validity.

**Table 5**

*The HTMT ratio of correlation*

	Goal	Environment	Perceived affective learning	Satisfaction
Goal	-			
Environment	0.60	-		
Perceived affective learning	0.40	0.30	-	
Satisfaction	0.35	0.35	0.55	-

373 Multiple model fit indices were reported for both the CFA and the SEM  
 374 models in the next subsection as suggested by Kline (2005). Since the sample  
 375 size of this study was quite large ( $n = 4503$ ), Chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ) would be almost  
 376 inevitably significant. Thus, Chi-square was not reported. *Lavaan* provides  
 377 robust measures for these fit indices, which accounted for unbiased standard  
 378 errors. Table 6 shows the robust fit indices of the measurement model and the  
 379 recommended thresholds. Recommended thresholds were retrieved from Hu &  
 Bentler (1999).

**Table 6**

*Fit indices for the measurement model*

	Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	Tucker- Lewis Index (TLI)	RMSEA <sup>a</sup> (90% Confidence Interval)	SRMR <sup>b</sup>
Model indices	0.99	0.99	0.045 (0.04, 0.05)	0.02
Recommended threshold	$\geq 0.95$	$\geq 0.95$	$< 0.06$	$< 0.08$

<sup>a</sup>: Root Mean Square Error of Approximation

<sup>b</sup>: Standardized Root Mean Square Residual

380

### 4.3. Structural model

A test of the structural model showed a good model fit (CFI=0.99, TLI=0.99, RMSEA=0.034, RMSEA's 90% confidence interval is (0.032, 0.036), SRMR=0.03). All measures were reported using *lavaan*'s robust indices, the same as the measurement model. Figure 5 shows the graphical description of the results of path coefficients. The results showed that three hypotheses were not supported by the data. The results failed to reject the null hypothesis of (1) learners' experience with the course content did not predict their perceived learning ( $H_2$ ). (2) Learners' experience with the course content did not predict their environment structuring strategy usage ( $H_{6b}$ ). and (3) Learners' gender did not predict their satisfaction with the course ( $H_{13}$ ).

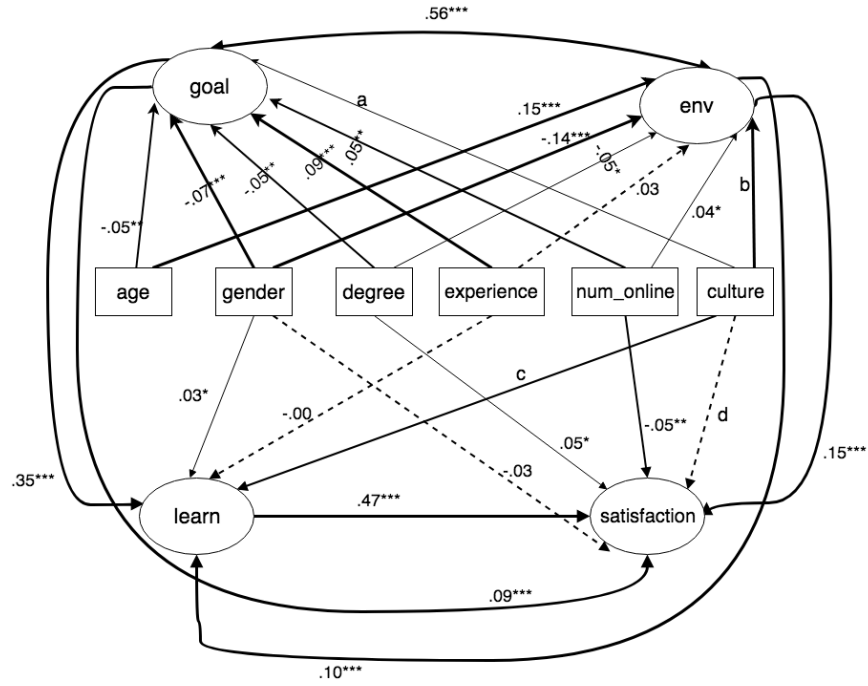


Figure 5. Path coefficients of the research model.

\* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$ . a, b, c, and d see table 7.

