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Guidelines for U.S. Teacher Leaders in Adult Classrooms to Enhance International Undergraduate Satisfaction

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by

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This dissertation has been approved in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the

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at Lindenwood University by the School of Education

Dr. John A. Henschke, Dissertation Chair	3/2/18 Date
Dr. Susan K. Isenberg, Committee Member	3/2/18 Date
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Declaration of Originality

I do hereby declare and attest to the fact that this is an original study based solely upon my own scholarly work here at Lindenwood University and that I have not submitted it for any other college or university course or degree here or elsewhere.

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Abstract

The purpose of this qualitative research was to (a) explore the issues that international undergraduate students face during academic experiences at U.S. colleges and/or universities, (b) study the relationship between U.S. professors and international undergraduate students as measured by the extent of congruency between U.S. professors' and international undergraduate students' online survey results, and (c) propose appropriate guidelines for U.S. Teacher Leaders in adult classrooms to enhance international undergraduate students' learning satisfaction. The researcher used convenience sampling that included 96 participants at Lindenwood University, Saint Charles. The researcher conducted a focus group discussion with 14 international undergraduate students from 10 countries, an online survey with 70 international undergraduate students and five U.S. professors using the Modified Instructional Perspective Inventory (MIPI), and the in-depth interviews with seven faculty experts selected from the Education Department and the International Students and Scholars Office.

The results showed international undergraduate students are faced with five major issues including language, isolation, discrimination, professors' instruction techniques, and professors' behaviors in the classroom. The emerging themes in the focus group discussion were financial support, positive experiences, and suggestion for improving teacher leadership in the classroom. There was no congruency between U.S. professors' and international undergraduate students' perceptions on four factors of the MIPI—teacher empathy with learner, teacher trust of learners, planning and delivery of instruction, and accommodating learner uniqueness. However, there was congruency

between U.S. professors' and international undergraduate students' perceptions on three factors of the MIPI—teacher insensitivity toward learners, experience-based learning techniques, and teacher-centered learning processes. This congruency level, however, did not indicate a good relationship between U.S. professors and international undergraduate students, but instead the professors' inability to balance the practice of learner-centered and teacher-centered teaching approaches in the classroom. The proposed Guidelines for U.S. Teacher Leaders in Adult Classrooms suggested processes to enhance International Undergraduate Satisfaction as follows: application of professors' beliefs (teachers' trust of learners and teachers' accommodating learners' uniqueness), professors' feelings (teachers' empathy with learners and teachers' insensitivity toward learners), and professors' behaviors (delivery of various instruction techniques and appropriate use of learner-centered and teacher-centered learning processes in the right context).

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Chapter One: Introduction

This document is more than a study of international undergraduate student satisfaction in academic experiences at colleges and/or universities in the United States. It was meant to develop the proposed guidelines that may be used as a toolbox for U.S. professors to increase effectiveness in teaching international undergraduate students in the classrooms. The researcher intended this research to exhibit essential issues of international undergraduate students and their relationship with U.S. professors in the classrooms. This study provided insight to faculty members, especially those who focused on helping international students achieve better learning outcomes at colleges and/or universities in the United States.

This research pinpointed some effective teaching strategies considered as the essential teaching tools for all novice and experienced professors who struggled in addressing the needs of diverse students in their classes. This study was not intended to represent official policy or procedure; it was instead proposing guidelines to help U.S. professors become more effective teachers and leaders in the adult classrooms. The guidelines also included effective professors' beliefs, professors' feelings, and professors' behaviors that were helpful in promoting international undergraduate student satisfaction in U.S. classrooms.

Background of International Undergraduates in the United States

The U.S. was ranked as number one in hosting international students, followed by the United Kingdom, Australia, New Zealand, and Spain (Teklehaymanot, 2013). According to the Open Doors report (2014), the colleges and universities in the United States hosted 886,052 international students in 2013/2014 (p. 1). The majority of them

are undergraduate students (42%), followed by graduate students (37%), optional practical training (12%), and non-degree students (9%) (Open Doors, 2014, p. 1).

The National Association of Foreign Student Advisers (NAFSA): Association of International Educators' latest analysis found that the 1,043,839 international students studying in U.S. colleges and universities contributed $32.8 billion to the U.S. economy in 2015/2016 (2016, p. 1). A majority of U.S. colleges and/or universities expected that international students would be well prepared for academic success and have adequate financial support (Andrade, 2009). However, relatively little was known about their college experiences. From entering college until graduation, international undergraduates encountered a vast amount of barriers through all steps in their college experiences (Merriam, Caffarella, & Baumgartner, 2007).

The research found that even international students with solid academic backgrounds and financial support faced difficult adjustment to the new living environment, including weather and social norms (Charles & Stewart, 1991). Some transitional difficulties including language problems, differences in the education systems, and differences in foods, in addition to living circumstances impacted international students' learning abilities (Yuchun, Frey, & Hyeyoung, 2011).

A study conducted by Choudaha, the Chief Knowledge Officer for World Education Service, indicated there was a gap between the expectations of international students set during the admissions phase and what they experienced once they arrived on the campus (as cited in Mehrotra, 2014). That study included more than 500 valid responses to an online survey from students enrolled at 83 U.S. colleges and 480 responses from international educators at 100 institutions. The research findings revealed

a significant gap between what international students considered as important to their experiences and what institutions perceived as important for students. The researcher, as a result, envisioned that one of the best aspects of U.S. education was the willingness of the professors to spend time in making sure that international students understood the concepts discussed in the classroom.

Ravindran and Kalpana (2012) illustrated that international students were considered as one of the major stakeholders involved dynamically in purchasing higher education programs and services in U.S. colleges and/or universities. It was essential that the learning environment provided by U.S. professors helped address international students' satisfaction in their academic achievements (Lo, 2010).

International students' satisfaction could be subjective and intensely depended on the quality of the services provided by their professors and related administrators in their colleges and/or universities (Arambewela & Hall, 2013; Li, 2005). The issue of satisfaction was the overriding concern of international students and their professors, as well as higher education institutions. A study conducted by Ibrahim, Rahman, and Yasin (2014) on determining factors of students' satisfaction with Malaysian Skills Training Institutes indicated that campus environment was the most significant factor of student satisfaction, followed by management of the organization and support services.

On the other hand, Memon, Salleh, Baharom, and Harun (2014) emphasized that the formation process of international student satisfaction was impacted by both internal and external environments. Internal environments, according to Arambewela, Hall, and Zuhair (2006), were the reputation of the institution, quality of education, and student facilities. External environments included the social and physical dimensions that took

place outside the university campus, in which international students spent a significant amount of their academic life and also referred to how international students engaged in the multiple actions with their host communities (Arambewela & Hall, 2013).

To summarize, the overarching concerns of international students' satisfaction in academic achievement were definitely impacted by both internal and external environments. Moreover, the college and/or university services, especially the professor's role in classroom engagement and the establishment of a satisfactory learning environment, played significant roles in helping international students achieve an effective learning outcome (Lo, 2010).

Background of Teacher Leadership in U.S. Classrooms

Over the three decades previous to this writing, the education system in the United States was to change: military academies and federal research laboratories were examples of centralization, while private schools and colleges/universities were examples of decentralization. The dramatic flow of international students coming to the U.S. for higher education had become the major impetus for the growth of more than 3,500 higher education institutions in the U.S. (Eland, Greenblatt, & Smithee, 2004). According to Kayastha (2011), the practice of teacher leadership in the classroom was no longer directed by the concept that professors were the kings and students were the followers. Roughly put, U.S. professors should play a role as facilitator and learn more about international students' learning needs, so that they can prepare and engage every student in the class in a more effective way.

U.S. cultural values and practices, in addition to U.S. higher education, its academic structure, and faculty roles, dramatically impacted the teaching and learning

processes in the U.S. classroom (Eland et al., 2004). Teacher leadership in the classroom, as a result, was known as the major factor, which influenced adult student satisfaction and retention; the professor's main task and responsibility was to help facilitate the success of adult learning goals. The concept of teachers as leaders was derived from a combination of the effective teachers and effective leaders within the transformational realm of leadership (Pounder, 2006).

Statement of Problem

International students, especially undergraduates who just graduated from high school, were not very different from the children with special needs — they needed special attention, understanding, and care from professors in the classroom (Freiberg, 2011). Wu, Garza, and Guzman (2015) indicated that international students were limited regarding the ability to communicate and interpret things, due to the challenges faced of language barriers, cultural shocks, social barriers, and any other academic difficulties presented to each individual. This research also illustrated the specific issues that the international students were then-currently facing in the classroom, leading to the lack of support in their academic learning. Racism and stereotyping, for example, still existed for international students. Additionally, professors regularly questioned international students' abilities to complete course assignments, encouraged international students to take remedial classes, and readily criticized international students' accents (Wu, Garza & Guzman, 2015).

Freiberg (2011) stated that in order to equip international students with good academic experiences at U.S. colleges and/or universities, it was important that the U.S. professors provide special attention, understanding, and care to international students in

the classrooms. Zhao, Golde, and McCormick (2007) found that student satisfaction positively correlated with professors showing interest, understanding, and care for the students' well-being, personal life, and interests; these processes may possibly happen in classroom interaction, which was related to effective teacher leadership in the classroom.

Notwithstanding, previous research revealed that the satisfaction of international students in academic experiences led to the cultivation of their personal development, academic commitment, intercultural development, and career development, as expected from higher education in the colleges and/or universities in the U.S. (Dwyer & Peters, 1999). According to Freiberg (2011), it was indicated that in the United States, education that served the public good required a qualified, competent, and caring professor in every classroom. Although each of these individual dimensions was shown to support student learning, there was still a limited understanding of how they interacted to support the students' school experiences. This issue gently questioned the processes of the application of teacher leadership in the classroom to ensure student satisfaction in U.S. colleges and/or universities.

Purpose of Study

This study aimed to explore the issues that international undergraduates faced during academic experiences at U.S. colleges and/or universities. Another purpose of this research was to enhance comprehensive knowledge of the relationship between U.S. professors and international undergraduates, as measured by the extent of congruency between professors of international undergraduates and international undergraduate online survey results. Lastly, an extension of this purpose was to use the study results to propose appropriate guidelines of teacher leadership in classrooms, including professor

beliefs, feelings, and behaviors to enhance international undergraduate satisfaction in learning experiences at U.S. colleges and/or universities.

Rationale

International students faced issues regarding adjustment to a new culture, as well as adjustment to different academic demands and expectations from those to which they were accustomed (Olivas & Li, 2006). Other issues included language barriers, alienation, isolation, discrimination, homesickness, and lack of social and academic support from peers and teachers in the classroom (Bevis & Lucas, 2007; Kilinc & Granello, 2003; Klomegah, 2006; Lee & Rice, 2007; Sumer, Poyrazli, & Grahame, 2008). These students required special attention, understanding, and care from the professor in the classroom to facilitate good academic experiences in colleges and/or universities in the U.S. (Freiberg, 2011).

Research Questions

This research investigated the following research questions:

1) What issues do the international undergraduates face during academic experiences at U.S. colleges and/or universities?
2) What is the extent of congruency between international undergraduate professors' perceptions and international undergraduate students' perceptions of professor practices and leadership in the classroom as measured by survey results?
3) What guidelines may be proposed for U.S. teacher leaders in adult classrooms to enhance undergraduate satisfaction with the learning experiences at U.S. colleges and/or universities?

Limitations

This study was limited to the investigation of one university that did not represent the whole population of international undergraduates at all U.S. colleges and/or universities. The study was also limited to the investigation of international undergraduate student satisfaction and teacher leadership in the classroom — there were possibly other variables that influenced international student satisfaction, which were not included in this study.

Another limitation in this study was that the researcher did not include external factors, such as financial support and family issues to the challenges that international undergraduate students faced in their learning at U.S. colleges and/or universities. The researcher just focused on the issues of teacher leadership in the classrooms that might impact international undergraduate students' satisfaction in learning processes and experiences at U.S. colleges and/or universities as a whole.

Definition of Terms

Andragogy. According to Knowles (1980), andragogy was the art and science of helping adults learn, and the study of adult education theory, processes, and technology to that end.

Teacher leadership. According to Devaney (1987), the leadership considerations of teachers were grounded in their desire to enhance the quality of teaching and facilitating learning for all adult students. Please note that in the narrative body of this dissertation, the words 'teacher' and 'professor' were used interchangeably to describe the same people.

International undergraduate students. For the purpose of this study, this term referred to the traditional foreign learners (18 years old and/or older) in colleges and/or universities from foreign nations, who were enrolled for undergraduate study in U.S. colleges and/or universities on a temporary visa, and who were not considered immigrants or refugees.

International undergraduate satisfaction. For the purpose of this study, this term referred to the good academic experiences resulting from effective teacher leadership in the classroom, in which professor beliefs, feelings, and behaviors were appropriately applied to eradicate the roadblocks that international undergraduates faced in U.S. classrooms.

Academic experiences. For the purpose of this study, this term referred to the opportunities of international students attending U.S. colleges/universities. Ideally, they were encouraged to discover new things as follows: develop a critical mind, question what was being taught, and form new ideas without being suppressed by such issues, including language barriers, alienation, isolation, discrimination, homesickness, and lack of social and academic support from peers and professors in the classroom (Bevis & Lucas, 2007; Kilinc & Granello, 2003; Klomegah, 2006; Lee & Rice, 2007; Sumer et al., 2008).

Summary

Chapter One is a study overview of the flows of international students in higher education at U.S. colleges and/or universities and the significant changes that marked the development of economy and international education in the United States. Providing a good academic experience and learning satisfaction to international students was

considered as a great responsibility for every higher education institution in the United States, and its practical implications involved the cooperation from professors of international students, faculty members, and staff working on campus.

There was much research conducted on international students' issues and satisfaction; however, a very few indicated the practical and effective solutions to the problems. Needless to say, the researcher hardly found any specific related research on how to enhance teacher leadership in U.S. classrooms in order to ensure international student satisfaction in academic study in the U.S. This research, hence, aimed to (a) study the important issues that distracted international undergraduate students from achieving their expected learning outcomes in higher education at U.S. colleges and/or universities, (b) analyze the relationship between international undergraduate students and their professors, as measured by the congruency level of seven factors in the Modified Instructional Perspective Inventory (MIPI), and (c) propose guidelines for teacher leadership in adult classrooms to enhance international undergraduate satisfaction.

The limitation of this research was understood to be its inability to represent the entire population of international students at colleges and/or universities in the U.S. In addition, the research did not include other possible components of teacher leadership outside the classroom.

Chapter Two: The Literature Review

The research on proposed guidelines for U.S. teacher leaders in adult classrooms to enhance international undergraduates' satisfaction was reviewed with an overview of (a) international student mobility, (b) demographic information of international students in the United States, (c) reasons for studying in the United States; (d) international students' challenges and adjustment to U.S. colleges and/or universities, (e) international students' satisfaction in academic experiences at U.S. colleges and/or universities, (f) history of andragogy theory — six assumptions of adult learning characteristics, eight components of andragogical process design, and five building blocks in adult learning foundation, (g) servant leadership theory — history and definition of servant leadership, characteristics of servant leaders and servant leadership and job satisfaction, (h) emotional leadership theory — history and definition of emotional intelligence and five components of emotional intelligence, (i) transformation leadership theory — history and definition of transformation leadership and characteristics of transformational leaders, (j) five levels of leadership, and (k) four competencies of leadership.

International Student Mobility

Globalization was reshaping higher education in the United States and vice versa, prompting more colleges and universities to internationalize by sending more students to study abroad, recruiting more foreign students, and so forth (Chen, 2014). There was a widespread and wide-ranging conversation when it came to the topic of globalization in higher education; however, only by visiting classrooms in every corner of the world could one witness it in action (Neghina, 2017).

The flows of international students had become immense — exceeding three million in 2009 (UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2011). International students around the world were part of a movement bigger than themselves — a movement involving millions of people at thousands of campuses. Kritz (2012) highlighted that there were eight countries that hosted the largest numbers of global students in 2010, to include the United States (16.6%), the United Kingdom (13%), Australia (6.6%), Germany (6.4%), France (6.3%), Canada (4.7%), Russia Federation (3.9%), and Japan (3.4%) (p. 6). According to Choudaha (2017), the number of globally mobile international students doubled to reach four million between the period 1999 and 2013. In the same period, the number of international students enrolled in colleges and universities at the top two destinations — the United States and the United Kingdom — grew by 74% and 80% respectively. In addition, it was predicted that the flow of international students could reach four million by 2022 (Neghina, 2017). These telltale flows constituted and reflected larger global relationships of knowledge production, transfer, and circulation (Shields, 2013).

According to Neghina (2017), international student mobility, like many other economics and social principles, followed the laws of offer and demand. Choudaha (2017) analyzed the past, present, and future of international student mobility from the lens of three overlapping waves spread over seven years between 1999 and 2020. He emphasized that each wave was defined by the key events and trends impacting international student mobility within temporal periods. Wave one was shaped by the terrorist attacks of 2001 and the enrolment of international students at institutions seeking to build research excellence, while wave two was shaped by the global financial recession

which brought financial motivations for recruiting international students (Choudaha, 2017). Wave three, on the other hand, was shaped by the slowdown in the Chinese economy, the United Kingdom's referendum to leave the European Union, and the U.S. presidential election. The underlying drivers and characteristics of the three waves suggested that higher education institutions were under increasing financial and competitive pressure to reel in and retain international students. In addition, higher education institutions must innovate, not only to grow international student enrolment, but also balance it with corresponding support services that enhanced international students' satisfaction and success in their learning outcomes (Choudaha, 2017). Being able to yield career and employability outcomes for international students after graduation would be another step toward success in promoting international student mobility on campuses and in the community as a whole.

In addition, Kritz (2012) described the benefits of cross-border higher education programs (CBHEs) in two distinguished terms – the benefits to Global North universities and the benefits to Global South countries. First of all, the benefits of CBHEs to Global North included the ability to (a) generate revenue, (b) deploy faculty resources more efficiently, (c) enhance international profile and create opportunities for nationals, (d) advance mutual understanding between countries, and (e) recruit highly skilled immigrants. The benefits of CBHEs to Global South countries, on the other hand, included the cost effectiveness that helped expand education systems and the ability to (a) increase course/program in fields where local human resources were limited, (b) reduce high non-return rates, and (c) become a regional supplier of higher education and generate revenue from international students (Kritz, 2012).

Demographic Information of International Students in the United States

According to the United States Immigration and Customs Enforcement, there were 1,112,554 international students coming to the United States with F-1 visa in 2016 (as cited in Student and Exchange Visitor Program, 2016, p. 8). The majority came from Asia (803,552), followed by Europe (80,850), North America (66,726), South America (50,951), Africa (46,652), and Australia and the Pacific Islands (5,732). The data from this report also revealed the top three states that hosted the largest populations of international students in 2015 — California (54%), New York (14%), and Texas (13%). The State of California hosted 18% of international students from Asia, 19% of international students from Europe, and 17% of international students from Australia and Pacific Islands. Moreover, 14% of international students from North America enrolled in higher education in New York State, while 13% of international students from Africa enrolled in higher education in Texas State (Student and Exchange Visitor Program, 2016, p. 15).

The Student and Exchange Visitor Program (2016) reported that the number of international students studying in the United States in 2015 was up 9% over 2014. International students made up 4% of the total U.S. higher education population. The Open Door report (2017) indicated that the majority of international students enrolled in Engineering (21.4%), followed by Business and Management (18.6%), Math and Computer Science (15.5%), Social Sciences (7.7%), Physical Life Sciences (7.1%), Fine Applied Arts (5.7%), Health Professional (3.2%), Intensive English (2.8%), Communications and Journalism (2%), Education (1.7%), Humanities (1.6%), Legal Studies and Law Enforcement (1.4%), and Agriculture (1.2%) (Open Door, 2017, p. 2).

Reasons for Studying in the United States

International students selected the United States as the destination for their higher education for many reasons — one of which was the strong reputation of U.S. colleges and/or universities in higher education (Tempera, 2013). The study indicated a large amount of educational options provided in the United States, and that 13 of the 20 best world universities were located in the United States. Butler (2015) added that studying in the United States could make international students become more rounded students, simply because U.S. colleges and/or universities provided students an opportunity to try a number of subjects before deciding to specialize in one for their final two years of study, This education system was de facto helpful for students, especially those who were not sure where they would like to go academically.

On the other hand, according to *Study in the USA* magazine (2016), the United States was considered the best choice for international students' higher education because of the diversity and variety of colleges and/or universities, countless areas of study, and large number of specialty degrees. Additionally, the report showed that U.S. professors allowed students to contribute in discussion, and they were very accessible for students. The close relationship between faculty and students undoubtedly enabled high motivation for international students to complete their learning goals with satisfactory outcomes.

International students, in addition, stated that the United States pledged a high quality of academic freedom, which was known as one of the hallmarks of U.S. colleges and/or universities, where international students could be more independent regarding public expression and discussion on specific topics and/or issues (Tempera, 2013). International students were encouraged to analyze and scrutinize their academic and life

problems before making any important decisions — these trainings were very pragmatic (Study in the USA Magazine, 2016).

Equally important, the United States was considered to be on a leading edge when it came to advanced technology and research, because the United States was at the forefront of scientific and creative innovation (International Development Program [IDP] Education, 2016). International students, interestingly, valued the opportunity that they could work side-by-side with leading scholars in their chosen field. Notwithstanding, U.S. colleges and/or universities provided full access to classroom labs and/or workshops, which were necessary for international students seeking to test and/or practice the theories they had learned. In other words, the international students recognized the value of hands-on trainings and/or experiences offered in U.S. colleges and/or universities as the best way to polish theories learned in the classroom (Tempera, 2013).