For these hypotheses that the results were able to reject, Table 7 presents the findings from this study's data and results except for the relationships of

**Table 7***Results*

Predictor	Results
Gender	Female students reported more goal setting (GS) and more environment structuring (ES) strategies. Female students perceived lower learning.
Age	Older students reported more GS but fewer ES strategies.
Degree	Students with higher degrees reported fewer GS and fewer ES strategies, but were more satisfied with the course.
Experience	Students having more experiences with the content reported more GS strategies.
Number of course	Students took more online courses previously reported more GS and more ES strategies, but they were less satisfied with the course.
GS strategy	Students who used more GS strategies perceived higher learning and were more satisfied with the course. GS partially mediated the effects of gender to perceived learning, degree to satisfaction, and number of courses to satisfaction. GS was the mediator of the relationship between experience and perceived learning.
ES strategy	Students who used more ES strategies perceived higher learning and were more satisfied with the course. ES partially mediated the effects of gender to perceived learning, degree to satisfaction, and number of courses to satisfaction.
Perceived learning	Students who perceived higher learning were more satisfied with the course. Perceived learning partially mediated the effects of GS and ES on satisfaction. Perceived learning was the mediator of the relationship between gender and satisfaction.

394 culture (reported in the following paragraph).

395 Because there were seven cultural groups in the study and the other groups  
396 were compared against *Latin America*, the results are presented in Table 8 as a  
397 separate section. There are several differences in goal setting strategy usage and  
398 satisfaction between some cultural groups and *Latin America*, but the strongest  
399 trends lied in the facts that learners identified themselves as *Latin America*  
400 culture reported more environment structuring strategy usage than any other  
401 cultural groups, as well as higher perceived learning than other cultural groups  
402 except for *Other*.

**Table 8***Cultural group comparisons with Latin America*

a: culture → goal			b: culture → environment	
Culture	$\beta$	$p$	$\beta$	$p$
African-Islamic	.01	.52	-.05	.00**
Catholic Europe	-.04	.08	-.08	.00***
English Speaking	.00	.94	-.10	.00***
Protestant Europe	-.05	.01**	-.08	.00***
South Asia	.05	.01*	-.05	.00**
Other	-.05	.01**	-.08	.00***

c: culture → perceived learning			d: culture → satisfaction	
Culture	$\beta$	$p$	$\beta$	$p$
African-Islamic	-.04	.03*	-.02	.46
Catholic Europe	-.07	.00**	-.01	.74
English Speaking	-.17	.00***	-.02	.36
Protestant Europe	-.09	.00***	.02	.34
South Asia	-.07	.00***	-.06	.00**
Other	-.02	.35	-.02	.37

\* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$ 

403 The proportions of variance in all endogenous variable that are explained  
404 by all of its predictors are listed below. Only 2.90% of the variance in goal  
405 setting could be explained by all the predictors in the model while 4.50% of the  
406 variance in environment structuring could be explained by its predictors. 35.0%  
407 of perceived learning's variance was explained by all its predictors and 18.3%  
408 variance in satisfaction was explained by its predictors.

#### 409 4.4. Model comparison

410 To compare the research model with the model of which the non-significant  
411 paths removed, the  $\Delta\chi^2$  (chi-square change) and the  $\Delta$  CFI were reported  
412 because of the sensitivity of chi-square to sample size (Cheung & Rensvold,  
413 2002). Table 9 lists the results of the model comparison. Both the  $\Delta\chi^2$  ( $p > .05$ )  
414 and the  $\Delta$  CFI ( $\Delta$  CFI  $< .01$ ) suggested these two models were not significantly  
415 different.

**Table 9***Results of model comparisons*

Model	$\chi^2$	df	CFI	$\Delta\chi^2$ ( <i>p</i> -value)	$\Delta$ df	$\Delta$ CFI
The research model	544.42	163	0.991	-	-	-
The revised model	575.87	172	0.993	16.448 (.059)	9	0.002

## 5. Discussions

### 5.1. Result discussions

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationships among learners' demographics, SRL strategy usage, perceived learning, and satisfaction in MOOC environments at the same time by implementing an SEM model. Guided by a large body of literature on this topic, it is found that many demographic variables predict learners' SRL strategy usage — in particular, goal setting and environment structuring strategies in this study, with the exception of prior experience predicting environment structuring strategy usage. Perceived learning can be predicted by learners' gender, culture, and their SRL strategy usage. Satisfaction can be predicted by learners' highest degree, the number of online courses previously taken, SRL strategy usage and perceived learning.

It is consistent with previous research that female students often reported using more self-regulated learning strategies (Pajares, 2002). Goal setting strategies were assessed specifically by Zimmerman & Martinez-Pons (1990) and female students again reported more usage. Besides the potential fact that females do use more SRL strategies in learning than males, Pajares (2002) proposed four possibilities of why there is a gender difference in SRL strategy usage. They are: (1) achievement is the mediator variable. (2) Males and females respond to self-reported measures differently. (3) Males and females have a different level of confidence in certain areas. (4) Gender stereotype may influence how people position themselves.