International Student Challenges: Adjustments to U.S. Colleges and/or Universities

The majority of international students acknowledged the study abroad program as an experiential opportunity to enlarge their academic learning and personal development (Paige & Fry, 2010). However, Foster (2014) identified some potential barriers that international students faced including cost, difficulties with transferring credits between universities, and delayed graduation from college (Shaftel & Shaftel, 2007). The research on benefits of studying abroad conducted by Lenz and Wister (2008) indicated that work, academic scheduling, family, and financial issues were considered to be educational boundaries for international students. According to Ashely (2017), domestic students may place high concern on a school’s reputation, location, and tuition fee when it came to

decision making regarding their favorite colleges and/or universities. International students, on the other hand, were not reeled in by the school location and/or reputation, but the specific amount of scholarship offered by U.S. colleges and/or universities. Ross (2017) emphasized that international students were not eligible for student loans, and only very few outstanding students were lucky enough to receive a stipend from specific U.S. colleges and/or universities. She added that international students de facto needed to work hard to support not just their education but also miscellaneous expenses on a daily basis, including food, accommodation, and health and car insurances.

The perception of barriers varied among individual international students; for instance, learning English might motivate some students, while it might intimidate others (Nilsson, 2014). Some international students perceived the lack of support from faculty and staff, particularly from academic advisors, as a major roadblock in their academic journey, and it strongly impacted their learning satisfaction in U.S. colleges and/or universities (Matthews, Hameister, & Hosley, 1998). In addition, the research on international students' issues indicated that domestic students usually were not open enough to respond and interact with international students, even though international students always desired to have a conversation with U.S. peers. As a result, international students tended to limit their communication cycle to just communicate and make friends with those who came from the same country of origin and/or at least shared the same or similar cultures and values (Hayes & Lin, 1994).

Interestingly, the report revealed that the majority of international students made their decisions regarding higher education abroad based on their values and beliefs (Perna, 2006); in spite of the reasons, research on coping with stress illustrated that

international students faced depression, loneliness, and anxiety because they lost the social support from family (Sandhu & Asrabadi, 1994; Yang & Clum, 1995). International students tended to talk to their parents and friends back home via social media, such as: Facebook, Skype, Hangout, Line, etc., any time they felt isolated from the crowd (Poyrazli & Grahame, 2007; Hayes & Lin, 1994; Olivas & Li, 2006). Plainly put, the issue of lack of intercultural contact was known as the main feature that triggered the international students' dilemmas (Hung & Hyun, 2010). The study conducted by Young and Schartner (2014) and Young, Sercombe, Sachdev, Naeb, and Schartner (2013) confirmed that inability to converse in the host country's language led to a certain amount of stress, miscommunication, isolation, and solitude. Mak, Brown, and Wadey (2013) stated that without feeling isolated, international students would perform better in academic results, social interactions, and general adaptation.

While residing in a new land was considered a real challenge for many international students, the research on international students' challenges and barriers ascertained some major problems faced by international students, including language and communication across all contexts, less support than accustomed, financial issues, loneliness, feeling overwhelmed by opportunities they were not able to digest, cultural shock, climate changes, and homesickness (Armstrong, 2014). Poyrazli (2003) highlighted that academically, international students experienced many problems with writing, comprehension, and reading, due to the limited English language skills. This language issue may trigger more anxiety for international students (Lin & Yi, 1997), and it could result in students achieving lower grades in their studies in U.S. classroom. So far, without a proper intervention from professors and/or related persons and/or

departments, as well as the institution, the issue could lead to a loss of academic self-efficacy, which in turn lowered international students' general adjustment and satisfaction in their academic journey in the United States (Poyrazli, Arbona, Nora, McPherson, & Pisecco, 2002). However, Krahe, Abraham, Felber, and Helbig (2005) did not pinpoint a statistically significant overall level of increased discrimination from the population of students they studied, due to language.

O'Connor (2010) highlighted two major challenges that caused international students' issues – cultural differences and linguistic pitfalls. The researcher conducted the study with 500 international students from 74 countries, and it was indicated that international students had problems with speaking up in class, rhetorical patterns in writing, and plagiarism. Young et al. (2013) suggested that effective communication between international students and their professors, as well as their peers, was very important for international students to develop their English language skills and perform better both socially and academically. In addition, a study conducted by Wu et al. (2015) suggested that international students sought help from a writing center and/or had a native English speaker as a roommate, so that they could improve their English proficiency effectively.

Letcher and Neves (2010) avowed that international students earned a bad grade and had an unpleasant relationship with professors, peers, and faculty/staff simply because the students lacked self-confidence. Hopkins (2012) signified six crucial challenges for international students in U.S. colleges and/or universities. These included new assignments, new professors' expectations and instructions, new subjects, new friends, new cultures, and new foods – these factors strongly influenced international

students' concentration on academic achievement in U.S. classrooms (Hopkins, 2012). Rosenberg (2016), however, suggested that international students could make new friends and/or networks effectively by just having a part-time job on campus.

Furthermore, Khatiwada (2012) identified that international students faced other difficulties, including the confrontation with diverse religions, the feeling of being unaccepted by U.S. professors and peers, and the lack of appreciation of diversity. Charles-Toussaint and Crowson (2007) conducted research with 188 U.S. students to observe their attitudes toward international students. The research findings indicated that U.S. students worried that international students posed threats to their economic, education, physical well-being, beliefs, values, and their social status from anti-immigrant prejudice. According to the research conducted by Cho (2009), the most common complaints by international students were that U.S. students would make fun of international students' dress, accent, and customs, and that U.S. students would not associate with international students. In other words, rather than being treated differently according to their looks, international students were discriminated against because of their origin from the specific regions and/or nations (Lee, 2006).

Feagin and Eckberg (1980) ascertained that a major factor in the perpetration of discrimination toward others was the so-called 'prejudice.' Prejudice was motivated by the preference of one's own group, class, or race over those outside the group. Additionally, the research on international students' perceptions of academic learning in the United States showed that some international students suffered from discrimination and/or different treatment based on a characteristic such as gender, color, or being foreign (Sutton, 2002). This study also discussed international students' issues regarding national

origins – it was reported that some Americans had certain ideas and assumptions about negative conditions and/or issues that occurred in other countries. For example, the findings in this research indicated that Thai students were disappointed when Americans overlooked the positive things about their country and judged their values based on the prostitution problem in Thailand. This stereotype exaggerated the issues that international students had been facing as they tried to live abroad.

International Student Satisfaction with Academic Experiences at U.S. Colleges and/or Universities

International students were considered customers of higher education institutions in the United States, and their satisfaction became one of the most researched topics in academia (Sakthivel, Rajendran, & Raju, 2005). The measurement of international student satisfaction could be useful to U.S. colleges and/or universities, which were struggling to maintain lucrative revenues for the colleges and/or universities.

The research conducted by Poyrazli and Grahame (2007), Olivas and Li (2006), and Hayes and Lin (1994) revealed that international students could ultimately achieve more success in their academic journeys when they have a good relationship with professors, faculty members, and staff. Multiple researches were conducted to study international students' satisfaction with learning. Huang and Wang (2012) emphasized that international student satisfaction with learning experiences could be noted rapidly by their positive attitudes toward learning activities in the classroom. For example, when international students were happy with their classroom interaction and adopted an aggressive learning attitude, they were deemed to be 'satisfied.' On the other hand, if the international students failed to interact with peers and/or professors in the classroom, and

did not show up in class frequently, they were using a negative attitude to deliver the message of dissatisfaction with their learning experiences.

Equally important, international students had certain expectations from their academic experiences in the United States, which meant their level of satisfaction simply relied on how the actual experiences addressed their diverse expectations (Gibbons, Dempster, & Moutray, 2011). International students seemingly sought to benefit from having a good quality of interaction with U.S. peers, including the improvement of their English language and extension of their comprehensive knowledge on U.S. culture and life in general (Hanassab, 2006; Poyrazli & Grahame, 2007; Victoria University of Wellington, 2006).

The majority of colleges and/or universities studied international students' satisfaction in order to better understand and be able to adapt significant changes to address international students' needs. They determined the effective learning environment and student development would not flourish if the international students indicated their dissatisfaction on their academic experiences (Ahmed, Khairuzzaman, Mohamad, & Islam, 2014).

According to Bitner, Brown, and Meuter (2000), service providers could address customer satisfaction only if they knew their customers' needs. By the same token, colleges and/or universities, as well as the U.S. professors, might be able to implement effective services for international students only if they were aware of international students' issues and needs. The study on service quality in higher education reported that it was crucial that the faculty and staff, including U.S. professors, never assumed international students' learning needs without prior interaction and/or conducting a needs

assessment with them. The research also pinpointed that what institutions found interesting and/or important might not be aligned with what international students expected for their academic success (Oldfield & Baron, 2000).

The British Columbia Ministry of Advanced Education (2003) highlighted six major dimensions of educational experiences that impacted international student satisfaction, including curriculum, teaching, analytical skills, communication skills, social skills, and personal growth. Professors of adults had to be flexible by knowing when, where, and how to utilize appropriate teaching techniques with adults, because not every student was moving at the same pace in the learning process (Brookfield, 1986; Knowles, Swanson, & Holton, 2005; McKeachie, 2010; Silberman & Auerbach, 1998). Henschke (2014) added that a positive learning climate flourished only when a professor focused more on learning processes and was flexible in using their prepared contents. Moreover, it is important to notice that student satisfaction was positively associated with their graduation rates and grade attainments (Letcher & Neves, 2010). According to Dwyer and Peters (1999), international student satisfaction could be measured by personal development, academic commitment, intercultural development, and career development.

Nevertheless, Hameed and Amjad (2011) conducted a research testing with 157 students, modeling the independent variables of faculty, advisory staff, and classes. The research findings indicated that the faculty and staff had significant influence on international students' college experiences. The study on factors that impacted international student satisfaction, in addition, proposed that service quality, price, student and professor relationship, and the characteristics of the colleges and/or universities

influenced the international students' retention and satisfaction in learning experiences (Hasan & Masri, 2015). According to Asgari and Borzooei (2014), the service quality included tangibles, assurance, empathy, responsiveness, and reliability.

Equally important, the professors' relationship with international students was also acknowledged as a crucial indicator determining international students' self-esteem, self-confidence, social support, and motivation to grow in their learning outcomes. Student-faculty interaction was considered as one of the benchmarks of any effective educational practice (Astin, 1993).

Dating back to traditional classroom management in 1990s, the teaching profession delivered that students were considered as passive learners. Lambert (2003) suggested professors of adults implement an interactive teaching approach and that professors focus on students' learning needs and encourage every student to actively participate in classroom discussions. This led to the realization that the close relationship between professor and international student in classroom increased international student satisfaction in learning experiences (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009).

History of Andragogy Theory

According to Anderson and Lindeman (1927), andragogy was the method of teaching adults, but the concept was new to the United States. Knowles, the first U.S. educator who theorized the concept and foundation of andragogy via his published work on iteration of andragogy, defined andragogy as the art and science of helping adults learn (Knowles, 1980). Henschke (1998) affirmed that andragogy was a scientific discipline for the study of the theory, processes, technology, and anything else of value and benefit, including learning, teaching, instructing, guiding, leading, and

modeling/exemplifying a way of life, which would bring adults to their full degree of humaneness.

The term ‘andragogy’ was first introduced by Kapp, who was a high school teacher in Germany (Henschke, 2016b). Kapp (1833) stated that education, self-reflection, and educating the character, were the first values in human life. He also described the lifelong necessity to learn — he referred to vocational education of the healing profession, soldier, educator, orator, ruler, and men as the family father. The revolution of andragogy concept lay fallow for many decades; only until Eduard C. Lindeman, the first U.S. educator notable for his pioneering contributions in adult education, brought the concept of andragogy to the United States.

According to Blondy (2007), the revolution of andragogy permeated the field of adult education despite ongoing debates regarding its usefulness and application. Mezirow (1981) developed a critical theory of adult learning and education. He laid the groundwork for what he called a charter for andragogy — this included the core concepts that would enhance adults’ capability to function as self-directed learners. In his guidebook for learners and teachers on the topic of self-directed learning, Knowles (1975) labeled pedagogy as ‘teacher-directed’ learning and andragogy as ‘self-directed’ learning.

VanGent (1996) acknowledged that andragogy should be used to designate the education of adults. The learning processes that adults wanted to be involved in consisted of a conducive climate in learning, cooperative planning, learning needs’ diagnosis, setting objectives, designing the sequence, conducting the activities, and evaluating learner progress (Knowles, 1970).

Henschke (2016b) indicated the then-recent research foundations and practices in andragogy focused on identifying and testing the contributions each made to the field of adult and higher education in many places around the globe. Henschke (2014) also indicated the basic characteristics of low-level adult learners and andragogical techniques for helping them learn, as shown in Table 1.

Table 1

Characteristics and Andragogical Techniques

Characteristics	Andragogical Techniques
Immediate concerns	Use realistic problems, adult-oriented material, and concrete situations
Low self-concept	Respect the learner for what he respects in himself; involve him in planning and decision-making for the curricular; tap his experiences.
Different value system	Relate education to life and direct plans of work to the coping skills of the learner; encourage open discussions around the value shifts from youth into aging; make no moral judgments as to what is good or bad.
Use of defense mechanisms	Allay excuses given by the frustrated without attacking them; emphasize importance of goal-seeking and of becoming something better (constructive behavior); accept any patterns of self-protection against internal as well as external threats.
Sensitivity to nonverbal communication	Be alert for clues of what is said and what is not said but felt; in responding, guard against negative nonverbal responses in voice, gestures, or facial expressions.
Alienation (feeling of helplessness over control of events)	Enhance the learners' attitudes about their ability to learn; orient learners to be active and to seek out resources in their community; cite examples in which human potential, once awakened, changed one's life drastically.
Reticence and lack of self-confidence	Help learners to experience success and security by giving small tasks before proceeding into more demanding activities; present well-planned and meaningful lessons; begin with familiar and concrete problems; add humor to every session.

Continued

Table 1. Continued

Hostility and anxiety toward authority	Project yourself as a friend or guide with genuine honesty and a warm regard for each person; dress conservatively; allow controversy in group discussion; speak in conversational tone.
Hostility and anxiety toward authority	Project yourself as a friend or guide with genuine honesty and a warm regard for each person; dress conservatively; allow controversy in group discussion; speak in conversational tone.
Fear of school, failure and change	Assure entire group that choice of seating, responses, and homework are to be voluntary; teach good study habits; encourage interaction; set a warm, informal, relaxed atmosphere; constantly reassure learners in their small successes.
Limitations from deprived home life	Find ways to remedy the physical and emotional handicaps resulting from limitations in environment; provide a quiet, comfortable place for study; provide well-stocked supplementary aids; encourage use of the library, agencies, and/or learning center.
Cultural exclusion	Provide a link between learners and sources of pleasure, learning, and cultural enrichment open to them; post schedules of community activities or review with learners the weekly events in local papers; schedule field trips to lectures, libraries for films or demonstrations, or public court hearings; invite a cooperative extension agent to give a demonstration relating to some home need expressed in planning sessions.

Six assumptions of adult learners. According to Henschke (2011), the term 'adult' was no longer defined by the age of the individual (18 years old or over), but referred to the maturity of an individual, who took full responsibility in decision making and was responsible for what he/she did and was currently doing. Knowles (1990) specified six assumptions of adult learners as the need to know, the learners' self-concept, the role of the learners' experience, readiness to learn, orientation to learning, and motivation to learn.

Assumption one: The need to know. Tough (1979) highlighted that when adults undertook to learn something on their own, they invested all their tenacities and energy in

probing into it and the benefits they will obtained from learning it. They also considered the consequences of not learning the task.

According to the National Training Coordinating Council and AARP/Legal Counsel for the Elderly, Inc. (1993), adults learned best when they were treated as adults. Before involving themselves in the learning processes, adults wanted to be informed whether the learning and/or training would address their needs, concerns, issues, and interests.

Equally important, Henschke (2014) ascertained the concept of adult learning characteristics by mentioning that adults expressed the need to know a reason that made sense to them, for why they should explore a particular learning — why they needed to investigate the subject matter introduced by the professor.

Assumption two: Learners' self-concept. Knowles (1990) identified adults as self-directed learners for whom their experiences were learning resources, their learning needs were particularized, and their time perspective was one of immediate application. His andragogical concept landed on a process design instead of a content design, with assumptions and processes.

According to Hiemstra (1994), self-study played a significant role in the lives of such Greek philosophers as Socrates, Plato, and Aristotle. More historical examples of self-directed learners included Alexander the Great, Caesar, Erasmus, and Descartes. Social conditions in Colonial America and a corresponding lack of formal educational institutions necessitated that many people learned on their own. Hence, the concept of self-directed learning existed even from classical antiquity.

Knowles (1984) illustrated that adults were mature enough to be responsible for any decisions that affected them. This did not imply that self-directedness removed adults from social interaction, but the term was intended to suggest an appropriate learning environment that cultivated adult learning satisfaction. With the purpose of addressing the needs of adult learners, Knowles recommended that adult learning environments should be collaborative, welcoming, and consist of mutual respect and trust.

In addition, Caffarella and O'Donnell (1987) presented five categories of self-direction in learning – the nature of philosophical perspective of the process, the verification studies, the nature of the method of self-directed learning, the nature of the individual learner, and policy questions. Equally important, Merriam and Caffarella (1991) viewed adults as self-directed learners because adults set their own learning goals, performed self-study, and took full responsibility in their learning. Henschke (2016a) presented his perspective and experience on how self-directed learning and andragogy may complement and contrast with each other. His focuses were on theoretical/practical, historically/currently implementing, strengths/weakness, foundational/personally engaging, and comparing/contrasting. He ascertained that a case could be made for valuing each (self-directed learning & andragogy) for enhancing benefit to the constituencies and individuals served. Duckworth and Seligman (2005) added that self-discipline was a better predictor of academic success than intelligence quotient (IQ).

Coloroso (2002) revealed that there were three different kinds of professors who were trying to instill self-discipline to their students — brick-wall, jellyfish, and backbone. Brick-wall professors were those who were strict, demanding students to follow the rules without any questioning and/or exceptions. Jellyfish professors, on the

other hand, enforced the rules, like the way jellyfish moved. They always changed the rewards and punishments simply because their rules were not clear, and the students, de facto, could not remotely expect consistency from these professors. Lastly, backbone professors allowed students to make their own behavior choices and provided strong support to foster students' success in academic journey. According to Coloroso, as cited in Maschino (2013), professors could help improve students' self-discipline by (a) treating students with respect and dignity; (b) giving students a sense of positive power over their own lives; and (c) giving them opportunities to make decisions, take responsibilities for their actions, and learn from their successes and mistakes.

However, Weimer (2017) argued that it was not all about whether professors were doing their job, but self-discipline flourished only when the students, de facto, took responsibility for their own learning. She illustrated three different arenas of student responsibility and how professor intervention was helpful to cultivate learning success for students. First of all, students were responsible to learn what was taught in the classroom (Weimer, 2017). Professors should play a role as a facilitator to encourage and support the learning process in a variety of ways. Second, students took responsibility for doing research and/or seeking tasks to enhance their comprehensive knowledge on the subject and/or complete their assigned work on time with a satisfactory result (Weimer, 2017). Professors, in this process, should provide a clear detail of their assigned tasks and serve as information resources rather than assist students completing the tasks, or they were creating dependent learners. Lastly, there were responsibilities that students could share with professors (Weimer, 2017). Students should be willing to share opinions on how the class was run, how they would learn the content, and how their learning should be

assessed. In other words, professors and students should work together to generate a better learning climate and learning plans that would be helpful for student development. In addition, professors should allow students to be involved in providing feedback and evaluating their peers' works. Sharing responsibility with students would increase their self-discipline and empower them as responsible learners (Weimer, 2017).

According to Waitley (1979), positive self-discipline was one of the 10 qualities owned by every total winner. He emphasized that every individual needed the power to discipline and take control of his or her learning process in order to walk the road of success. Lynch (2016b) delineated that self-discipline flourished only when professors and students had trust relationships built on respect, and that students took their own responsibilities in their learning processes to generate a satisfactory learning outcomes. Hence, the self-discipline approach was based on the belief that students were responsible for their own learning and that they could assess, as well as correct, their own misbehaviors in the classroom. Canfield (2005) strongly affirmed that every great achievement was a story of education, training, practice, discipline, and sacrifice. Every student had to be willing to pay the price — maybe that price was pursuing one single activity while putting everything else in life on hold, maybe it was investing the time and savings, and maybe it was the willingness to walk away from the safety of the then-current situation.

***Assumption three: The role of experience*.** Henschke (2014) stated that adults entered into an educational activity with a greater volume and a different quality of experience from that of youths. Adults' experiences varied in terms of their different

educational backgrounds, learning and living styles, economic situations, motivations, life goals, interests, and needs (Brookfield, 1986; Silberman & Auerbach, 1998).

As they moved into adulthood, adults had numerous life experiences in which they believed that new knowledge had to be integrated with their previous knowledge and skills. Ballou (2011) indicated that andragogy was a dramatically collaborative approach that involved adults' points of view, knowledge, and experiences in learning processes. The research illustrated that the richest resources for learning ultimately resided in adults themselves. Hence, the experiential techniques should be embedded in adults' learning processes, including classroom discussion, role playing, simulation, case study, and problem-solving activities (Brookfield, 1986; Knowles et al., 2005; McKeachie, 2010; Silberman & Auerbach, 1998).