Learners who obtained higher degrees tended to report less goal setting and less environment structuring strategies, which contradicts with many previous

440 studies. For example, Kizilcec et al. (2017) found that MOOC learners who have  
441 Ph.D.s had stronger SRL skills compared to those non-Ph.D.s. One reason is  
442 that this study examined eight degrees while Kizilcec et al. (2017) only com-  
443 pared Ph.D.s with non-Ph.D.s. Another possibility may be related to learners’  
444 motivations for enrolling. Learners with higher degrees might take MOOCs just  
445 to explore, or to reference specific topics. Thus, there was no need to set specific  
446 goals or to control their learning environments versus those who really wanted  
447 to learn the entire course.

448 This study reveals that previous experience with the course topics predicted  
449 only goal setting strategies, not environment structuring strategies, which par-  
450 tially supports previous research in that the more online courses learners had  
451 taken, the more SRL strategies they used in learning (e.g. Wang et al. (2013)).  
452 While previous research generally reports a positive relationship between expe-  
453 rience and SRL strategy usage (e.g. Vermunt & Vermetten (2004)), no study  
454 has investigated the relationship between particular environment structuring  
455 strategies and experience. Further research can examine the reasons for this.

456 The influences of age on the two SRL strategy usage show opposite results:  
457 older students tend to use less goal setting strategies but more environment  
458 structuring strategies. This result directly contradicts with what Kizilcec et al.  
459 (2017) found, that is, older students reported using more goal setting strate-  
460 gies in MOOCs. One potential explanation for this difference may be in the  
461 study samples: this study’s participants came from around the world with mul-  
462 tiple cultures while the participants in Kizilcec et al. (2017) were mainly Latin  
463 American learners taking courses in Spanish.

464 Male learners perceived higher learning than their female peers. Possible ex-  
465 planations can also be in Pajares (2002)’s article as discussed above. The usage  
466 of both SRL strategies — goal setting and environment structuring — signifi-  
467 cantly predicted learners’ perceived learning, which supports the findings in Lee  
468 & Lee (2008). The more online courses a learner took, the less satisfied he/she  
469 is with the MOOC. Although Shen et al. (2013) found a positive relationship of  
470 the number of online courses took and satisfaction, most research has demon-



471 strated that learners' previous experiences of online courses, not merely the  
472 number, influence their satisfaction with the current course. The fact that this  
473 study measured perceived affective learning instead of cognitive learning may  
474 contribute to some of the contradictory results mentioned above. Learners' ex-  
475 perience with their previous online courses was not examined in this study. It is  
476 possible that their previous online experience was not good, or they continued  
477 enrolling but were not able to find a satisfactory course.

478 Learners with higher degrees were more satisfied with the course, which con-  
479 tradicted the finding by Ke & Kwak (2013). Learners' highest degree earned  
480 and their satisfaction are more complicated in MOOCs. For example, Shapiro  
481 et al. (2017) showed that MOOC learners with a Bachelor's degree were more  
482 positive than students with lower and more advanced degrees through a senti-  
483 ment analysis of their interview transcripts. Current literature has inconsistent  
484 results about the relationship between students' SRL strategy usage and their  
485 satisfaction with the course. For example, Cho & Heron (2015) found no re-  
486 lationship. Puzziferro (2008) reported a positive relationship between several  
487 SRL strategies, including environment structuring strategies, and their levels  
488 of satisfaction. The current study supported that learners who reported using  
489 more SRL strategies — both of them — were more satisfied with the course.

490 One uniqueness of this study was the investigation of culture on MOOC  
491 learners' SRL strategy usage, perceived learning, and satisfaction. Learners  
492 identified themselves as having *Latin America* culture reported more environ-  
493 ment structuring strategies than any other culture. The four items measuring  
494 the environment structuring strategies were about choosing quiet, comfortable  
495 places and times with few distractions to study. No previous study in English,  
496 as far as the author is aware, was found that highlighted the learning habits of  
497 *Latin America* students or whether its education emphasizes controlling learn-  
498 ing environments. Thus, it can only be assumed that *Latin America* schools or  
499 families may be good at teaching students to choose a comfortable environment  
500 to study. It is also possible that the *Latin America* participants were associ-  
501 ated with some other variables (e.g. current job status or socioeconomic status)

that were not measured in the study, and these hidden variables contributed to the better environment structuring strategy usage. *Latin America* participants also showed better perceived learning than the other cultural groups except for *Other*. Research has shown that people in Latin America have a high happiness level despite the fact that many countries in Latin America have high poverty rates and unequal incomes (Rojas, 2016). The author stated that Latin Americans generally have high affective states and high satisfaction. This may be the reason why participants of the *Latin America* cultural group perceived more affective learning than many other groups. Since the group *Other* consisted of *Baltic*, *Confucian*, and *Orthodox*, it is more complicated as why the group of *Other* had similar perceived learning as *Latin America* instead of lower. *South Asia* showed lower satisfaction with the courses than *Latin America* while the other groups' satisfaction did not differ significantly from *Latin America*. Because of the lack of theory and research to support this point, the differences may be attributed to certain unmeasured variables or simply by chance.