Kolb (1984) indeed established a model of experiential learning to identify four modes in the adult learning cycle, concrete experimentation, reflection, abstract conceptualization, and active experimentation. In more specific terms, Kolb (1984) explained that students learned by doing something (concrete experimentation), thinking about it (reflection), doing some research, talking with others and applying what they already knew to the situation (abstract conceptualization), and doing something new or doing the same thing in a more sophisticated way based on their learning (active experimentation). He indeed emphasized two independent learning activities that transpired in the learning cycle — perception (the way students take in information) and processing (how students deal with information).

Assumption four: Readiness to learn. Knowles (1984) identified that adults valued the opportunity to learn new knowledge and skills as they were exposed to variety

of changes in life, including a birth, divorce, or the loss of a job. In addition, Atherton (2003) affirmed that adults were ready to learn only when they experienced a need to know or be able to apply their knowledge and/or skills learned to the real life practices. By the same token, Ota, DiCarlo, Burts, Laird, and Gioe (2006) ascertained that adults found learning less effective if the learning experiences were not applicable in the present.

Henschke (2014) added that adults were responsible for their own learning and were ready to face challenges that might happen in the learning process. Roughly put, adults did not hesitate to take challenges that might improve their learning experiences and yield a better learning outcome.

***Assumption five: Orientation to learning*.** Adults were known as self-directed learners, and they had specific goals in learning. In other words, adults were life-centered (task-centered, problem-centered) in their orientation to learn something new (Knowles et al., 2005). Adults were focused on certain issues they encountered in life, and they intended to learn something that might be helpful for their decision making and problem solving in the context of real-life application (Knowles et al., 2005; Merriam & Caffarella, 1999).

***Assumption six: Motivation*.** The drastically changing world marked significant needs for adults – they needed to develop their knowledge, skills, and attitudes in order to survive and succeed in their personal endeavors (Chao, 2009). Henschke (2014) acknowledged that adults were strongly influenced by external factors, including a change of job and/or living condition, a chance for promotion, and a change in technology. Knowles et al. (2005) emphasized that adults were much more responsive to

internal motivators, including the desire to have a better job and/or quality of life, self-esteem, a desire to get recognition from peers and/or society, and the aim for self-development, including self-confidence and self-actualization.

Eight components of andragogical process design. There was no one theory that described how adults learned, just as there was no one theory that explained all human beings. Each existing theory provided the framework and/or models that may contribute to the understanding of adults as learners (Merriam & Caffarella, 1999). Knowles (1995) established eight components of andragogical process design that may help adult learners become actively involved in the learning process.

The first element of the andragogical process design was preparing the learners for the program (Knowles, 1995). According to Knowles (1995), potential learners were looking for the specific program's purpose, objectives, meeting time and place, audience, registration process, cost, and prospective benefits. Henschke (2014) added that adult learners would like to be engaged in the participatory nature of the learning design in order to develop some realistic expectations about how they would be involved. In addition, they would get an opportunity to make decisions about their special needs, generate questions on specific topics and/or problems that they hoped would be covered.

Second, andragogical process design elements involved the setting of positive learning climates, which were conducive to andragogical learning; it was a prerequisite for effective learning (Henschke, 2014). A positive learning environment never happened by accident — it was the direct outcome of many actions taken by the facilitator of adult learners (Ballou, 2011). Plainly put, positive learning climates played a significant role in helping adult learners succeed in their learning goals (Amirul et al., 2013). Knowles

(1995) pinpointed two main aspects of andragogical learning climate that may cultivate terrific learning experiences for adult learners — physical and psychological learning climates.

Chism (2006) affirmed that physical aspects of the learning environment could impact adult learning outcomes. Weinstein and Mignano (2003) identified six basic functions of physical environment, including the function for security and protection, as the social context, as a symbolic identifier, as a tool to do the task, and having the function of fun and function as a place for student growth. Tessmer and Harris (2014) indicated three kinds of physical factors of learning environment that may cultivate the cutting edge of effective teaching of adults, (a) the study illustrated the need of particular learning facilities including a classroom, a computer lab, a science lab, an office, or any place where learning might occur. Other aspects of facilities included learning space, a seating area, temperature, lighting, sound, and accessibility; (b) the physical learning environment included the instructional materials, such as video tapes, books, attachments, and computer software; and (c) it was important that the tools for teaching and learning were frequently used. The teaching materials should be customized, easy to use, could be reproduced, and could be replaced.

Equally important, psychological learning climate played a crucial role in helping adult learners achieving their learning goals. Knowles (1995) highlighted seven major characteristics that may establish a psychological climate conducive to learning, including a climate of mutual respect, a climate of collaboration, a climate of mutual trust, a climate of support, a climate of openness and authenticity, a climate of pleasure, and a climate of humanness. He also suggested the idea of moving the lectern to a corner

and rearranging the chairs in one large circle or several small circles to facilitate a positive learning environment for adults. Knowles believed that adult learners would learn best when they were engaged in face-to-face discussion rather than put into a typical traditional classroom setup (as cited in Henschke, 2014).

Third, andragogical process design elements involved mutual planning. The research on classroom strategies indicated that one of the most important skills professors could give their students, especially those with disabilities, was to empower them to advocate for themselves (Bucholz & Sheffler, 2009). The facilitators of adults needed to implement a collaborative approach to the planning of the learning experience by engaging adult learners in initiating their learning goals and suggesting the learning methods as to achieve those goals (Park, Robinson, & Bates, 2016).

Fourth, the andragogical process design elements required the learners' diagnosis of their learning needs (Knowles, 1995). It was essential that students were able to make their needs and wants known, and those learning needs were diagnosed through a process of mutual assessment. The Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction was known as an effective teaching model that educators of adults could utilize in order to help students set educational and learning goals for themselves, develop plans to reach those goals, and monitor their progress toward those same goals).

The fifth learning process design element for adult learners was to set learning objectives (Knowles, 1995). Brockett and Hiemstra (1991) found that adults learned more deeply and comprehensively on their own initiative than on the lessons taught by their professors. Learning objectives were determined through mutual planning and negotiation between facilitator and the adult learners (Park, Robinson, & Bates, 2016).

The sixth andragogical learning process element involved designing the learning experience (Knowles, 1995). This process was most effective when oriented around a learning contract and projects (Park et al., 2016). Realizing that adult learners were self-directed, the concept of a learning contract was broadly used in adult classroom. Knowles (1986) introduced the learning contract as a method of helping adult learners build upon their past experiences and defined needs as they carried out learning activities. Students developed a learning contract through five steps, including diagnosing their learning needs, specifying their learning objectives, identifying their learning resources and strategies, indicating a target date for completion, and illustrating how the evidence would be validated.

The seventh learning process design element for adult learners involved learning activities (Knowles, 1995). After having objectives and learning design planned, adult learners needed to conduct effective learning activities, including inquiry projects, independent study, and the use of experiential techniques in order to achieve their learning goals (Park et al., 2016).

Evaluation of learning was the eighth element in the learning process design for adult learners (Knowles, 1995). This process required adult learners to self-evaluate their learning progress in regards to whether their set goals were met, or whether some adjustments on their learning plan needed to be made as necessary to be successful (Bucholz & Sheffler, 2009). According to Park, Robinson, and Bates (2016), learning evaluation was most effective when done through the collection of learner-collected evidence that was criterion referenced and validated by peers or experts.

In addition, Heick (2013) highlighted six ways to honor the learning process in the classroom. First and foremost, he recommended professors' use of learning taxonomies in order to display understanding more clearly. Roughly put, professors should discover multiple resources to guide their instructional design, including assessment — move beyond 'pass or fail,' or even 'A to F,' to 'can define and apply, but has trouble analyzing.' Second, professors should use concept maps that allow students to map, chart, diagram, and/or visually represent their own learning plans and change in their own understanding. In other words, professors should seek out ways for students to express what they do and do not understand, where they started, where they are, and where they might be going (Heick, 2013).

Third, professors used a variety of assessment forms to evaluate students' performances, writing, concept maps, interviews, projects, and classroom participation, as well as team work (Heick, 2013). Professors could even allow students to make decision on their own assessment as teachers challenged them to prove not just if they get it, but how. Fourth, professors built metacognition into units (Heick, 2013). Needless to say, prime the pump by assigning students quick writing prompts or minute paper/reflections about their own thinking. Professors should model what metacognition looks, sounds, and/or feels like by allowing students to express themselves and their thinking away from the pressure of the classroom and the expectation of verbal eloquence.

Fifth, professors used digital portfolios and frequently reviewed what goes into them (Heick, 2013). Professors should analyze the changes in student work, including content knowledge, to notice the significant changes in students' learning progress. Sixth,

professors connected students to networks in order to plug them into the effective learning process. Professors should encourage students to involve in teamwork and/or direct them toward communities and resources that could help propel them toward knowing and understanding of the new concepts or knowledge.

Five building blocks in adult learning foundations. After gaining 26 years of experience in facilitating adult learners and immersing himself in the literature of adult education for many years, Henschke (2013) determined five major foundations in getting adult educators ready to facilitate adult learning: beliefs and notions about adult learners, perceptions concerning qualities of effective teachers, phases and sequences of the learning process, teaching tips and learning techniques, and implementing the prepared plan.

First building block: Beliefs and notions about adult learners. Henschke (2013) indicated that in the learning situation, the adult accepted and loved responsibility, oriented toward the future, valued initiative, opened to opportunities, solved problems, was creative, contextual, and ideological. Knowles (1990) ascertained that adults learned best when their learning experiences were honored and respected. Henschke (1987) stated that adult learning experiences were the vast resource to draw on for helping others to learn, as well as advancing one's own learning.

Henschke (1987) believed the learning situation must to take advantage of those resources and should at least help to (a) create positive attitudes in the learner toward the instructor, one's self as a learner, the subject and learning situation, expectancy for success; (b) relate the instruction to the learner's needs; (c) increase stimulation of the learner's attention, awakens awareness, interest, involvement, and interaction; (d)

encourage, optimize and integrate learner emotion; (e) achieve the learner's progress toward self-chosen goals; and (f) reinforce learner participation, positive changes and continuous learning.

Henschke (2013) stated that the only way that professors could earn trust from students was to make a decision to trust students unconditionally, because trust needed to happen in a reciprocal process. Finley (2013) also introduced seven strategies for professors to initiate trust in students. First, trust must be given in order for it to develop. Ennis and McCaulay (2002) suggested professors give students a second chance, if they find out that students broke their trust and/or misbehaved in the classroom somehow. Second, professors should slowly and deliberately get to know their students. Third, professors share power by seeking students' input about what is to be learned and how (Henschke, 2013). Fourth, professors explain to students how to earn professor's trust — this included honesty, academic effort, politeness and consistency (Henschke, 2013). Fifth, professors should avoid any kind of punishment, but encourage and support students during the learning process (Henschke, 2013). Sixth, professors avoid protective hesitancy (Henschke, 2013). In other words, professors should engage students who do not look, sound, and act like them. Seventh, professors adjust the learning environment by arranging students to sit in a circle instead of in a row shape, so that everybody could interact and get to know each other better via the telltale face expression (Henschke, 2013).

Brookfield (1990) affirmed that building trust with students required professor credibility and professor authenticity. Teacher credibility referred to professors' abilities to present themselves as people with something to offer — that could be professors'

knowledge, skills, and experiences in teaching adults in a diversity of learning climate. Authentic professors, according to Moustakas (1966), were those that students felt they could trust. Roughly put, they were also those whom students saw as real flesh-and-blood human beings with passions, frailties, and emotions. They were remembered as whole persons, not as people who hid behind a collection of learned role behaviors appropriate to college teaching. In more specific terms, Brookfield (1990) explained that professor authenticity could be pinpointed rapidly through four behaviors, which included (a) professors' words and actions were congruent; (b) professors admitted to errors and acknowledged fallibility; (c) professors allowed aspects of their personhood outside their roles as professors to be revealed to students; (d) professors respected learners by listening carefully to students' expressions of concern, by taking care to create opportunities for students' voices to be heard, and by being open to alternative teaching and learning processes, as suggested by their students (Brookfield, 1990).

Bruney (2012) affirmed the concept of building trust with students that professor authenticity and predictability were the most important factors in getting students to trust and believe in their professors. The study also suggested three main practices for professors to earn trust from students (a) validating student feelings could foster trust and emotional intelligence; (b) good classroom management was contingent on a trusting environment; and (c) student willingness to take risks, make mistakes, and say 'I don't get it!' when they do not understand a certain concept improved their learning process and achievement in the classroom (Bruney, 2012).

Second building block: Perceptions concerning qualities of effective teachers. Cochran (1981) affirmed that the qualities of effective teachers could be measured by

their efforts to address students' learning needs and increased student satisfaction in the classroom. Henschke (1987) identified five main components that made an effective adult educator. First, the main quality of effective teachers involved interest in the students and the subject studied (Henschke, 1987). Students were quick at determining how interested teachers were in them and the subject taught. Teachers could not have one to the exclusion of the other. Effective teachers demonstrated sincere concern and interest in their students' progress and well-being.

Second, effective teachers of adults had the ability to communicate well (Henschke, 1987). Communication was the act of helping others learns concepts, skills and attitudes. Teachers communicated by speaking, listening, and writing. Communication included presenting material in a clear and straightforward manner using language and written materials geared to learners' comprehension levels. Since learning was an active progress, communication methods used must actively engage students.

Third, good knowledge of the subject defined the quality of effective teachers (Henschke, 1987). Successful teachers and trainers had a thorough and comprehensive knowledge of the subjects they were teaching. The expectation of students was that the teacher would be able to respond to their questions and help them develop their areas of interest. However, when challenged by a question, the teacher of adults needed to be willing to admit to not knowing the answer, as well as expressing willingness to work with the students to find the answer.

Fourth, effective teachers were well prepared to teach the lesson (Henschke, 1987). Good teaching and good planning go hand in hand. Planning required an investment of time. It should be a joint venture done with students so that their needs

were addressed. The basic ingredients of planning were establishing goals, selecting techniques and materials to achieve these goals, and evaluating to see if the goals were met.

Fifth, enthusiasm was the major quality that made an effective teacher (Henschke, 1987). Enthusiasm was catching. If one was deeply interested in a group of ideas, a set of facts, or a type of work, one was also more likely to get others interested. Enthusiasm was the natural celebration of the joy of learning a new bit of knowledge or a new skill. Students loved enthusiastic teachers, and would, as a result, get 'steamed up' about learning. It afforded them the opportunity to explore new ideas and expand themselves in new directions with the support of a knowledgeable and exciting teacher.

Additionally, Henschke (2013) added some further qualities of an effective teacher including a desire to instruct, a sense of humor, being flexible, tact, patience, and using a variety of teaching techniques, sensitivity, and courtesy. Heick (2014) described the qualities of effective teachers in association with the 10 characteristics of a highly effective learning environment: (a) the students asked the questions; (b) questions were valued over answers; (c) ideas came from divergent sources; (d) a variety of learning models were used; (e) classroom learning 'emptied' into a connected community; (f) learning was personalized by a variety of criteria; (g) assessment was persistent, authentic, transparent, and never punitive; (h) criteria for success was balanced and transparent; (i) learning habits were constantly modeled; and (j) there were constant opportunities for practice.

Third building block: Phases and sequences of the learning process. Dating back to the 1950s, learning was merely viewed as a learner absorbing a body of

information, and teaching became the vehicle for throwing or spraying as much information as possible at the learner. However, according to Henschke (2013), the 21st century gradually moved from the traditional teaching concept to a learner-centered model — teaching became the vehicle and road map for helping the learner internalize, develop, practice, and refine proficiency in the application and use of that knowledge.

Cochran (1981) shared an interesting model on how teachers kept the learners yearning, learning, earning, and returning. He mentioned that teachers played a role as a guide in the learning process and provided whatever the learner's yearn, such as: new and advanced parts of the subject, developing a spirit of inquiry, another expert resource on the topic, reading and studying outside, and help to find out answers to their questions. Teachers also produce clarity, which would help the learners learn, such as: incremental parts of the subject, using time well, classroom group would help the learners earn success, confidence, praise, and interest (Cochran, 1981). Finally, teachers offered that which would cause the learners to return with enthusiasm, moving forward, sharing their learning and progress, finding sincere teacher interest, and experiencing affirmation.

Kolb (1984) illustrated that students' learning processes could be viewed in four different quadrants. First, converging processes associated with bringing a number of perspectives to finding a single answer — usually right or wrong (Kolb, 1984). Students may use this thinking system in a scientific context. Second, diverging processes were about generating a number of accounts of different experiences (Kolb, 1984). Third, assimilating processes described (roughly) the taking in of new knowledge (Kolb, 1984). Fourth, accommodating processes marked out (again, roughly) the related new knowledge to the students' prior experiences and beliefs (Kolb, 1984).

According to Custer (1986), the learning process was portrayed through four major steps. First, teachers determined the content to be included. Then, they identified the specific knowledge and skills to be taught (Custer, 1986). It was vital that, in this step, teachers knew who would be in the program and be able to determine the present level of performance. Also, teachers established objectives and designed performance tests, as well as learning points.

Second, teachers determined the learning techniques to be used (Custer, 1986). They looked at the task and the way results were achieved. In this step, teachers determined learners' orientation, including visual, auditory/verbal, or physical. Then, they defined whether information was processed, learned, and applied systematically or intuitively. Teachers also needed to decide whether the learner's motivation was low or high, select media and techniques, and determine how to use the media and techniques (Custer, 1986).

Third, teachers organized and developed the training presentation, sequence content, designed and developed handouts, and developed a plan for delivery (Custer, 1986). Fourth, teachers delivered the presentation, did a pilot presentation, evaluated outcomes, and saved final materials for later use (Custer, 1986).

Furthermore, Davis (2012) affirmed that professors' instruction techniques and behaviors should be supportive for students' learning progress. He offered the following suggestions on using appropriate instruction techniques and behaviors to motivate adult learners more effectively: (a) professor used the adult learner's experience and knowledge as a basis from which to teach; (b) professor showed adult learners how their class would help students attain learning goals; (c) professor made all course and text

material practical and relevant to the adults; (d) professor showed adult learners the respect they deserved; (e) professor adjusted teaching speed to meet the needs of the older learners and/or international students in the classroom; and (f) professor motivated adult learners to learn new information using various teaching techniques, including lecture, group discussion, role play, case study, and storytelling, etc. (Davis, 2012).

Fourth building block: Teaching tips and learning techniques. As an adult educator, it was essential that one understood adult learning domains, learning styles, and learning techniques. Murphy (2012) indicated three learning domains, which included cognitive, affective, and behavioral. Cognitive was the knowledge of a body of subject matter, which included lectures, brainstorms, and discussions.

Businessballs, as cited in UMass Dartmouth (2017), introduced three different learning styles, of which every student would at least fall into one: visual, auditory, and kinesthetic learning styles. Students with a visual learning style preferred seen or observed things, including pictures, diagrams, demonstrations, displays, handouts, films, and flip-chart, etc. Students with an auditory learning style, however, preferred the transfer of information through listening: to the spoken word, of self or others, of sounds and noises. Lastly, students with a kinesthetic learning style preferred physical experience — touching, feeling, holding, doing, and practical hands-on experiences.

Mantle (2001), in addition, revealed there were seven specific types of learning styles. First, the linguistic learner referred to the type of learner who loved to read, write, and tell stories. The learners with this learning style tended to memorize places, dates, names, and trivia easily. They had a remarkable ability to repeat back everything people told them, word by word. These students learned best by saying, hearing, and seeing

words. Second, the logical learner referred to the learners who were mathematically inclined (Mantle, 2001). They enjoyed solving problems, particularly if they were math related. This type of student learned best by categorizing, classifying, and working with abstract patterns or relationships. Third, the spatial learner referred to visualizers (Mantle, 2001). They spent most of the day dreaming, watching movies, and staying as far away from reality as possible. This type of student was very artistic, although they often had problems expressing it. Fourth, the musical learner referred to the type of learner who was best at noticing details, pitches, and rhythms that escaped the normal listener (Mantle, 2001). They were excellent in keeping tune, and were adept at turning the abstract into concrete objects.

Fifth, the bodily learner was the type of learner who was always on the move (Mantle, 2001). They constantly walked around, they had to touch everything, and they used body language to convey their feelings. They would rather play sports or do a craft than sit down and read a book. This type of student could do more than one thing at a time. Sixth, the interpersonal learner referred to social butterflies. They adapted easily to any type of social situation, had many friends and were excellent leaders (Mantle, 2001). They were patient, understanding, and very empathetic, which made them a favorite among their playmates. This type of learner would do best in a group situation as they compared, shared, related, and interviewed other people. Finally, the intrapersonal learner referred to the strong-willed people who worked best alone (Mantle, 2001). They pursued their one interest and had a deep understanding of themselves. They prided themselves on being independent and original, and they tended to stand out from the crowd without even trying.

According to Henschke (1987), adult learning techniques included: lecture, motion picture and slides, assigned or suggested reading material, audiocassettes, demonstration, case study, group discussion, simulation, huddle groups, teaching/learning team, and buzz groups. To increase the interaction and enrich the internalizing of the information presented, Henschke (2013) added listening groups as one of the learning domains. The purpose would be to listen to the lecture for ideas (a) they wished clarified, (b) they wanted to take issue with, (c) they wanted to have elaborated, and (d) problems of practical application. After the lecture, each group got together to develop their questions.

***Fifth building block: Implementing the prepared plan*.** The fifth and final step of conducting a program was implementing the prepared plan. This was the most crucial part of the process. It seemed that this step could not be directly taught. It was not readily articulated, openly expressed, or stated. It was unspecifiable. Henschke (2013) confirmed that implementation was the creation of a climate which nurtured the seeds of adult learning into a glorious flower that flourished. It was practical intelligence, practical reasoning, and practice of the art of teaching adults, which was different from talking about the rules of adult education. It was not just talking about adult education; it was doing adult education and doing it well. This came from following our inner sense, honing the skill, and practice, practice, practice, until it was refined, like a costly and precious gem.

Servant Leadership Theory

Of the various leadership styles, no other leadership style had a deeper or stronger historical base than servant leadership. The philosophical foundation of servant

leadership existed thousands of years ago, and flowed against the grain of self-interest human behavior (Brewer, 2010).

History and definition of servant leadership. Servant leadership theory was broadly known by the original writing essays of Greenleaf in the 1960s. However, the concept of servant leadership could be traced through passages dating back to the 4th century B.C., most notably those documented from Lao-Tzu who lived in China in 570 B.C. Lao-Tzu was a Chinese philosopher who was deeply influential; his teachings of servant hood were aligned with rescuing society from moral decay (Brewer, 2010).

Five decades previous to this writing, the tumultuous 1960s birthed the concept of servant leadership and brought this unique leadership style to the forefront. The forefather of servant leadership was a popular essayist and management researcher, Robert Greenleaf. The concept of servant leadership emerged broadly in the 1960s after Greenleaf read Hesse's short novel about *Journey to the East*. He realized that the most effective leaders were those who desired to help others (as cited in Spears, 2005). Greenleaf defined servant leadership as the act of leaders who served others first; then, the conscious choice brought one to aspire to lead. It began with the natural feeling that one wanted to serve first.

Greenleaf (1977) ascertained that servant leaders were sharply different from those who became leaders first, perhaps because of the need to assuage an unusual power drive or to acquire material possessions. He added that the leader-first and the servant-first were two extreme types. Between them were shadings and blends that were part of the infinite variety of human nature. The difference manifested itself in the care taken by

the servant-first to make sure that other peoples' highest priority needs were being served (Greenleaf, 1977).

Characteristics of servant leaders. Spears (2005) pinpointed 10 characteristics of the servant leaders, after some years of his careful observation and consideration of Greenleaf's (1977) original writings.

The first characteristic of servant leaders was listening (Spears, 2005). Servant leaders were generally recognized and valued for their communication and decision-making skills. Listening helped leaders to identify the will of a group and also encompassed getting in touch with one's own inner voice. Leaders who listened more would be able to understand what one's body, spirit, and mind were communicating; as a result, the leaders could use reflection for further growth.

Second, servant leaders felt empathy for others (Spears, 2005). They strove to understand that people needed to be accepted and recognized in society. They assumed the good intentions of co-workers and did not reject them as people, even though they did not fully agree with their co-workers' behavior and performance at work. Those who became empathetic listeners would make successful servant leaders.

Third, servant leaders learned to heal themselves and others (Spears, 2005). There was no denying that many people had broken spirits and suffered from a variety of social and emotional hurts. Servant leaders understood this veracity and recognized that they had an opportunity to 'help make whole' those with whom they come in contact.

Fourth, servant leaders had both self-awareness and general awareness (Spears, 2005). Awareness aided one in understanding issues involving ethics and values. It lent itself to being able to view most situations from a more integrated and holistic position.

Fifth, another characteristic of servant leaders was a primary reliance on persuasion, rather than using one's positional authority in making decisions within an organization. The servant leaders preferred convincing others over coercing compliance (Spears, 2005).

Sixth, servant leaders sought to nurture their abilities to dream big. They had the ability to look at a problem from a conceptualizing perspective, which meant they thought beyond day-to-day realities (Spears, 2005).

Seventh, foresight was a characteristic that enabled the servant leaders to understand the lessons from the past. This characteristic included the realities in the present and the possibility of a decision for the future (Spears, 2005).

Eighth, servant leaders assumed, first and foremost, a commitment to serving the needs of others. They preferred the use of openness and persuasion to controlling others (Spears, 2005).

Ninth, servant leaders had commitment to grow people. They believed that every individual had an intrinsic value beyond the tangible contributions as workers. Servant leaders used their power to nurture the personal, professional, and spiritual growth of employees. They, indeed, encouraged, empowered and supported the growth of their co-workers (Spears, 2005).

Tenth, servant leaders sensed that much had been lost in then-recent human history, as a result of the shift from local community to large institutions as the primary shaper of human lives. They sought to build community among those who worked within a given institution (Spears, 2005).

Servant leadership and job satisfaction. Greenleaf (1977) paired the term 'servant' to 'leader' in order to prompt new insights into leadership style. The hallmark of servant leadership was delineated through the act of guidance, empowerment, and a culture of trust. Huselid and Becker conducted research with over 1,500 firms from various industries by applying data from the United States Department of Labor. They came up with the assumption that servant leadership practices improved employee retention, increased productivity, and elevated the company's market value $78, 000 per employee (as cited in Blanchard, 2007).

Job satisfaction was measured by true enjoyment of work and the good compensation offered by the organization and/or institution (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951). The research results revealed that there was a direct link between servant leadership and follower job satisfaction. The findings supported theoretical work, which suggested leaders play a pivotal role in satisfying needs, a precursor to job satisfaction. The major reason for this was that the servant leaders expressed a better understanding of the attitudinal and motivational demands that followers needed.

Emotional Leadership Theory

Leadership was generally known as a process of engaging people and motivating people with the mobilizing of the necessary resources to accomplish a certain set goals of the organization. It was all about influencing people (Yukl, 2006). Emotional leadership was a process that leaders used to influence their followers towards a common goal. Lynch (2016a) stated that emotional leadership was concerned with the feelings and motivations of followers. It took the focus completely to the other side of the spectrum —

demanding that leaders be emotionally intelligent themselves and then motivate others through the use of their own emotional intelligence.

Obama (2016) emphasized that a leader's mood or emotions had an effect on the group in three major ways. First, leaders could influence their followers through the mechanism of 'emotional contagion' (Obama (2016). Those in an optimistic mood could affect their group in a positive way by instilling a positive outlook. For instance, a charismatic leader could inspire the feelings of confidence in a group's ability to achieve challenging goals.

Second, a group affective tone referred to the collective mood of individuals. The leaders who led groups with a positive mood would achieve a better leading outcome compared to those who led groups with the opposite (Obama, 2016). The perceived efficacy of group processes, such as coordination, collaborative effort, and task strategy, could also affect the emotion of followers.

Third, a public expression of mood, affected how group members thought and acted in relation to other group members (Obama, 2016). For example, the leaders acknowledged solid progress toward goals when they demonstrated positive emotions, such as happiness or satisfaction (Obama, 2016).

History and definition of emotional intelligence. The concept of emotional intelligence (EQ) was coined in 1990 by the work and writings of psychologists Gardner (Harvard), Salovey (Yale), and Mayer (New Hampshire). They described EQ as a form of social intelligence that involved the ability to monitor one's own, and others' feelings, as well as emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use the essential information to guide one's thinking and action.

The significance of EQ was explored through research conducted by Mayer and Salovey (1995) on EQ principles. The research results indicated that EQ principles offered a new way to understand and assess peoples' behaviors, management styles, attitudes, interpersonal skills, and potential. The findings also confirmed that individuals who scored higher in the ability to perceive accurately, understand, and appraise others' emotions, were better able to respond to the changes in their social environment and build supportive social networks (Mayer & Salovey, 1995).

Mayer and Salovey (1995) further defined EQ as the ability to perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions, so as to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to reflectively regulate emotions, so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth. Goleman (1996) ascertained that EQ was the ability to recognize, understand, and manage one's own emotion and the capacity to recognize, understand, and influence the emotions of others.

Five components of emotional intelligence. Goleman (1998) introduced five main elements of EQ. The first, self-awareness, referred to understanding and recognizing personal moods and emotions, as well as their effect on others (Goleman, 1998). Some examples of self-awareness were (a) self-confidence (sureness about one's self worth and capabilities), (b) emotional awareness (recognizing one's emotions and their effects), and (c) realistic self-assessment (knowing one's strengths and limits) (Goleman, 1998).

The second, self-regulation, meant the ability to manage one's internal states, impulses, and resources (Goleman, 1998). This included (a) self-control (managing disruptive emotions and impulses), (b) trustworthiness (maintaining standards of honesty

and integrity), (c) conscientiousness (taking responsibility for personal performance), (d) adaptability (flexibility in handling change), and (e) innovation (being comfortable with and open to novel ideas, approaches, and new information) (Goleman, 1998).

The third component of EQ was internal motivation (Goleman, 1998). This referred to emotional tendencies that guided or facilitated reaching goals, and they went beyond money and status. Internal motivation included (a) achievement driven (striving to improve or meet a standard of excellence), (b) commitment (aligning with the goals of the group or organization), (c) optimism (persistence in pursuing goals despite obstacles and setbacks), and (d) initiative (readiness to act on opportunities) (Goleman, 1998).

The fourth, empathy, was another component of EQ (Goleman, 1998). It was the ability to understand the emotional makeup of other people. Empathy referred to the awareness of others' feelings, needs, and concerns. Examples of empathy were (a) understanding others (sensing others' feelings and perspective and taking an active interest in their concerns); (b) service orientation (anticipating, recognizing, and meeting customers' needs); (c) developing others (sensing what others need in order to develop, and bolstering their abilities); (d) leveraging diversity (cultivating opportunities through diverse people); and (e) political awareness (reading a group's emotional currents and power relationships) (Goleman, 1998).

The fifth, social skills component, was defined as proficiency in building networks and the ability to manage relationships with others (Goleman, 1998). Examples of social skills included (a) influence (wielding effective tactics for persuasion); (b) leadership (inspiring and guiding groups of people); (c) change catalyst (initiating or managing change); (d) communication (sending clear and convincing messages); (e)

conflict management (negotiating and resolving disagreements); (f) building bonds (nurturing instrumental relationships); (g) team capabilities (creating group synergy in pursuing collective goals); and (h) collaboration and cooperation (working with others toward shared goals) (Goleman, 1998).

Transformational Leadership Theory

Burns (1978) emphasized that transforming leadership focused on redesigning perceptions and values. This kind of leadership changed the expectations and aspirations of employees, which led to the significant changes in the lives of people and organizations.

History and definition of transformational leadership. The concept of transforming leadership was first introduced by Burns, in 1978, via his descriptive research on political leaders. He described transformational leadership as a process in which the leaders and followers helped each other to achieve organizational goals with morale and motivation.

The evolution of the concept happened when Bass (1998) explained the psychological mechanisms that underlie transforming leadership, and he used the term ‘transformational’ instead of ‘transforming.’ Bass (1998) affirmed that the leader was transformational only when he or she had significant influence on the followers. Transformational leaders worked harder than originally expected to earn: trust, admiration, loyalty, and respect from their followers. Such a leader would encourage a positive change in the employees by giving an opportunity to the followers to come up with new ideas and/or unique ways to challenge the status quo and to alter the environment to support the success of organization.

Bass (1998) introduced the four elements of transformational leadership in the full range of leadership. The first element of transformational leadership was individual consideration (Bass, 1998). This referred to the degree in which the leader acted as a mentor or coach to the followers, listened to the concerns and needs of the followers, and helped them achieve their needs. In this, the leader gave empathy and support, so that the followers were inspired toward self-development and had intrinsic motivation for their tasks.

The second element of transformational leadership was intellectual stimulation — this referred to the degree in which the leader challenged assumptions, took risks, and solicited followers' ideas (Bass, 1998). The leader in this would encourage the followers to be more creative, so that the followers asked more questions, thought deeply about things, and discovered the better ways to deal with the responsible tasks.

The third element of a transformational leader was inspirational motivation (Bass, 1998). It referred to the degree in which the leader articulated a vision that was appealing and inspiring to the followers. The leader ensured that the vision was understandable, and he or she provided meaning for the task at hand, challenged followers with high standards, and communicated optimism about future goals.

The fourth element of a transformational leader was influence (Bass, 1998). This referred to the degree in which the leader exemplified a high, ethical behavior, instilled pride, and gained respect and trust.

Characteristics of transformational leaders. Traditionally, transformational leadership was implemented by all kinds of leaders in both education and business sectors. It was believed to be only leadership theory that took a broad view of the issues

surrounding leadership and then used those as a driving force for meeting the overall goals of the organization (Lynch, 2016a).

Hugg (2015) discovered 10 characteristics of effective transformational leaders in the organization. He believed that being an effective leader was not enough – he or she had to be an effective transformational leader who could lead changes successfully in an organization.

The first characteristic of transformational leaders included internal motivation and self-management (Hugg, 2015). Transformational leaders managed a company's direction using motivation from within. The best, natural form of motivation derived from the love of what one does and the recognition that one's values do matter and are aligned with the organization they work for.

Second, transformational leaders had an ability to make difficult decisions effectively (Hugg, 2015). They were not indecisive when it came to the decision-making process, and they believed that difficult decisions were made easier when decisions aligned with clearly defined vision, values, goals, and objectives.

Third, transformational leaders usually checked their ego. They did not let their ego get in the way of doing what was best for business (Hugg, 2015). Also, they ensure they put the company first over personal gain, and they encourage the best input from others within the organization.

Fourth, transformational leaders were willing to take the right risks (Hugg, 2015). They gathered essential information and intelligence from their team before making any decision that involved taking risks.

Fifth, transformational leaders shared the collective conscious of their organization (Hugg, 2015). They knew what actions needed to be taken in order to evoke change, spur innovation, and make decisions that fabricated growth.

Sixth, transformational leaders felt positive when it came to adaptability in a constantly changing business environment (Hugg, 2015). They were lifelong learners who were willing to change themselves to ensure they were not passed by their competitors.

Seventh, transformational leaders were willing to listen and entertain new ideas (Hugg, 2015). They valued the ideas from team effort, and they created intentional ways to listen carefully, so they could incorporate the insights from their teams.

Eighth, transformational leaders understood that every individual wanted to be inspired, and they knew they had the capacity to make those around rise to the occasion (Hugg, 2015). They would deliver motivational speeches or simply recognize the employees' outcome to inspire the successful team work within the organization.

Ninth, transformational leaders were proactive decision makers (Hugg, 2015). They dared to take calculated risk, try new things, and take an innovative approach to grow their organizations. However, they were mindful of the consequences resulting from their decision makings — they generally conducted research to gain multiple insights before making decisions that impacted the future of their employees and organizations.

Tenth, transformational leaders were visionaries (Hugg, 2015). They set a realistic and concise company mission, vision, and values and made sure those goals were aligned with the culture of the organization. Transformational leaders had the ability to also

engage people into the process of organizational development and clearly communicated organizational needs for sustainable development with all the employees through effective communication.

Five Levels of Leadership Theory

Every organization in a fast-changing world goes through various kinds of leadership practices, though each organization is based significantly on different specific goals, missions, visions, and values. Several authors and scholars in the educational and business fields indicated a series of leadership theories and concepts when it came to organizational development and sustainability. Maxwell (2013) summarized five levels of leadership, which he believed to be the driving force of organizational movement toward its goals. He pinpointed the specific details in each leadership level as practiced by the leaders in the organization.

First of all, position was the first level of leadership, as mentioned by Maxwell (2013). Position was viewed as the lowest level of leadership; it allowed the leaders to have the right to lead the organization. In this level, people followed the leaders because they had to; as a result, the leaders in this level would have subordinates but not team members. These leaders relied entirely on rules, regulations, polices, and organization charts to control their people; they found many difficulties in working with volunteers, younger people, and the highly educated. There was no effort needed to achieve this level of leadership — anyone could be appointed a position.

The second level of leadership was permission (Maxwell, 2013). Every leader in this level based their leadership practice entirely on relationships. They believed that people followed them because they wanted to; they knew how to treat people like

individuals, and they began to develop trust and influences on their people. They would first figure out who their people were, build solid and lasting relationships, and get along with all of their people. They believed that a leader could not lead people well without liking them.

The third level of leadership was production (Maxwell, 2013). Effective leaders did not just establish a positive working environment, but they did get things done. The leaders in this level focused mainly on producing results. They believed that leaders gain influence and credibility from people because of what they have done for the organization. At this level, leaders become change agents. They were open to new ideas and perceptions from all the generations who were willing to share; they tackled tough problems, faced thorny issues, and made difficult decisions that would cultivate a difference. The leaders in this level knew how to take people to the next level of effectiveness.

The fourth level of leadership was people development (Maxwell, 2013). Leaders became great, not because of their power, but because of their ability to empower others. Level four leaders reproduced themselves— they used their positions, relationships, and productivity to invest in their followers and develop them until those followers became leaders in their own right. Maxwell (2013) said, the production may win games, but development wins championships. The leaders in this level believed that a high investment in people deepened relationships, helped people know one another better, and strengthened loyalty. These leaders changed the lives of people they led, and they produced lifelong relationships with their followers, since people would follow them because of what their leaders did for them personally.

Pinnacle was the fifth level of leadership (Maxwell, 2013). This was the highest and most difficult level of leadership. Maxwell added that levels one to four could be learned, while level five required not only effort, skill, and intentionality, but also a high level of talent. It was believed that only naturally gifted leaders ever made it to this level, since it took so much more than work and simply leading followers. The leaders in this level were able to develop other leaders to become level four leaders.

Maxwell (2013) affirmed that it really took time for leaders to climb from one level to another, and they had to practice over and over again if there was any error in the leadership practices and processes in a particular level. In other words, the level five leaders in one organization had to start over from level one if they decided to quit their job in that organization and start working for the new organization. In addition, the level five leader needed to maintain their leadership practices in order to ensure the sustainability of their leadership level in the organization.

Four Competencies of Leadership

The concept of four competencies of leadership emerged from the research conducted by Bennis (1984), who had traveled around the United States to learn from 90 of the most effective, successful leaders in the nation, 60 from corporations, and 30 from the public sector. Bennis (1984) explained that leaders were people who did the right thing, while managers were those who did things right. He emphasized that both roles were crucial, and they differed profoundly. He raised the concern of the issue that most U.S. organizations were under led and over managed. He put the blame on the school system that mainly taught people how to be good technicians and good staff people, while they did not train people for leadership.

After several years of observation and conversation, Bennis (1984) defined four competencies of leadership as management of attention, management of meaning, management of trust, and management of self. First of all, management of attention referred to the leaders who had the ability to communicate an extra ordinary focus of commitment, attracting people to join in and enroll in their vision (Bennis, 1984). These leaders then managed their attention through a compelling vision that brought others to a place they had not been before.

The second leadership competency was the management of meaning (Bennis, 1984). These leaders understood that communication and alignment worked collaboratively together. They knew how to make dreams apparent to others, and they communicated their vision to align people with them. Simply put, the leaders' goal was not merely explanation or clarification, but the creation of meaning. It was not enough to use the right buzz word or a cute technique, or to hire a public relations person to write speeches, but the ability to manage attention and meaning came from the whole person. Effective leaders could communicate ideas through several organizational layers, across great distances, and even communicate through the jamming signals of special interest groups and opponents.

The third leadership competency was the management of trust (Bennis, 1984). Trust was crucial to all organizations, since it was known as the best way to communicate and build a good relationship between employer and employees within the organization. A recent study on leadership showed that people would much rather follow individuals they can count on, even when they disagreed with their viewpoint, than people they

agreed with, but who shifted positions frequently. Constancy and focus played a major role in promoting trust within the organization.

The fourth competency of leadership was the management of self — knowing one's skills and developing them effectively (Bennis, 1984). Without the management of self, leaders and managers could do more harm than good. Leaders who knew themselves were able to enhance their strengths and nurture them in the right ways. The Wallenda Factor became an approach to life, and went beyond leadership and power in organization. Wallenda put all his energies into not falling rather than walking the tightrope. His decision was such a thought-provoking message to all the leaders in every organization around the globe. He recommended that every leader should focus on the issues and/or failures or the activities and/or responsibilities they were performing (as cited by Bennis, 1984).

Summary

First of all, Chapter Two covered an overview of (a) international student mobility, (b) demographic information of international students in the United States, (c) reasons for studying in the United States, (d) international students' challenges and adjustment to U.S. colleges and/or universities, and (e) international students' satisfaction in academic experiences at U.S. colleges and/or universities;

In addition, Chapter Two also described andragogy and leadership theories that were implemented by effective teachers and leaders in adult classrooms and organizations/institutions respectively. This section included (a) history of andragogy theory — six assumptions of adult learning characteristics, eight components of andragogical process design, and five building blocks in adult learning foundation; (b)

servant leadership theory — history and definition of servant leadership, characteristics of servant leaders and servant leadership, and job satisfaction; (c) emotional leadership theory — history and definition of emotional intelligence and five components of emotional intelligence; (d) transformation leadership theory — history and definition of transformation leadership and characteristics of transformational leaders; (e) five levels of leadership; and (f) four competencies of leadership.

There was much research conducted on international students' issues, according to the literature review; however, none had delineated the best practice of teacher leadership in the classroom as the method of addressing international students' learning needs and satisfaction. This research was purposefully initiated to fill the gap of previous research by bringing international students' issues in the classroom on the table, figuring out the relationship between international students and their teachers' perceptions of teachers as leaders in classroom, and pinpointing the appropriate guidelines for U.S. teacher leaders in adult classrooms to enhance international undergraduates' satisfaction.