## 5.2. Implications

There are three major implications for researchers and practitioners in the field of self-regulated learning in online learning environments, particularly MOOC environments. The three implications, discussed in detail below with prior research findings, are (1) influences of SRL strategy usage on learners' perceived learning and satisfaction; (2) relationships between learners' demographics and SRL strategy usage; and (3) differences of SRL strategy usage, perceived learning, and satisfaction among different cultural groups.

Firstly, the present study emphasized the importance of SRL strategy usage by revealing its relationships with perceived learning and satisfaction. Zimmerman (2002) explained that by monitoring and reflecting on their goals and progress, learners can feel more motivated and satisfied, and then seek opportunities to improve their learning. Schunk (1990) pointed out that learners' satisfaction is expected to increase after they achieve their goals by allocating effort toward these goals. Learners learn better when they constantly moni-

532 tor their goals and progress, reflect on their experiences, and adjust effort and  
533 learning strategies. Research has shown that SRL strategy usage is teachable  
534 even to young students in elementary schools (Dignath et al., 2008). Zimmer-  
535 man (2002) stated that SRL skills are important for life-long learners. MOOCs  
536 are a form of continuing education, life-long learning and self-directed profes-  
537 sional development, which requires learners to have SRL skills. In addition, the  
538 current study further supports the positive relationship between SRL strategy  
539 usage and perceived learning as well as satisfaction. Therefore, researchers and  
540 instructional designers should investigate activities that can teach certain SRL  
541 strategies in self-directed online learning environments. It is reported that even  
542 a small activity to help students to be aware of their learning situations can  
543 help learning (Zimmerman, 2002). Researchers can design simple interventions  
544 such as weekly emails containing “study tips” to enable this awareness.

545 Secondly, different levels of SRL strategy usage — goal setting and envi-  
546 ronment structuring in this study — differed by learners. This is of particular  
547 importance for MOOC researchers and practitioners because of the varied back-  
548 grounds and demographics of MOOC learners. The demand for SRL strategy  
549 training or even small activities to encourage self-regulation in online learning  
550 was discussed in the previous section. Understanding the relationships between  
551 learners’ demographics and their SRL strategy usage helps to teach learners  
552 SRL strategies, especially to particular groups of learners. For example, lack  
553 of time has been identified as the top reason why learners drop out of MOOCs  
554 (Shapiro et al., 2017; Zheng et al., 2015). Designing SRL strategy training in-  
555 terventions for targeted populations who may be diagnosed at risk can prevent  
556 learners from discontinuing because of reasons such as lack of resources or lack of  
557 time. However, since the total variances of both SRL strategy usage explained  
558 by all predictors were small (2.9% and 4.5% respectively), future studies should  
559 examine other variables that may contribute to the differences in SRL strategy  
560 usage.

561 Thirdly, the differences in SRL strategy usage, perceived learning and sat-  
562 isfaction among learners from diverse cultures had several implications for re-

563 searchers, teachers, and instructional designers who need to design instructions  
564 cross-culturally. The present study supports that differences among cultural  
565 groups in beliefs and behaviors exist in MOOCs. There may be the problem of  
566 overgeneralization if the attention has been on cultural differences as a static  
567 trait (Gutiérrez & Rogoff, 2003), but like all other literature on group differences,  
568 cultural differences bring one more dimension to individual/group differences on  
569 teaching and learning. Researchers can examine whether and, if it is, why learn-  
570 ers from *Latin America* culture had significantly higher environment structuring  
571 strategy than any other cultural group. If there are particular reasons in *Latin*  
572 *America* educational systems or family values that help students adopt more  
573 environment structuring strategy, this can potentially be adopted and emulated  
574 in other cultures that may lack environment structuring guidance. Similarly, the  
575 reasons why learners with *Latin America* culture had higher perceived affective  
576 learning can be examined for educational implications. In addition, teaching  
577 cross-culturally is an important component in the educational literature. Prac-  
578 titioners and educators should be sensitive about teaching cross-culturally. In an  
579 interview with instructional design professionals, Rogers et al. (2007) reported  
580 that these professionals were aware of cultural difference to some extent but  
581 they also admitted that more awareness needed to be developed. Gay (2002)  
582 argued that because culture affects students' attitudes, values, and behaviors,  
583 it is crucial to design culturally-relevant curricula, teaching and communica-  
584 tion methods, and learning community. Gopal (2011) proposed that faculty  
585 in higher education need to work on their attitudes, knowledge, and skills to  
586 develop cultural competency in order to better teach cross-culturally.