To enable success in this research, the researcher borrowed the concept of andragogy (the arts and sciences of helping adults learn) and leadership practices from Malcolm S. Knowles, John A. Henschke, Robert Greenleaf, John Maxwell, and other scholars whose research and practices were related to the effective teachers and leaders. Chapter Two, as a result, lent its own body also to the literature review on andragogy, servant leadership, emotional leadership, transformational leadership, five levels of leadership, and four competencies of leadership theories. The Chapter Three opens the session of research methodology, in which the researcher introduces the phases of

research and how they were conducted accordingly, using focus group discussion, online surveys, and in-depth interviews to address each research question respectively.

Chapter Three: Methodology

The purpose of this study was to explore the issues that international undergraduates faced during academic experiences at U.S. colleges and/or universities, enhance comprehensive knowledge of the relationship between U.S. professors and international undergraduates, and to use the study results to propose appropriate guidelines of teacher leadership in classrooms; including professor beliefs, feelings, and behaviors, which could enhance international undergraduate satisfaction in learning experiences at U.S. colleges and/or universities.

The proposed Guidelines for U.S. Teacher Leaders in Adult Classrooms to Enhance International Undergraduate Satisfaction were processed under the approach of qualitative research. The research methodology was divided into two main parts. Part one included the population and research instruments, and part two focused on data collection and techniques used in data analysis.

Research Questions

This research investigated the following research questions:

1) What issues do the international undergraduates face during academic experiences at U.S. colleges and/or universities?
2) What is the extent of congruency between international undergraduate professors' perceptions and international undergraduate students' perceptions of professor practices and leadership in the classroom as measured by survey results?
3) What guidelines may be proposed for U.S. teacher leaders in adult classrooms to enhance undergraduate satisfaction with the learning experiences at U.S. colleges and/or universities?

Population and Research Instruments

According to the Office of International Students and Scholars (2016), Lindenwood University, Saint Charles, hosted 790 international undergraduate students in Fall 2016. The researcher used a convenience sampling as the sampling method to select 14 international undergraduate students at Lindenwood University to participate in a focus group discussion to study the issues that they encountered as international students in U.S. classrooms.

Additionally, 70 international undergraduate students and five of their professors at Lindenwood University were selected, through the same sampling method, in order to participate in online survey, so the researcher could observe the relationship between teachers and international undergraduate students, as measured by the extent of congruency between international undergraduate students' and their teachers' perceptions of teachers' practices and leadership in the classrooms. The researcher, in addition, used purposive sampling to select seven experts to participate in in-depth interviews in order to evaluate, as well as provide constructive comments on the proposed Guidelines for U.S. Teacher Leaders in Adult Classrooms. In the in-depth interviews, there were two professors selected from the andragogy major, two professors from the Educational Leadership Department, one professor of international undergraduate students, the Director of the Office of International Students and Scholars, and the Vice President for Student Development and Global Affairs at Lindenwood University, Saint Charles, Missouri, USA.

The researcher used three major research instruments for data collection with both international undergraduate students and their teachers at Lindenwood University.

Research instrument one: Guidelines for focus group discussion. The purpose of this focus group discussion was to explore the issues that international undergraduate students faced in U.S. classrooms. The 15 questions that the researcher used in the focus group discussion mainly focused on (a) international undergraduate student educational background, (b) academic life experiences of international undergraduate students in the United States, (c) international undergraduate students' understanding of teacher leadership in classrooms, and (d) international undergraduate students' experiences in U.S. classrooms.

Research instrument two: Modified Instructional Perspective Inventory (MIPI) [International undergraduate student & professor versions]. The researcher used an adapted version of Instructional Perspective Inventory (IPI), which was developed by Henschke in 1989. IPI was composed of 45 questions and developed into a Likert-type scale. Each question was a question in the format of 'How frequently do you . . .?' The answer to each item consisted of four choices — Never, Rarely, Sometimes, and Often.

IPI was designed to answer the question of what beliefs, feelings, and behaviors adult educators needed to possess to practice in the emerging field of adult education. Some steps toward that goal included: emphasis on the teacher's personal and contextual identification, actions in the classrooms, competencies in the classrooms, philosophical beliefs for guiding practice, developing items to be included, gathering data from specific groups of adult educators, and conducting two-factor analyses, along with refining the instrument between the two analyses.

To broaden the use of this IPI in educational research, this instrument was adapted to MIPI and used in 24 doctoral dissertations in various colleges and universities in the United States. MIPI was adapted to serve various purposes of research in the education field; however, the 45 questions remained the same to measure the application of the seven factors, which included (a) teacher empathy with learners, (b) teacher trust of learners, (c) planning and delivery of instruction, (d) accommodating learner uniqueness, (e) teacher insensitivity toward learners, (f) learner-centered learning processes, and (g) teacher-centered learning processes. All questions were placed into a Likert-type scale. Each question began with 'How frequently do you . . .;' however, the answer to each item consisted of five choices — Almost Never, Not Often, Sometimes, Usually, and Almost Always.

***Reliability and validity of MIPI*.** This instrument was used in 24 doctoral dissertations in education fields at colleges and universities in the United States. This indicated that this research instrument was trustworthy in regarding to the issue of validity and reliability. MIPI was validated three times in three dissertations, conducted by Stanton (2005), Moehl (2011), and Vatcharasirisook (2011).

First of all, the reliability of the MIPI is illustrated in Table 2. Stanton's (2005) research indicated the following result of MIPI's internal consistency.

Table 2

Reliability of MIPI in Stanton's Research

Instructional perspective inventory [IPI] and the seven factors	Alpha	Internal consistency level
IPI	0.88	Almost perfect
Teacher empathy with learners	0.63	Substantial
Teacher trust of learners	0.81	Almost perfect
Planning & delivery of instruction	0.72	Substantial
Accommodating learner uniqueness	0.71	Substantial
Teacher insensitivity toward learners	0.78	Substantial
Learner-centered learning processes	0.72	Substantial
Teacher-centered learning processes	0.58	Moderate

Second, Cronbach's alpha coefficient was used to check the internal consistency of the Modified Instructional Perspectives Inventory in Moehl's research in 2011. Table 3 for the summary of Cronbach's alpha, which measured two separate sets of analyses — one set included all 426 cases, while the other set excluded the 32 cases missing the number of years teaching.

There were no material differences between the two sets. Ideally, the Cronbach alpha coefficient of a scale should be above 0.7. At 0.90, the Overall Instructional Perspectives Inventory clearly demonstrated internal consistency reliability.

Third, Vatcharasirisook (2011) ascertained the validity of IPI within her research on organizational learning and employee retention via Cronbach's alpha test of reliability (Table 4).

Table 3

Reliability of MIPI in Moehl's Research

Summary of Cronbach alpha	426 cases	394 cases
IPI factor #1: Teacher Empathy with Learners	0.70	0.69
IPI factor #2: Teacher Trust of Learners	0.85	0.85
IPI factor #3: Planning & Delivery of Instruction	0.75	0.75
IPI factor #4: Accommodating Learner Uniqueness	0.72	0.72
IPI factor #5: Teacher Insensitivity Toward Learners	0.70	0.70
IPI factor #6: Learner-Centered Learning Processes	0.70	0.68
IPI factor #7: Teacher-Centered Teaching Processes	0.64	0.65
Overall Instructional Perspectives Inventory	0.90	0.90

Table 4

Reliability of MIPI in Vatcharasirisook's research

Subscale	Cronbach's alpha
Supervisor empathy with subordinates	0.83
Supervisor trust of subordinates	0.86
Planning and delivery of instruction	0.79
Accommodating subordinate uniqueness	0.79
Supervisor insensitivity toward subordinates	0.74
Subordinate-centered learning processes	0.76
Supervisor-centered learning processes	0.71
Employee's job satisfaction	0.79
Employee's intention to remain in the company	0.85

According to the measurement of reliability of MIPI in these three dissertations, trust was seen as the top standing factor, which made the reliability of MIPI trustworthy.

Additionally, Vatcharasirisook (2011) confirmed the validity of MIPI via factor analysis results (Table 5 through Table 11).

Table 5

Factor one: supervisor empathy with subordinates

Item	Factor Loading
Item 4	0.705
Item 12	0.762
Item 19	0.79
Item 26	0.811
Item 33	0.780

The prompts for each item in Table 5 were:

Item 4: Feel fully prepared to teach?

Item 12: Notice and acknowledge to learners' positive changes in them?

Item 19: Balance your efforts between learner content acquisition and motivation?

Item 26: Express appreciation to learners who actively participate?

Item 33: Express appreciation to learners who actively participate?

Table 6

Factor two: supervisor trust of subordinates

Item	Factor loading
Item 7	0.552
Item 8	0.688
Item 16	0.631
Item 28	0.683
Item 29	0.455
Item 30	0.675
Item 31	0.773
Item 39	0.699
Item 43	0.777
Item 44	0.788
Item 45	0.767

The prompts for each item in Table 6 were:

Item 7: Purposefully communicate to learners that each is uniquely important?

Item 8: Express confidence that learners will develop the skills they need?

Item 16: Trust learners to know their own goals, dreams, and realities are like?

Item 28: Prize the learner's ability to learn what is needed?

Item 29: Feel learners need to be aware of and communicate their thoughts and feelings?

Item 30: Enable learners to evaluate their own progress in learning?

Item 31: Hear what learners indicate their learning needs are like?

Item 39: Engage learners in clarifying their own aspirations?

Item 43: Develop supportive relationships with your learners?

Item 44: Experience unconditional positive regard for your learners?

Item 45: Respect the dignity and integrity of the learners?

Table 7

Factor three: planning and delivery of instruction

Item	Factor loading
Item 1	0.739
Item 9	0.757
Item 22	0.753
Item 23	0.707
Item 42	0.767

The prompts for each item in Table 7 were:

Item 1: Use a variety of teaching techniques?

Item 9: Search for or create teaching?

Item 22: Establish instructional objectives?

Item 23: Use a variety of instructional media? (Internet, distance, interactive video, videos, etc.)

Item 42: Integrate teaching techniques with subject matter content?

Table 8

Factor four: accommodating subordinate uniqueness

Item	Factor loading
Item 6	0.695
Item 14	0.684
Item 15	0.706
Item 17	0.702
Item 38	0.700
Item 40	0.711

The prompts for each item in Table 8 were:

Item 6: Expect and accept learner frustration as they grapple with problems?

Item 14: Believe that learners vary in the way they acquire, process, and apply subject matter knowledge?

Item 15: Really listen to what learners have to say?

Item 17: Encourage learners to solicit assistance from other learners?

Item 38: Help learners explore their own abilities?

Item 40: Ask the learners how they would approach a learning task?

Table 9

Factor five: supervisor insensitivity toward subordinates

Item	Factor loading
Item 13	0.584
Item 18	0.523
Item 27	0.621
Item 32	0.729
Item 36	0.760
Item 41	0.716

The prompts for each item in Table 9 were:

Item 13: Have difficulty getting your point across to learners?

Item 18: Feel impatient with learner's progress?

Item 27: Experience frustration with learner apathy?

Item 32: Have difficulty with the amount of time learners need to grasp various concepts?

Item 36: Get bored with the many questions learners ask?

Item 41: Feel irritation at learner inattentiveness in the learning setting?

Table 10

Factor six: subordinate-centered learning processes

Item	Factor loading
Item 2	0.719
Item 10	0.673
Item 21	0.775
Item 24	0.768
Item 35	0.630

The prompts for each item in Table 10 were:

Item 2: Use buzz groups (learners placed groups to discuss)?

Item 10: Teach through simulations of real-life?

Item 21: Conduct group discussions?

Item 24: Use listening learns (learners grouped together to listen for a specific purpose) during lectures?

Item 35: Conduct role plays?

Table 11

Factor seven: supervisor-centered learning processes

Item	Factor loading
Item 3	0.716
Item 11	0.706
Item 20	0.770
Item 25	0.732
Item 34	0.448

The prompts for each item in Table 11 were:

Item 3: Believe that your primary goal is to provide learners as much information as possible?

Item 11: Teach exactly what and how you have planned?

Item 20: Try to make your presentations clear enough to forestall all learner questions?

Item 25: Believe that your teaching skills are as refined as they can be?

Item 34: Require learners to follow the precise learning experiences you provide them?

In this research, MIPI was used with both international undergraduate students and their professors with the purpose of figuring out the relationship between professors and international undergraduate students, as measured by the extent of congruency between professors and international undergraduate students at Lindenwood University online survey results. Plainly put, the purpose of MIPI (international undergraduate student version) was to study the perceptions of international undergraduate students toward their professors' beliefs, feelings, and behaviors on international students in U.S. classrooms.

Furthermore, MIPI (professor version) was employed to measure the beliefs, feelings, and behaviors of U.S. professors toward international undergraduate students in their classrooms. Originally, MIPI was arranged on a four-point Likert scale: never, rarely, sometimes, and often; and, the scale consisted of 45 items. The survey was built around seven factors (a) teacher empathy with learners, (b) teacher trust of learners, (c) planning and delivery of instruction, (d) accommodating learner uniqueness, (e) teacher insensitivity toward learners, (f) learner-centered learning processes, and (g) teacher-centered learning processes (Table 12).

Table 12

Items constituting the seven factors of the instructional perspectives instrument

Seven factors under IPI	IPI items
1. Supervisor *empathy* with subordinates	4, 12, 19, 26, 33
2. Supervisor *trust of* subordinates	7, 8, 16, 28, 29, 30, 31, 39, 43, 44, 45
3. *Planning and delivery* of instruction	1, 9, 22, 23, 42
4. *Accommodating* learner uniqueness	6, 14, 15, 17, 37, 38, 40
5. Supervisor *insensitivity* to subordinates	5, 13, 18, 27, 32, 36, 41
6. *Subordinate-centered* learning processes (*Experience-based* learning techniques)	2, 10, 21, 24, 35
7. *Supervisor-centered* learning processes	3, 11, 20, 25, 34

Research instrument three: Guidelines for in-depth interview. After gathering the information regarding international undergraduate students' issues in U.S. classrooms and the relationship between international undergraduate students and their U.S. professors, the researcher portrayed the proposed Guidelines for U.S. Teacher Leaders in Adult Classrooms to Enhance International Undergraduate Satisfaction. The guidelines consisted of (a) professors' beliefs in international undergraduate students, (b) application of professors' behaviors resulting from professors' beliefs in international undergraduate students, (c) professors' feelings toward international undergraduate students, (d)

application of professors' behaviors resulting from professors' feelings of international undergraduate students, and (e) application of professors' behaviors toward international undergraduate students.

Seven experts participated in an in-depth interview in order to evaluate and give constructive feedback on the proposed guidelines. Two of the selected experts were andragogy professors, two professors were selected from the Educational Leadership Department, one was a professor of international undergraduate students, one was Director of the Office of International Students and Scholars, and another was the Vice President for Student Development and Global Affairs at Lindenwood University.

The purposes of designing guidelines for in-depth interview were (a) to present the research findings on "Guidelines for U.S. Teacher Leaders in Adult Classrooms to Enhance International Undergraduate Satisfaction" to the invited experts from the Andragogy Department, Educational Leadership Department, and Higher Education Department; and (b) to request opinions and suggestions from invited experts on research findings to help improve the better quality of the proposed guidelines.

Data Collection and Techniques Used in Data Analysis

Data collection was divided into three major phases, as follows.

Phase one. The focus group discussion was conducted on September 28, 2016, with 14 international undergraduate students from 10 countries, which included Aruba, Venezuela, Mongolia, Taiwan, Ecuador, Tunisia, Vietnam, China, Panama, and Thailand.

The researcher used an open-coding technique to analyze the data gained from the focus group discussion with international undergraduate students at Lindenwood University in Fall 2016.

Phase two. The researcher spent five months collecting responses from 70 international undergraduate students and five of their teachers at Lindenwood University in Fall 2016. The process was started in May 2016 and ended in September 2016.

The researcher used descriptive statistical analysis to analyze the results gained from the online survey using MIPI, which focused on seven factors and included (a) teacher empathy with learners, (b) teacher trust of learners, (c) planning and delivery of instruction, (d) accommodating learner uniqueness, (e) teacher insensitivity toward learners, (f) learner-centered processes, and (g) and teacher-centered processes. In addition, the survey results were analyzed using andragogical principles category levels (Table 13).

Table 13

Andragogical principles category levels

Category levels	Percentage	MIPI score
High above average	89%–100%	225–199
Above average	88%–82%	195–185
Average	81%–66%	184–149
Below average	65%–55%	148–124
Low below average	54%	<123

Phase three. The researcher combined the results gained from the focus group discussion and online survey with international undergraduate students and their professors at Lindenwood University. The researcher then used content analysis to analyze the combined results with a purpose of portraying the proposed Guidelines for U.S. Teacher Leaders in Adult Classrooms to Enhance International Undergraduate Satisfaction.

The researcher spent exactly one month conducting the in-depth interviews with seven experts: two were andragogy majors, two from the Educational Leadership Department, one was the professor of international undergraduate students, one was the Director of the Office of International Students and Scholars, and another was the Vice President for Student Development and Global Affairs at Lindenwood University.

The researcher provided the proposed guidelines to selected experts one week prior to the meeting. The proposed guidelines consisted of (a) professors' beliefs in international undergraduate students, (b) application of professors' behaviors resulting from professors' beliefs in international undergraduate students, (c) professors' feeling toward international undergraduate students, (d) application of professors' behaviors resulting from professors' feeling of international undergraduate students, and (e) application of professors' behaviors toward international undergraduate students.

As a result, the researcher gained fruitful feedback and additional delightful insights for the development of the more appropriate guidelines for U.S. Teacher Leaders in Adult Classrooms to Enhance International Undergraduate Satisfaction in learning experiences at U.S. colleges and/or universities.

Summary

The research on proposed "Guidelines for U.S. Teacher Leaders in Adult Classrooms to Enhance International Undergraduate Satisfaction" was conducted using a qualitative research approach. There were 84 international undergraduate students who participated in the research process — 14 international undergraduate students participated in the focus group discussion and the other 70 participated by responding to the MIPI (international undergraduate student version). Furthermore, five professors of

international undergraduate students participated in the MIPI (professor version). Additionally, seven experts whose tasks were dealing with international students also participated in the study and served as essential informants and helped with the evaluation and recommendation of the proposed guidelines. The research instruments used in this research included the guidelines for focus group discussion (see Appendix A), MIPI (international undergraduate student and professor versions; see Appendix B and Appendix C), and the guidelines for in-depth interview (see Appendix D). The open coding, statistical analysis, and content analysis were respectively employed as data analysis techniques in this research.

Chapter Four: Results

According to the three research objectives, the research findings were divided into three main parts, including (a) international undergraduate students' issues faced in U.S. classrooms, (b) an extent of congruency between professors of international undergraduate students' perceptions and international undergraduate students' perceptions measured by online survey results, and (c) a draft of the proposed Guidelines for U.S. Teacher Leaders in Adult Classrooms to Enhance International Undergraduate Satisfaction.

Research Questions

This research investigated the following research questions:

1) What issues do the international undergraduates face during academic experiences at U.S. colleges and/or universities?
2) What is the extent of congruency between international undergraduate professors' perceptions and international undergraduate students' perceptions of professor practices and leadership in the classroom as measured by survey results?
3) What guidelines may be proposed for U.S. teacher leaders in adult classrooms to enhance undergraduate satisfaction with the learning experiences at U.S. colleges and/or universities?

International Undergraduate Students' Issues Faced in U.S. Classrooms

The researcher conducted a focus group on September 28, 2016, at Lindenwood University with 14 international students from Aruba, Venezuela, Mongolia, Taiwan, Ecuador, Tunisia, Vietnam, China, Panama, and Thailand. Six international students were in their second year, four were in their first year, and the other four did not mention their

then-current year of study. The findings of the focus group indicated that international students faced the issues of language, isolation, discrimination, professors' instruction techniques, and professors' behaviors.

First, the issue that international undergraduate students faced in their academic experiences at U.S. colleges and/or universities was language. In the focus group, international students illustrated the difficulty in understanding and using English in their daily lives, including conversations with professors and peers in the classrooms. By way of illustration, one student expressed, 'The only problem that I have in class is about language, because I don't understand so much of what was being taught.' Another student said, 'I have never spoken English in my country,' while another admitted, 'Before I got into the ESL [English as a Second Language], my English was awful. I tried to study hard.' One student continued, 'I don't know how to speak English good, though my father helped me a lot. I have to work hard;' another supported this by saying, 'Studying here is a lot easier than in my country, except language.'

Second, while English was acknowledged as the main pressure for international students who were pursuing their higher education in the United States, the participants also mentioned that isolation was another problem that impacted their academic experiences in the United States. When asked if they experienced the issue of homesickness and isolation, one student said, 'Of course, it does. However, I just be patient.' Another student said, 'Homesick is bad. One of my friends said her roommate was crying so loud just because of the homesickness,' and the other two students added, 'I miss my foods.'

Third, discrimination was another major issue that international students faced during their academic experiences in U.S. colleges and/or universities. For instance, one student brought up a concern, 'I have a problem with my roommate, who is an American. She was like fine, and I thought we are friends. And, one day she entered into the room while I was [listening] with loud music. I turned it off, and it was not too late. Then, she went to report that to the RD (resident director) that she felt so uncomfortable. She did not even tell me to shut down my music, but I did." She added, "Then, the RD came in and said I was so bad that I yelled at my roommate. I said I did not do that, why did you believe her? I felt that it was not a respectful manner — she believed everything my roommate said because my roommate is an American.'

One student shared another concern regarding a discrimination issue, 'I felt like frustrated when I am the only international student in the class.' Another student jumped in by sharing her story, 'I experienced the feeling that I was the only Asian student in the high school, in which all the students were Americans. Everybody was like, she is Asian; it was so awful.' Nevertheless, another student strongly agreed with the two by delineating her issue, 'I have one. I was the only Asian in the class, and the professor was like I don't like her. I think he was discriminating me . . . He is kind of not fair and awkward.' Another student shared her issue as, 'They do not like people who come from Spain or are Latino. They just think that we are dumb [perhaps stupid].' Another student continued, 'They look down on my accent and think we are awful.'

Discrimination that impacted international students' impressions of their experiences in the United States did not have to happen in a school context — that could occur in any setting in which the international students visited. For example, one student

expressed her disappointment when realizing that she was treated differently from other passengers at the airport. She shared,

> I had a problem with the security lady in the airport. She allowed some people to take shoes and laptop on, while she insisted me to take everything off, or I would not be allowed to come in. That was super bad; it was awful to me.

She continued that she also felt disappointed when her country was disrespected because American people always mispronounced the name of her country. She said, 'For me, there is a country called Thailand, and I am from Taiwan. However, people just mispronounce my country's name.' Another student supported, 'I feel confused when American people just asked if I am from China. Actually, there are many Asian countries besides China.'

Fourth, the focus group results also confirmed that the professors' instruction techniques were another issue that international students struggled with during their academic experiences in the United States. For clarification, one student showed her dissatisfaction with the professor's instruction technique by saying,

> I have one professor in my class. I think he is not a good teacher because he doesn't seem to make eye contact with students, and he does not interact. He just sat with his computer and read from his slides. I have a problem with the language indeed. I need someone to explain me.

Simultaneously, one student added, 'There are lots of Americans, and he kept talking so fast. He was laughing and talking to himself. I don't know, but I feel so weird. Even though I tried my best, I did not get his points.' Another student supported, 'Teacher should talk a little bit slow.' One student was in complete accord with the two

before sharing, ‘She talked too fast, and she did not pay any attention to some students, who were playing with their phones and texting. I just dropped from her class.’ Furthermore, one student indicated her concern, ‘I am taking Statistics. My professor is not American. For 10 words that he said, I only got like five. I was like, what is he saying? Another student supported the issue by saying, ‘Sometimes when you are not doing well in class, you feel like you are so dumb (perhaps stupid). I feel so down like why? Why? Why?’

Fifth, another issue that came up in the focus group discussion was the professors’ behaviors For example, one student in the focus group said and frowned slightly,

> Last semester, I forgot my phone in another classroom, so I went out to get it; the class was not started yet, though. When I got back, the class was just started; however, the professor said to me, ‘Hey, what are you doing? Only you ask permission from me to go out, you cannot do that.’ I said that I forgot my phone. He responded, ‘I don’t care what happened; you must not do that again! I will just mark you absent.’ I think it was not fair. His teaching was so good, but since that issue happened, I do not feel good at all.

Another student said that her professor was unfair, and she did not support that behavior. She said,

> My first year experience class was so bad. I had problem with team work — I could not contact the other two members in the group. So, I ended up asking for doing a presentation by myself. However, my professor did not allow me to do that. She believed in the other two students with what they were telling her, and

> she asked me to choose a topic and write three more pages in addition to what other students were asked to do. I felt like, why was just me? This was unfair.
>
> One student concurred and shared her story,
>
> For me, I felt so bad when I asked the question in class, and professor looked at me and made me feel like I was so stupid. After that, I felt scared to ask the question in class again.

Another student suggested, 'I think it is always the best to talk with the professor after class.'

'The professor just needs the answer right away without errs,' one student added. Another student was of the same mind and said, 'Some teachers don't really care about the students,' and one student added, 'Some people here have the fake smile.' 'Teacher should help students to understand people and problem,' another student suggested. And, one student stated, 'Whenever I called, they did not answer. They gave me the office hour, but they were not there when I came in.' Another student endorsed and shared her dissatisfaction of the relationship with U.S. professors as, 'It is not like in my country. I could hang out with my teacher in my country, but I cannot do it here. They are just weird.'

Emerging Themes

In addition to the issues that international students shared in the focus group discussion there were three themes that emerged — financial supports, positive experiences in U.S. classrooms, and suggestions for an effective teacher leadership in U.S. classrooms.

First, a majority of international students had been trying to survive with the financial issue, and they really appreciated the scholarships provided by the colleges and universities in the United States. For example, one student in the focus group discussion said, ‘Of course, I came to Lindenwood University because they gave me scholarship,’ while another supported, ‘Yeah, I would not be here if I did not get any scholarship from the University.’ One student indicated that health insurance was the issue for her studying here by saying, ‘I have a problem with the health insurance here. It is so expensive, and everybody has to pay for it.’

Second, the participants in the focus group discussed their positive experiences from their academic involvement in the U.S. colleges and/or universities. For example, one student shared his enthusiasm with the academic experience in the U.S. college as,

> I got new friends from America, and I had to speak English. So, I have improved it. I have made so many friends from different countries. It is very cool to exchange experience with them and thought about our differences and our similarities, so we can make the comparison regarding people from Europe, America, and Southeast Asia.

One student added, ‘It is pretty diverse here,’ and another continued, ‘It is good to know people from everywhere.’ Notwithstanding, one student expressed his excitement with the professor’s teaching technique by saying, ‘I have a class that professor set people to sit in a round table. I feel so comfortable, because everyone is paying attention to what is being taught.’ Another student added, ‘I could focus more, and I could ask him more questions,’ while another stated, ‘They give positive energy to students. Students have more freedom to do anything in the classrooms.’

In addition, one student stated,

> The best thing that I like about U.S. classrooms is that when I have the bad grade or something, they don't call me out in the class, so no one notices/knows that my grade was bad. Here, they will talk to you personally as the private thing.

Another student satisfied with statement and supported, 'Here, they do not do any punishment like in my country.' She continued,

> In my country, our education culture was really strict. My teacher used chopstick to hit us. When I got low score on my test, she punished me since she expected me to be better. Here, professors will not judge me, though I have bad scores.

One student added, 'In my country, when I was in first and second grades, whenever I got bad grade, my teacher just hit me. I still remember that part.'

Third, another emerging theme that came to light, as the conversation in the focus group had been moving along, was teacher quality. A few students suggested that U.S. professors should establish more discipline in classrooms. For example, one student said, 'They allowed students to submit assignment late. They should have discipline, so that students would listen to them. They do not take any attendance, and some students were just skipping class.' Another student agreed and said, 'Sometimes U.S. students are too much — they do not respect the teachers at all.' Also, international students recommended that U.S. professors interact more with students in the classroom. For instance, one student said, 'They should interact with the students; they hear students and get along well. They should ask questions and listen to the presentation. They are not just sitting there and spoke about the things they think it is helpful.'

An Extent of Congruency between Professors of International Undergraduate Students and International Undergraduate Students' Survey Results

In order to investigate the relationship between international undergraduate students and their professors, the researcher used the Modified Instructional Perspectives Inventory (MIPI) to measure the congruency between the students' perceptions of professors' practices and leadership and the professors' perceptions of their own practices and leadership in classrooms at Lindenwood University. The research results will be delineated in accordance to the seven factors consisted in MIPI which included (a) teacher empathy with learners, (b) teacher trust of learners, (c) planning and delivery of instruction, (d) accommodating learner uniqueness, (e) teacher insensitivity toward learners, (f) experience-based learning techniques (learner-centered learning processes), and (g) teacher-centered learning processes.

The researcher gained five responses from the survey conducted with the professors of international students and 70 responses from the survey conducted with international students.

Perception of International Undergraduate Professors on Their Practices of Seven Factors in MIPI

Since each factor in MIPI was composed of many different questions, the researcher exhibited the total score gained from professors of international students in each factor (see Figure 1).

The item inquiring into professors' perceptions of their empathy with international undergraduate students delineated that 40% of professors scored from 16 to 20, and 60% of professors scored from 21 to 25. Figure 1 also indicates 20.8 as an

average score of professor self-report on professor empathy with international undergraduate students, out of a possible 25. This indicates that U.S. professors rated 83.2% on their level of teacher empathy with international undergraduate students. According to the andragogical principles category levels, this result implies that U.S professors presumed that they provided an above average level of empathy toward international undergraduate students in the classrooms (Table 13).

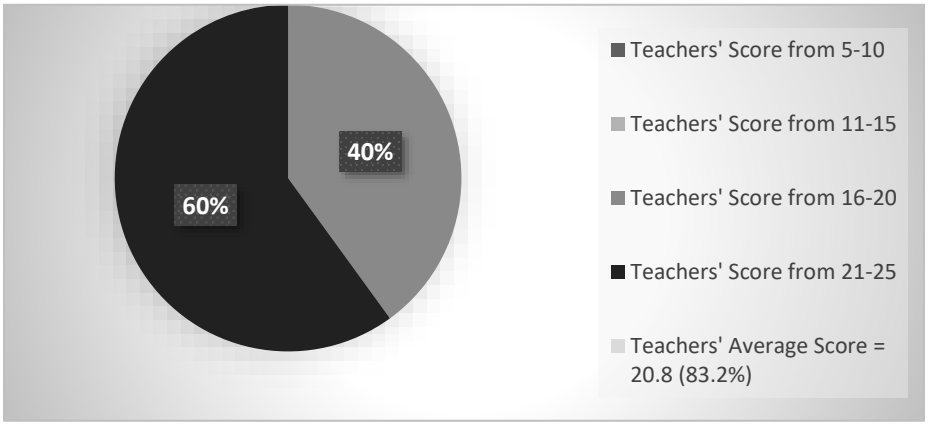

Figure 1. Professors' perceptions of teacher empathy with learner.

The item inquiring into professors' perceptions of their trust of international undergraduate students indicated 60% of professors scored from 41 to 45, and 40% of professors scored from 46 to 50. Figure 2 also delineated 45.6 as the average score of professor self-report on teacher trust of international undergraduate students, out of a possible 55. In other words, U.S. professors rated 83.9% on their level of teacher trust of learners. According to the andragogical principles category levels, this result implies that U.S. professors realized that they provided an above average level of trust to international undergraduate students (Table 13).

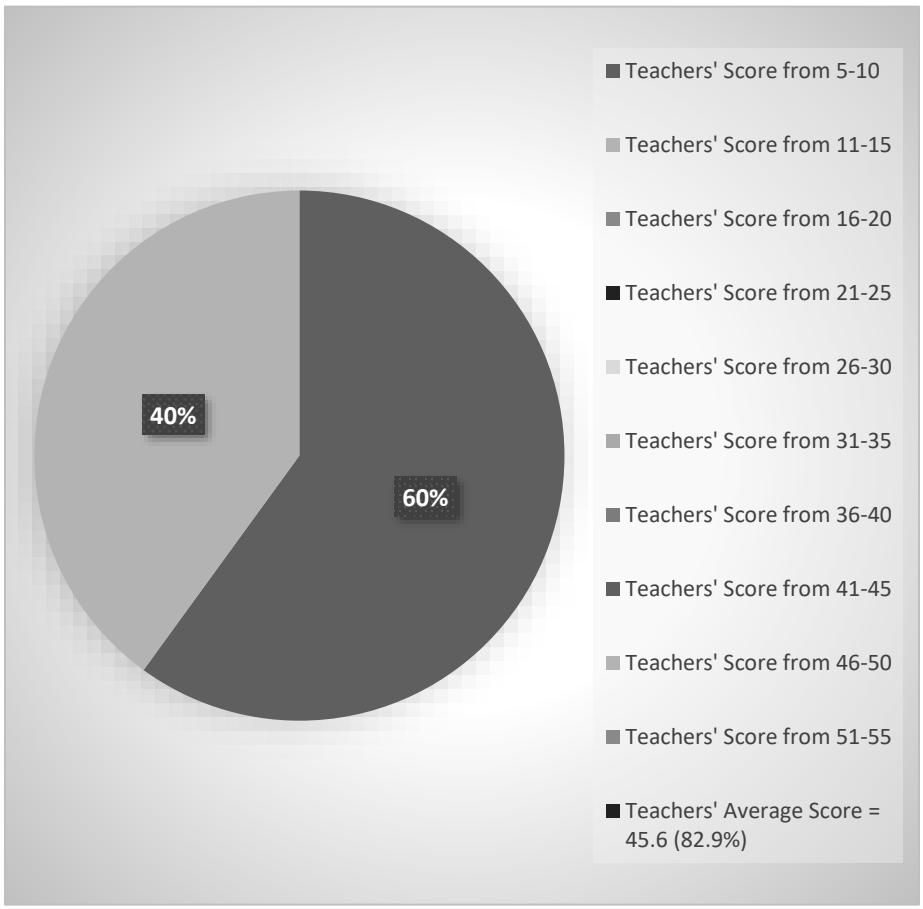

Figure 2. Professors' perceptions of teacher trust of learners.

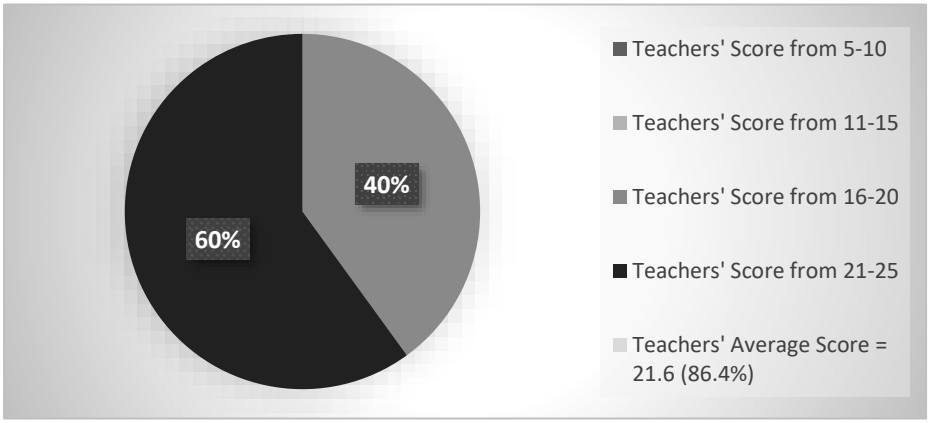

Figure 3. Professors' perceptions of planning and delivery of instruction.

The item inquiring into professors' perceptions of their planning and delivery of instruction to international undergraduate students showed 40% of professors scored from 16 to 20; and, there were 60% of professors who scored from 21 to 25. Figure 3 also illustrated 21 as an average score of professor self-report on teacher empathy with international undergraduate students, out of a possible 25. This indicated that U.S. professors rated 86.4% on their preparation on planning and delivery of instruction to international undergraduate students in classrooms. According to the andragogical principles category levels, this result represents U.S. professors' preparation for planning and delivery of instruction at an above average level (Table 13).

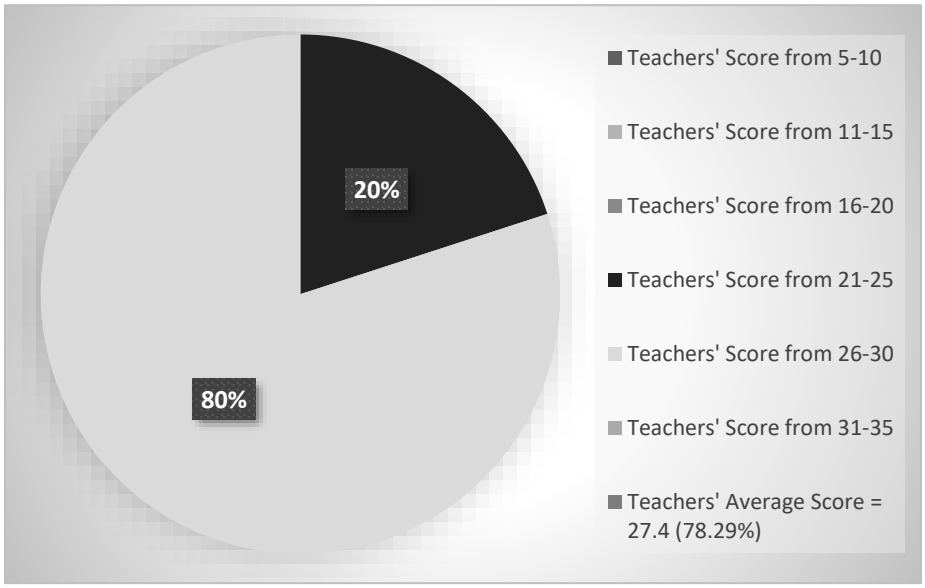

Figure 4. Professors' perceptions of accommodating learner uniqueness.

The item inquiring into professors' perceptions of their accommodating international undergraduate student uniqueness indicated 20% of professors scored from 21 to 25, and 80% of professors scored from 26 to 30. Figure 4 also exhibited 27.4 as an average score of professor self-report on accommodating international undergraduate

student uniqueness, out of a possible 35. This indicated that U.S. professors rated 78.29% on their accommodating international undergraduate student uniqueness in the classrooms. According to the andragogical principles category levels, this result implied that U.S. professors believed that they accommodated international undergraduate student uniqueness at an average level (Table 13).

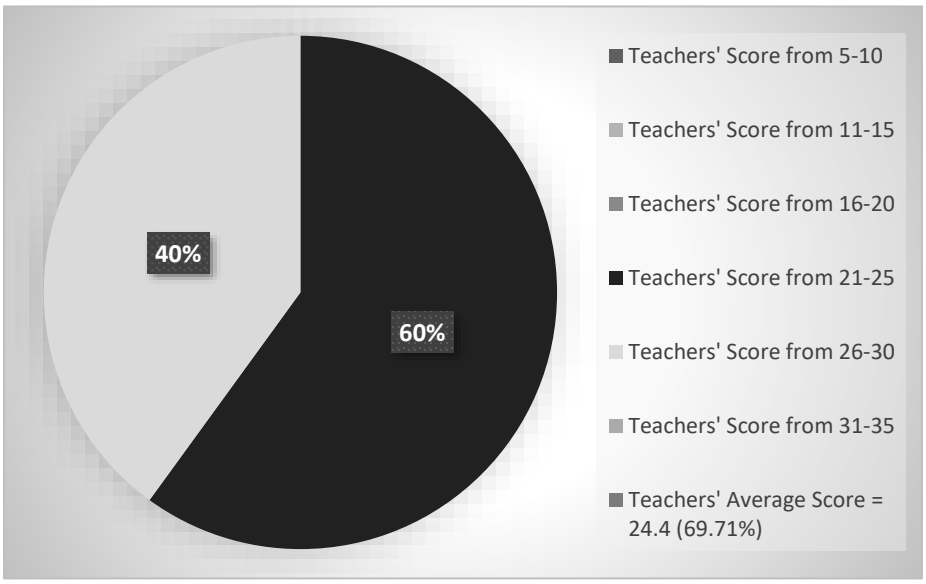

Figure 5. Professors' perceptions of teacher insensitivity toward learners.

The item inquiring into professors' perceptions of teacher insensitivity toward international undergraduate students exhibited 60% of professors scored from 16 to 20, and 40% of professors scored from 26 to 30. Figure 5 also displayed 24.4 as an average score of professor self-report on teacher insensitivity toward international undergraduate students, out of a possible 35. This delineated that U.S. professors rated 69.71% on their insensitivity toward international undergraduate students. According to the andragogical principles categories levels, this result implied that U.S. professors realized that they have insensitivity toward international undergraduate students at an average level (Table 13).

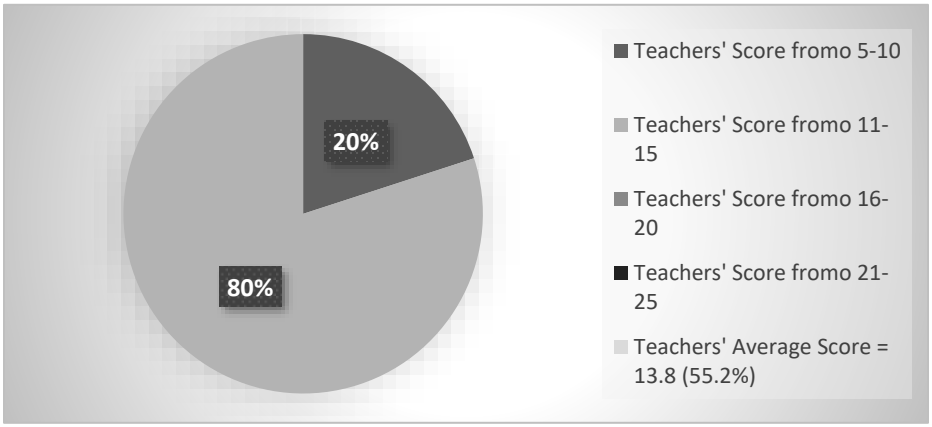

Figure 6. Professors' perceptions of the using of experience-based learning technique (Learner-centered learning processes).