### 587 5.3. Limitations

588 The present study has four main limitations that, although common in this  
589 type of work, should be noted when drawing conclusions from the findings. Sur-  
590 vey research that uses convenient samples lacks external validity compared to  
591 random samples. MOOCs offered by one university on one platform were not  
592 representative of all MOOCs, and respondents to the survey in this study were

not a representative sample of all enrolled students. Although the courses selected in this study included multiple topics compared to many research that used students from only one course, conclusions cannot be drawn to the entire MOOC students population. The second limitation is that this study is based on learners' self-reported data. As much as self-reported data can broaden the areas that direct observations or other achievement assessments cannot measure, problems with self-reported data have been discussed intensely in research, including over- and under-reporting and social desirability bias (Gonyea, 2005). Future studies should include more objective measures such as learning management system log data and test scores to offer more holistic insight into learners' behaviors, learning achievement and motivation. Because of the low response rate of surveys, nonresponse bias is the third limitation. Most MOOC research using survey method suffer from this limitation. The last limitation lies in the construct validity. Even though the study used two existing instruments measuring SRL strategy usage and perceived learning, factor analysis did not reveal satisfactory results in terms of their sub-scales. Exploratory factor analysis results were used in this study, which left out some items in the original instrument. Several reliability indicators suggested good reliability of the items that were used in the study; however, future research is still needed to validate the instruments in MOOC environments.

## 6. Conclusion

Self-initiated and self-directed learning has become increasingly popular and important in education and in professional development. According to one of Pew Research Center's 2016 reports, 74% of American adults had participated in some types of personal voluntary learning activities to enrich their knowledge (source: <http://www.pewinternet.org/2016/03/22/lifelong-learning-and-technology/>). Having SRL skills is essential to students' success in such self-directed learning environments, an example of which is the MOOC. Studies on MOOC learners' SRL skills, such as the current one, emphasize the importance

622 of SRL strategy usage by unraveling its relationships with other crucial factors  
623 in learning. These findings suggest positive relationships between SRL strategy  
624 usage and perceived learning, and SRL strategy usage and satisfaction. Prac-  
625 tically, educators should emphasize the importance of using SRL strategies in  
626 self-directed learning and create opportunities to help learners increase SRL  
627 awareness and SRL skills in learning.

628 Today's student body is more and more diverse because of both globaliza-  
629 tion and online technologies. Studies have already demonstrated that students  
630 learn differently, but personalized learning remains a challenge in education.  
631 A first step to personalized learning can be to uncover the differences in at-  
632 titudes, behaviors, and motivations by groups. MOOC learners possibly have  
633 the most diversified backgrounds and experiences among all learning contexts,  
634 which makes the MOOC an exceptional platform to study group differences. Re-  
635 sults of this study show that some differences exist in learning strategy usage,  
636 perceptions and satisfaction by groups, such as age groups and highest degrees  
637 obtained. Practically, learning activity and assessment's variability is necessary  
638 for students with different backgrounds and motivations. Learning analytics  
639 algorithms could take these variables as input to predict at-risk students, best  
640 learning routes, or pertinent help at an appropriate timing.

641 Keengwe (2010) stated that "...raising personal awareness about different  
642 cultural categories of individual differences, and how these differences enhance  
643 or hinder the ways students and teachers generally interact with each other."  
644 (p. 203). Theoretically, studying the differences in learning behaviors, attitudes,  
645 and perceptions among MOOC learners from multiple cultures can contribute  
646 to the cross-cultural education literature, which then adds to the broader area of  
647 cultural differences. The study results suggest that learners identified themselves  
648 as *Latin American* showed higher environment structuring strategy usage and  
649 perceived learning than many other cultural groups. Practically, revealing these  
650 cultural differences in self-directed learning explains the differences in thinking,  
651 behavior, motivation, and choice during the learning process. Culture can be  
652 treated as a variable to predict students' success in order to personalize learning

653 or provide help.

654 **Conflict of Interest**

655 The author declares no conflict of interests.

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