The item inquiring into professors using learner-centered learning processes with international undergraduate students revealed 20% of professors scored from 5 to 10, and 80% of professors scored from 11 to 15. Figure 6 also indicated 13.8 as an average score of professor self-report on teachers using experience-based learning techniques with international undergraduate students, out of a possible 25. This showed that U.S. professors rated 55.2% as their use of experience-based learning technique with international undergraduate students. Based on andragogical principles category levels, this result showed that U.S. professors used learner-centered learning processes in the classrooms at a below average level (Table 13).

The item inquiring into professors using teacher-centered learning processes with international undergraduate students revealed 60% of professors scored from 5 to 10, and 40% of professors scored from 16 to 20. Figure 7 also indicated 13.2 as an average score of professor self-report on professors using teacher-centered learning processes with international undergraduate students, out of a possible 25.

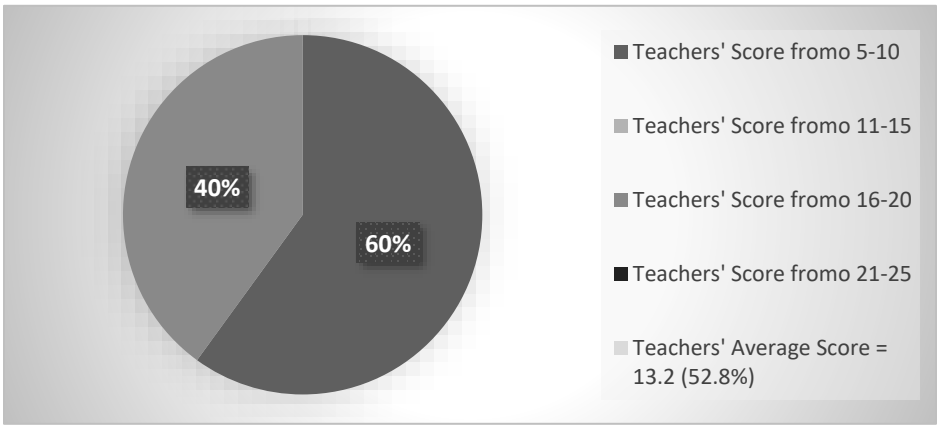

Figure 7. Professors' perceptions of the using of teacher-centered learning processes.

This indicated that U.S. professors rated 52.8% as their using teacher-center learning approach with international undergraduate students. According to the andragogical principles category levels, this result demonstrated that U.S. professors used teacher-centered learning processes in the classrooms at a low below average level (Table 13).

In addition, U.S. professors perceived they covered 74.13% of their practices of seven factors listed in MIPI (see Appendix H). According to the andragogical principles category levels, this result illustrated that U.S. professors displayed the practice of teacher empathy with learner, teacher trust of learners, planning and delivery of instruction, accommodating learner uniqueness, teacher insensitivity toward learners, experience-based learning techniques (learner-centered learning processes), and teacher-centered learning processes at an average level (Table 13).

International Undergraduate Students' Perceptions of Professors' Practices of Seven Factors in MIPI

Following in this section are the demonstration of international students' perceptions of teacher leadership in U.S. classrooms, which are displayed through the seven categories of MIPI:

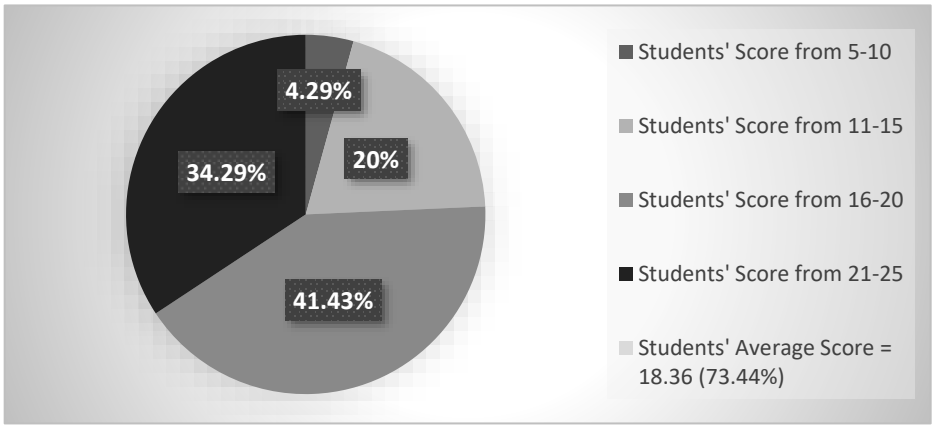

Figure 8. International undergraduate students' perceptions of teacher empathy with learners.

The item inquiring into international undergraduate students' perceptions of U.S. professor empathy with learners revealed: (a) 4.29% of international undergraduate students scored from 5 to 10; (b) 20% of international undergraduate students scored from 11 to 15; (c) 41.43% of international undergraduate students scored from 16 to 20; and (d) 34.29% of international undergraduate students scored from 21 to 25.

Figure 8 displayed 18.36 to be an average score of international undergraduate students' perceptions of U.S. professor empathy with learners, out of a possible 25. This indicated that international undergraduate students rated 73.44% on teacher empathy with learners. According to the andragogical principles category levels, this result indicated

that international undergraduate students perceived their professors' empathy with them at an average level (Table 13).

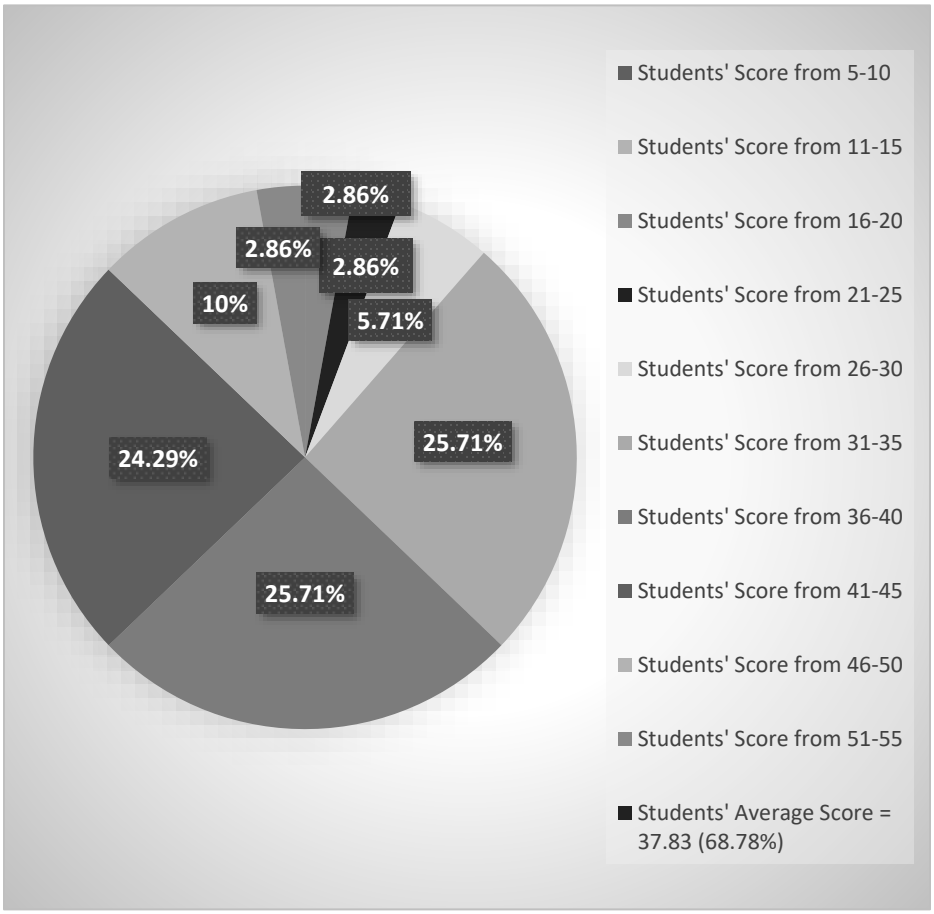

Figure 9. International undergraduate students' perceptions of teacher trust of learners.

The item inquiring into international undergraduate students' perceptions of U.S. professor trust of learners displayed: (a) 2.86% of international undergraduate students scored from 16 to 20; (b) 2.86% of international undergraduate students scored from 21 to 25; (c) 5.71% of international undergraduate students scored from 26 to 30; (d) 25.71% of international undergraduate students scored from 31 to 35; (e) 25.71% of international undergraduate students scored from 36 to 40; (f) 24.29% of international undergraduate students scored from 41 to 45; (g) 10% of international undergraduate students scored

from 46 to 50; and (h) 2.86% of international undergraduate students scored from 51 to 55.

Figure 9 exhibited 37.83 to be an average score of international undergraduate students' perceptions of U.S. professor trust of learners, out of a possible 55. This showed that international undergraduate students rated 68.78% on teacher trust of learners. According to the andragogical principles category levels, this finding ascertained that international undergraduate students perceived their professors' trust of learners at an average level (Table 13).

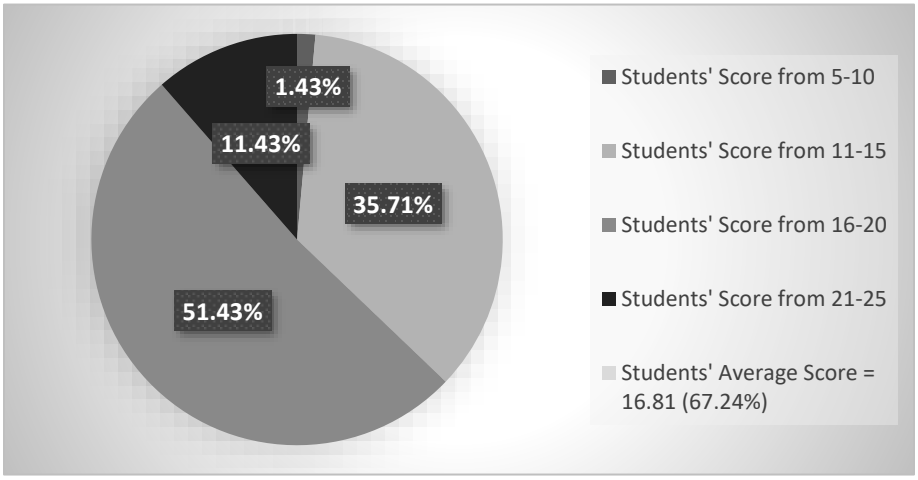

Figure 10. International undergraduate students' perceptions of teacher planning and delivery of instruction.

The item inquiring into international undergraduate students' perceptions of U.S. professors' planning and delivery of instruction delineated: (a) 1.43% of international undergraduate students scored from 5 to 10; (b) 35.71% of international undergraduate students scored from 11 to 15; (c) 51.43% of international undergraduate students scored from 16 to 20; and (d) 11.43% of international undergraduate students scored from 21 to 25.

Figure 10 indicated 16.81 to be an average score of international undergraduate students' perceptions of U.S. professors' planning and delivery of instruction, out of a possible 25. This indicated that international undergraduate students rated 67.24% on teachers' planning and delivery of instruction. Based on andragogical principles category levels, this result ascertained that international undergraduate students perceived their professors' planning and delivery of instruction at an average level (Table 13).

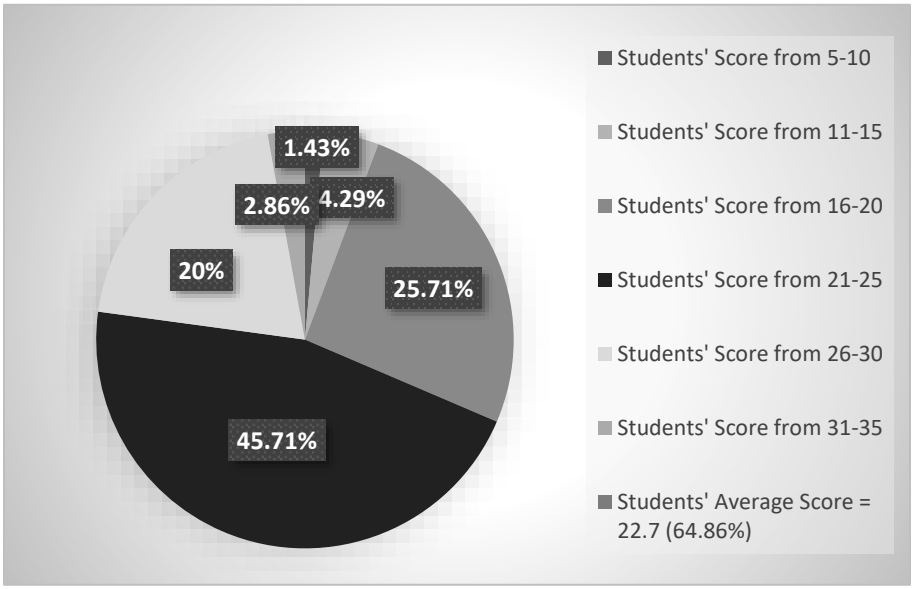

Figure 11. International undergraduate students' perceptions of teacher accommodating learner uniqueness.

The item inquiring into international undergraduate students' perceptions of U.S. professors' accommodating learner uniqueness indicated: (a) 1.43% of international undergraduate students scored from 5 to 10; (b) 4.29% of international undergraduate students scored from 11 to 15; (c) 25.71% of international undergraduate students scored from 16 to 20; (d) 45.71% of international undergraduate students scored from 21 to 25;

(e) 20% of international undergraduate students scored from 26 to 30; and (f) 2.86% of international undergraduate students scored from 31 to 35.

Figure 11 displayed 22.7 to be an average score of international undergraduate students' perceptions of U.S. professors' accommodating learner uniqueness, out of a possible 35. This showed that international undergraduate students rated 64.86% on teachers' accommodating learner uniqueness. According to the andragogical principles category levels, this result implied that international undergraduate students perceived their professors' accommodating their uniqueness at a below average level (Table 13).

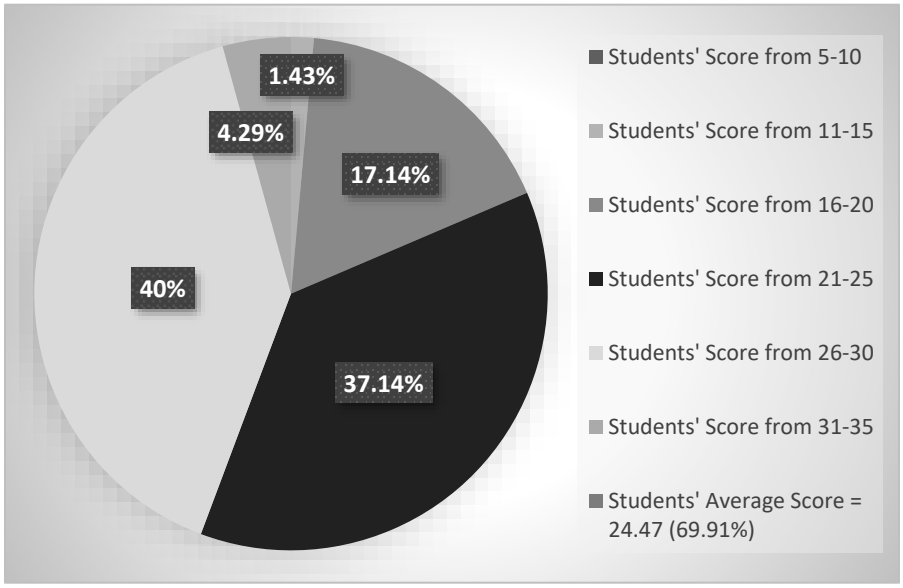

Figure 12. International undergraduate students' perceptions of teacher insensitivity toward learners.

The item inquiring into international undergraduate students' perceptions of U.S. professors' insensitivity toward learners showed: (a) 0% of international undergraduate students scored from 5 to 10; (b) 1.43% of international undergraduate students scored from 11 to 15; (c) 17.14% of international undergraduate students scored from 16 to 20;

(d) 37.14% of international undergraduate students scored from 21 to 25; (e) 40% of international undergraduate students scored from 26 to 30; and (f) 4.29% of international undergraduate students scored from 31 to 35.

Figure 12 confirmed 24.47 to be an average score of international undergraduate students' perceptions of U.S. professors' insensitivity toward learners, out of a possible 35. This illustrated that international undergraduate students rated 69.91% on teacher insensitivity toward learners. According to the andragogical principles category levels, this finding revealed that international undergraduate students perceived their professors' insensitivity toward them at an average level (Table 13).

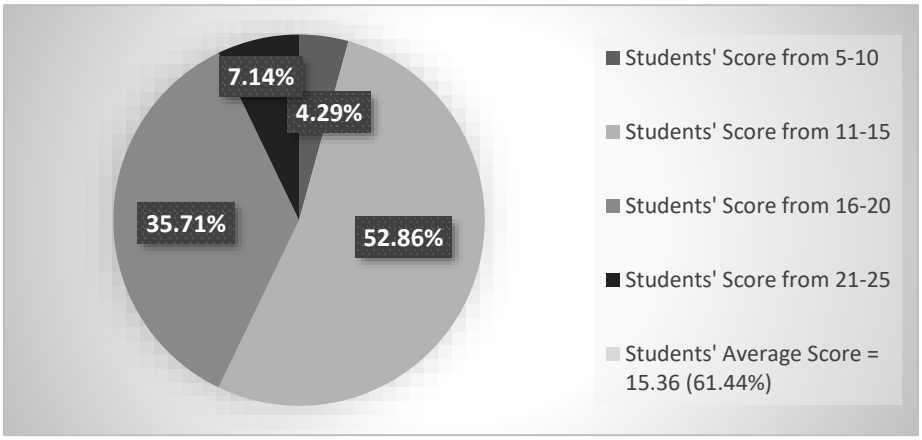

Figure 13. International undergraduate students' perceptions of teacher using experience-based learning technique (Learner-centered learning processes).

The item inquiring into international undergraduate students' perceptions of teachers using experience-based learning techniques exhibited (a) 4.29% of international undergraduate students scored from 5 to 10; (b) 52.86% of international undergraduate students scored from 11 to 15; (c) 35.71% of international undergraduate students scored

from 16 to 20; and (d) 7.14% of international undergraduate students scored from 21 to 25.

Figure 13 also showed 15.36 to be an average score of international undergraduate students' perceptions of U.S. professors' use of experience-based learning techniques, out of a possible 25. This revealed that international undergraduate students rated 61.44% on teachers using experience-based learning techniques (learner-centered learning processes) in the classrooms. According to the andragogical principles category levels, this result implied that international undergraduate students perceived their professors using learner-centered learning processes in the classrooms at a below average level (Table 13).

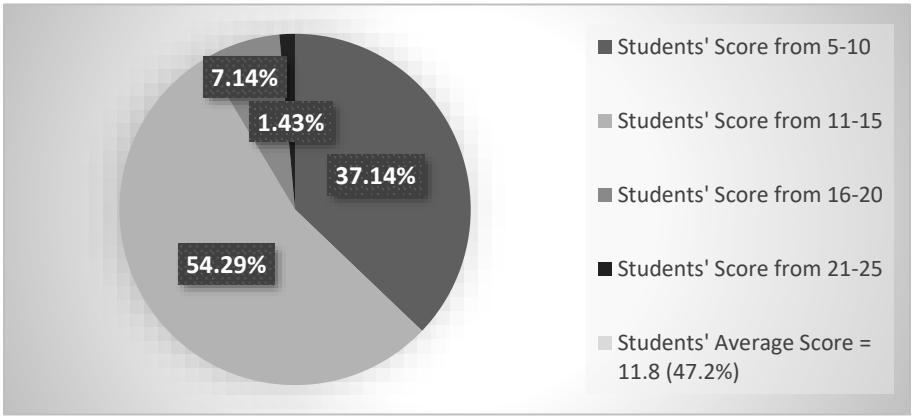

Figure 14. International undergraduate students' perceptions of teacher-centered learning processes.

The item inquiring into international undergraduate students' perceptions of U.S. professors using teacher-centered learning processes demonstrated (a) 37.14% of international undergraduate students scored from 5 to 10; (b) 54.29% of international undergraduate students scored from 11 to 15; (c) 7.14% of international undergraduate

students scored from 16 to 20; and (d) 1.43% of international undergraduate students scored from 21 to 25.

Figure 14 delineated 11.8 to be an average score of international undergraduate students' perceptions of U.S. professors using teacher-centered learning processes, out of a possible 25. This indicated that international undergraduate students rated 47.2% on professors using teacher-centered learning processes in the classrooms. According to the andragogical principles category levels, this finding showed that international undergraduate students perceived their professors using teacher-centered learning processes in the classrooms at a low below average level (Table 13).

In addition, international undergraduate students perceived that U.S. professors covered 65.48% of their practices of seven factors listed in MIPI (see Appendix I). According to the andragogical principles category levels, this result indicated that international undergraduate students perceived their professors' practices of teacher empathy with learner, teacher trust of learners, planning and delivery of instruction, accommodating learner uniqueness, teacher insensitivity toward learners, experience-based learning techniques (learner-centered learning processes), and teacher-centered learning processes at a below average level (Table 13).

It was well noted that the perception of the professors and students reflected a significant gap of almost 20 points, between 147.33 and 166.8. Henschke (1989) invented andragogical principles category levels to explain the level of andragogical practice resulting from the seven factors' measurement in MIPI (Table 14).

Table 14

Comparison between international undergraduate students' and U.S. professors' perceptions of professors' practices and leadership measured by the seven factors in MIPI

Seven factors in MIPI	Students' average score on seven factors in MIPI	Professors' average score on seven factors in MIPI	Gap between students' and professors' score on seven factors in MIPI
Factor one: teacher empathy with learners	18.36	20.8	2.44 [9.76%]
Factor two: teacher trust of learners	37.83	45.6	7.77 [14.12%]
Factor three: planning and delivery of instruction	16.81	21.6	4.79 [19.16%]
Factor four: accommodating learner uniqueness	22.7	27.4	4.7 [13.43%]
Factor five: teacher insensitivity toward learners	24.47	24.4	-0.07 [-0.2%]
Factor six: experience-based learning techniques [Learner-centered learning processes]	15.36	13.8	-1.56 [-6.24%]
Factor seven: teacher-centered learning processes	11.8	13.2	1.4 [5.6%]
Grand total	147.33	166.8	19.47 [8.65%]

U.S. professors rated their overall practices and leadership in the classrooms at 166.8, at an average level (see Appendix H), although international undergraduate students rated their perceptions of the overall practices and leadership of their professors in the classrooms at 147.33, at a below average level (see Appendix I).

Analysis of the Gaps in the Seven Factors of MIPI

In looking at the gap between students' and professors' scores on seven factors in MIPI, Table 14 indicated that the biggest gaps between international undergraduate students' and professors' perceptions were seen in three factors, including teacher trust of learners (7.77), followed by planning and delivery of instruction (4.79), and accommodating learner uniqueness (4.7). The smallest gap between international

undergraduate students' and professors' perceptions was seen in teachers using experience-based learning techniques [Learner-centered learning processes] (-1.56).

However, since the total score of each factor in MIPI was not the same, it was important that the researcher affirmed the gap between international undergraduate students' and U.S. professors' perceptions of professors' practices and leadership in the classrooms by looking at the percentage of the gap in each factor. Table 14 displayed the biggest gap between international undergraduate students' and professors' perceptions of professors' practices and leadership in planning and delivery of instruction (19.16%). This result indicated U.S. professors rated their planning and delivery of instruction at 86.4% (see Figure 3), higher than international undergraduate students rated their professors' planning and delivery of instruction in the classrooms, at 67.24% (see Figure 10).

In addition, the comparison between international undergraduate students' and U.S. professors' perceptions of professors' practices and leadership measured by the seven factors in MIPI showed teacher trust of learners (14.12%) as the second larger gap in international undergraduate students' and professors' perceptions of professors' practices and leadership in the classrooms (Table 14). This finding indicated that U.S. professors rated their trust of learners, at 82.9% (see Figure 2), higher than international undergraduate students rated their professors' trust of learners in the classrooms (68.78%) (Figure 9).

Table 14 illustrated accommodating learner uniqueness (13.43%) as the third larger gap in international undergraduate students' and professors' perceptions of professors' practices and leadership in the classrooms. This result showed that U.S.

professors rated their accommodating learner uniqueness, at 78.29% (see Figure 4), higher than international undergraduate students rated their professors' accommodation of learner uniqueness (64.86%) (Figure 11).

Moreover, Table 14 showed teacher empathy with learners (9.76%) as the fourth gap in international undergraduate students' and professors' perceptions of professors' practices and leadership in the classrooms. This finding revealed that U.S. professors rated their empathy with learners, at 83.2% (see Figure 1), higher than international undergraduate students rated their professors' empathy with learners (73.44%) (Figure 8).

Additionally, Table 14 indicated teachers using teacher-centered learning processes (5.6%) as the fifth gap in international undergraduate students' and professors' perceptions of professors' practices and leadership in the classrooms. This result showed that U.S. professors rated their using teacher-centered learning processes, at 52.8% (see Figure 7), higher than international undergraduate students rated their professors' use of teacher-centered learning processes in the classrooms (47.2%) (Figure 14).

Table 14 also displayed teacher insensitivity toward learners (-0.2%) to be the sixth gap between international undergraduate students' and professors' perceptions of professors' practices and leadership in the classrooms (Table 13). This finding indicated U.S. professors rated their insensitivity toward learners at 69.71% (see Figure 5), which is a little bit lower than (almost the same as) international undergraduate students rated their professors' insensitivity toward learners (69.91%) (Figure 12).

Finally, Table 14 affirmed professors use of experience-based learning techniques (learner-centered learning processes) (-6.24%) as the smallest gap in international undergraduate students' and professors' perceptions of professors' practices and

leadership in the classrooms. This result illustrated that U.S. professors rated their use of learner-centered learning processes, at 55.2% (see Figure 6), lower than international undergraduate students rated their professors' use of learner-centered learning processes in the classrooms (61.44%) (Figure 13).

Proposed Guidelines for U.S. Teacher Leaders in Adult Classrooms to Enhance International Undergraduate Satisfaction

According to the research results gained from the focus group discussion and the survey with professors and international undergraduate students from various disciplines, the researcher discovered significant issues that international undergraduate students faced during their academic study in U.S. classrooms, including language, isolation, discrimination, professors' instruction techniques, and professors' behaviors.

In addition, the online survey findings indicated that the professors of international undergraduate students and international undergraduate students showed a significant gap regarding their perceptions of professors' practices and leadership measured by the seven factors in MIPI. The researcher, as reflected in the research results, proposed the guidelines for U.S. Teacher Leaders in Adult Classrooms to enhance international undergraduate students' satisfaction.

To ensure the international undergraduate students' satisfaction in academic learning and to facilitate the teacher leaders teaching in U.S. classrooms, the proposed Guidelines for U.S. Teacher Leaders in Adult Classrooms to Enhance International Undergraduate Satisfaction were categorized into three main categories — professors' beliefs, professors' feelings, and professors' behaviors (see Appendix L). These categories were analyzed through the results gained from the focus group discussion and

the survey conducted with international undergraduate students and U.S. professors of international students using seven factors in MIPI.

Professors' beliefs in international undergraduate students. According to the definition received from FreeDictionary.com, 'believe' means to accept and have confidence in truth and/or reality, to credit with veracity, to expect, suppose and think. Professors' beliefs, plainly put, referred to how teachers credited international undergraduate students with truth and value as adult learners (Believe, 2017).

The researcher grouped teacher trust of learners and teachers' accommodating learner uniqueness as the main characteristics of professors' beliefs in international undergraduate students.

The fast-changing world brought a diverse group of students into U.S. classrooms, in which teachers' trust of learners and accommodating learner uniqueness became helpful therapies for an effective facilitation in higher education classrooms. Sadly, the teacher trust and accommodating of learner uniqueness were elements rarely presented by each U.S. professor, though they were known as major therapies in helping international undergraduate students going through the issues of isolation and discrimination during their academic learning in the United States. There was no denial that trust in relationship was hard to build and easy to break However, professors must be the ones initiating the behaviors representing their trust in international undergraduate students in order to earn the trust back from all the population in the classrooms. In addition, not every U.S. professor was aware that international undergraduate students had little experience in learning outside of their countries, and they needed the professors' recognition of their uniqueness to boost tenacity in their study endeavors.

Professors' beliefs played an important role in promoting international undergraduate students' satisfaction in their enhancement of self-confidence, self-motivation, self-esteem, self-discipline and the ability to achieve their learning needs in academic learning at colleges and/or universities in the United States.

Since professors' beliefs were easily delivered in the classrooms; it was vital that every U.S. professor did not miss the chance to show his/her beliefs about international undergraduate students via the following: (a) professor believed that international students are adults who have self-direction and potential in their learning, seek for immediate practices from learning, learn through the application and adjustment of their previous experiences and using intrinsic motivation as a vital impetus for achieving learning goals and/or needs; (b) professor believed that international undergraduate students vary in the way they acquire, process, and apply subject matter knowledge due to their coming from different living and learning backgrounds; and (c) professor believed in the uniqueness of each international undergraduate student that they have different learning techniques and/or styles, so that international students will be motivated, encouraged, and supported as they are struggling with the necessary changes and/or adjustments in U.S. classrooms.

Professors' beliefs were also known as one of the essential remedies in helping international undergraduate students addressing their issues of isolation and discrimination, as mentioned in the focus group discussion.

Application of professors' behaviors resulting from professors' beliefs in international undergraduate students.

Following are the professors' behaviors that represent professors' beliefs toward international undergraduate students:

1) Professor purposefully communicates to learners that each is uniquely important;
2) Professor expresses confidence that learners will develop the skills they need;
3) Professor trusts learners to know what their own goals, dreams, and realities are like;
4) Professor prizes the learners' ability to learn what is needed;
5) Professor understands learners need to be aware of and communicate their thoughts and feelings;
6) Professor enables learners to evaluate their own progress in learning;
7) Professor hears what learners indicate their learning needs are;
8) Professor engages learners in clarifying their own aspirations;
9) Professor develops supportive relationships with his/her learners;
10) Professor experiences unconditional positive regard for his/her learners;
11) Professor respects the dignity and integrity of the learners;
12) Professor expects and accepts learners' frustration as they grapple with problems;
13) Professor really listens to what learners have to say;
14) Professor encourages learners to solicit assistance from other learners;
15) Professor individualizes the pace of learning for each learner;
16) Professor helps learners explore their own abilities; and
17) Professor asks learners how they would approach a learning task.

Professors' feelings toward international undergraduate students. A feeling, according to the editors of *Encyclopedia Britannica* (1998), derives etymologically from the Middle English verb 'felen.' The term 'feeling' is a verbal noun denoting the action of the verb to feel. Many psychologists, however, still follow the German philosopher Immanuel Kant in equating feelings to states of pleasantness and unpleasantness, known in psychology as 'affect.' Professors' feelings, by way of explanation, refer to professors' states of pleasantness and unpleasantness toward international undergraduate students in the classrooms.

In this research, professors' feelings were composed of teacher empathy with learners and teachers' sensitivity toward learners. According to the survey results, there was incongruence-between professors' and international undergraduate students' perceptions of professors' teaching and leadership in the classrooms, as measured by the seven factors in MIPI. U.S. professors believed they contributed adequate empathy toward international undergraduate students in the classrooms, while international students displayed the lower rate regarding this matter. In addition, the majority of U.S. professors and international undergraduate students agreed to the fairly high rate of teacher insensitivity toward students — 69.71% was the professors' perceptions rate and 69.91% was international undergraduate students' perceptions rate of teacher insensitivity toward learners. The issue really had to do with the fact that both U.S. professors and international undergraduate students rated high on teacher insensitivity toward learners, and the rating of the insensitivity at a high level was not good in any situation, especially when it happened to be in the relationship between U.S. professors and international undergraduate students in the classrooms.

The gap between professors' and students' perceptions of teacher empathy with learners and almost non-existent gap between the professors' and international undergraduate students' rating on teacher insensitivity toward learners pinpointed the issue that U.S. professors lacked empathy and sensitivity toward international undergraduate students' learning progress and outcome.

The feeling of empathy and sensitivity toward international undergraduate students was delineated as follows (a) professor understood that international students were having issue with language since English was not their first and/or second language, (b) professor understood that international undergraduate students needed more attention in addition to the slower instruction in the classrooms, and (c) professor made certain to understand learners' points of view and learners' progress.

Failure in applying professors' feeling of empathy and sensitivity toward learners, international undergraduate students may result in increasing low self-esteem, low self-confidence, low self-motivation and end up with students earning poor grades, skipping classes, and/or drop out of classes. In order to heal the international undergraduate students' issues on language, isolation, discrimination, professor's instruction techniques, and professor's behaviors, it is important that U.S. professors build a strong and positive relationship with international students via the application of professors' feelings of empathy and sensitivity toward international undergraduate students' learning processes and growth.

Application of professors' behaviors resulting from professors' feelings of international undergraduate students.

The following are the professors' behaviors that represent professors' feelings of empathy and sensitivity toward international undergraduate students:

1) Professor removes insensitivity toward international undergraduate students by paying more attention on international undergraduate students' learning needs and concerns.
2) Professor provides slower instruction to acknowledge the presence of international undergraduate students in the classrooms with the understanding that the students are struggling with the proficiency of English language.
3) Professor shows respect and understanding toward international undergraduate students' bringing different learning techniques and/or learning styles into the classrooms.
4) Since diversity of international undergraduate students in U.S. classrooms are coming from different learning background and experiences, it is vital that the professors allow them more time to get used to the new learning environment in the United States.
5) Professor encourages international undergraduate students to ask question(s) in class and be patient with their slow responses.
6) Professor expresses appreciation to learners who are actively involved in classroom discussion.
7) Professor balances his/her efforts between learner content acquisition and motivation.
8) Professor instills and supports positive energy in international undergraduate students including: positive self-expectation, positive self-motivation, positive

self-image, positive self-direction, positive self-control, positive self-discipline, positive self-esteem, positive self-dimension, positive self-awareness and positive action.

9) Professor notices and acknowledges to learners' positive changes (in them).

Application of professors' behaviors toward international undergraduate students. Levitis and Lidicker (2009) stated that behavior refers to the response to external and internal stimuli, following integration of sensory, neural, endocrine, and effector components. Behavior has a genetic basis, hence is subject to natural selection, and it commonly can be modified through experience (Starr & Taggart 1992).

In this research, the researcher discovered three major aspects of professors' behaviors include planning and delivery of instruction, experience-based learning techniques (learner-centered learning processes) and teacher-centered learning processes.

The quality of effective teacher leaders in U.S. classrooms was indicated via professors' planning and use of various instruction techniques in the classrooms. However, applying the appropriate instruction techniques in every learning circumstance could be a real struggle for every novice, and experienced, professor in higher education. Professors were required to balance their practices of experience-based learning technique and teacher-centered learning processes when there was the presence of international undergraduate students in their classrooms.

The following practices were the indicators of effective professors' behaviors toward international undergraduate students in the classrooms:

1) Professor establishes a positive learning climate, where students feel safe in the classrooms both physically and psychologically. Physical learning climate

refers to the adequate teaching and learning materials in the classrooms, comfortable temperature and the arrangement of u-shape classrooms, in which professor and students could see each other during the session. Psychological learning climate, on the other hand, refers to how the U.S. professor treats international undergraduate students in the classrooms with love, care, understanding and forgiveness.

2) Professor builds good relationship with international undergraduate students by using professors' trust and teachers' feelings of empathy and sensitivity toward students' learning progress.
3) Professor makes sure that their behaviors are consistent with their beliefs and feelings toward international undergraduate students' learning processes and growth.
4) Professor treats every student in classrooms equally regardless of their age, gender, race and nationality.
5) Professor removes or reduces the insensitivity toward international undergraduate students by increasing their attention on international undergraduate learning issues and needs.
6) Professor is well-prepared for teaching and focuses on process rather than content while facilitating his/her teaching in adult classrooms.
7) Professor balances the practice of teacher-centered learning processes and learner-centered learning processes in the classrooms to facilitate international undergraduate students who are coming from diversity of learning backgrounds.

8) Professor discovers students' learning needs by building trust with international undergraduate students, so that international undergraduate students will feel free to express their concerns in the classrooms. This will result in international undergraduate students' making progress on their learning outcomes and satisfaction in academic experiences at U.S. colleges and/or universities.
9) Professor allows international undergraduate students to get involved in mutual planning and negotiating their learning goals to ensure that their learning needs are addressed effectively.
10) Professor invites all students to set up the ground rules at a very beginning of the class, so that every student is taking part in determining classroom disciplines.
11) Professor knows when and how to be strict with the determined disciplines to ensure students' satisfaction and growth in the specific and acceptable standards.
12) Professor delivers slower and clearer instruction in the classrooms, in which there is a presence of international undergraduate students.
13) Professor uses various instruction methods including lectures, buzz group, discussion, role play, demonstration, simulation, case study, story-telling, etc.
14) Professor uses a variety of instruction in media (internet, distance learning, interactive video, videos, hybrid class, etc.)

15) Professor uses listening teams (learners grouped together to listen for a specific purpose) during lectures to ensure students' interaction within lecture session.
16) Professor searches for or creates new teaching techniques.
17) Professor includes a natural (not contrived) sense of humor into his/her teaching to ensure that students are not feeling bored in the classrooms.
18) Professor encourages students' participation/involvement in the classrooms by allowing students to ask questions at any time. This is very helpful to ensure that international undergraduate students are on the same page with other learners, too.
19) Professor uses more positive words to energize, encourage, motivate, and support international undergraduate students in their study endeavors.
20) Professor encourages the practice of peer learning, so that international undergraduate students could build a good relationship with other classmates and learn from their peers.
21) Professor is accessible and flexible for meeting with each and every student, so that international undergraduate students would feel that they receive adequate help regarding their misunderstanding and/or doubt in the assigned homework, assignment and/or projects.

Summary

In conclusion, the result of focus group discussion with international undergraduate students at Lindenwood University revealed that international undergraduate students encountered five major issues that affected them, including

language, isolation, discrimination, professors' instruction technique and professors' behavior. On the other hand, three critical themes emerged during the focus group discussion with international undergraduate students — financial support, positive experiences in U.S. classrooms, and suggestions for better teacher leaders in the U.S. classrooms.

The findings from the online survey indicated planning and delivery of instruction (19.16%) (Table 14) to be the largest gap in international undergraduate students' and professors' perceptions of professors' practices and leadership in the classrooms. This indicated that U.S. professors rated their planning and delivery of instruction as 86.4%, while international undergraduate students rated only 67.24% for their professors' planning and delivery of instruction in the classrooms. According to the andragogical principles category levels, this finding implied that U.S. professors rated their planning and delivery of instruction for international undergraduate students at an above average level, while international undergraduate students rated their professors' planning and delivery of instruction at an average level.

In addition, the findings from online survey showed teacher trust of learners (14.12%) to be the second larger gap in international undergraduate students' and teachers' perceptions of professors' practices and leadership in the classrooms. This illustrated that U.S. professors rated 82.9% of teacher trust of learners, while international undergraduate students rated only 68.78% as their professors' practices of teacher trust of learners in the classrooms. According to the andragogical principles category levels, this finding indicated that U.S. professors rated their trust of international undergraduate

students at an above average level, while international undergraduate students rated their professors' trust of them at an average level (Table 13).

Furthermore, the findings from online survey displayed accommodating learner uniqueness (13.43%) to be the third gap in international undergraduate students' and professors' perceptions of professors' practices and leadership in the classrooms. This showed that U.S. professors rated their accommodating learning uniqueness at 78.29%, while international undergraduate students rated lower percentage on their professors' accommodating learner uniqueness 64.86%. According to the andragogical principles category levels, this result implied that U.S. professors rated their accommodating learning uniqueness at an average level, while international undergraduate students rated their professors' accommodating learner uniqueness at a below average level.

The findings from online survey also indicated teacher empathy with learners (9.76%) to be the fourth gap in international undergraduate students' and professors' perceptions of professors' practices and leadership in the classrooms. This indicated that U.S. professors rated the practices of teacher empathy with learners 83.2%, which was higher than what the international undergraduate students rated their professors' empathy with learners (73.44%). According to the andragogical principles category levels, this result meant that U.S. professors rated their empathy with learners at an above average level, while international undergraduate students rated their professors' empathy with learners at an average level.

Moreover, the findings from online survey showed professors using teacher-centered learning processes (5.6%) to be the fifth gap in international undergraduate students' and professors' perceptions of professors' practices and leadership in the

classrooms. This indicated that U.S. professors rated their practice of teacher-centered learning processes 52.8%, while international undergraduate students rated their professors' using teacher-centered learning processes 47.2%. According to the andragogical principles category levels, this result implied that both U.S. professors and international undergraduate students rated professors using teacher-centered learning processes in the classrooms at a low below average level (Table 13).

Additionally, the findings from online survey revealed teacher insensitivity toward learners (-0.2%) to be the next gap between international undergraduate students' and professors' perceptions of professors' practices and leadership in the classrooms. This illustrated that U.S. professors rated 69.71% as their level of insensitivity towards international undergraduate students, while international undergraduate students rated their professors' insensitivity toward them 69.91%. According to the andragogical principles category levels, both U.S. professors and international undergraduate students rated professors' insensitivity toward learners at an average level.

The findings from online survey indicated teachers using experience-based learning techniques (-6.24%) to be the smallest gap in international undergraduate students' and professors' perceptions of professors' practices and leadership in the classrooms. The U.S. professors rated their using experienced based learning techniques as 55.2%, and international undergraduate students rated their professors' using experience-based learning techniques as 61.44%. According to the andragogical principles category levels, U.S. professors and international undergraduate students rated professors' using experience-based learning techniques at a below average level.

In addition, the findings from online survey displayed that U.S. professors rated the overall perception of their teaching and leadership practices in the classrooms 74.13%, while international undergraduate students only rated 65.48% as the overall perception of their professors' practices and leadership in the classrooms. According to the andragogical principles category levels, this result illustrated that U.S. professors rated their practices and leadership in the classrooms at an average level, while international undergraduate students rated their professors' practices and leadership in classrooms at a below average level.

Finally, the proposed Guidelines for U.S. Teacher Leaders in Adult Classrooms suggested processes to enhance International Undergraduate Satisfaction as follows: application of professors' beliefs (teachers' trust of learners and teachers' accommodating learners' uniqueness), professors' feelings (teachers' empathy with learners and teachers' insensitivity toward learners), and professors' behaviors (delivery of various instruction techniques and appropriate use of learner-centered and teacher-centered learning processes in the right context).

Chapter Five: Summary, Discussion, and Recommendation

The purpose of this qualitative research was to (a) explore the issues that international undergraduate students faced during academic experiences at U.S. colleges and/or universities, (b) study the relationship between U.S. professors and international undergraduate students, as measured by the extent of congruency between U.S. professors' and international undergraduate students' online survey results, and (c) propose appropriate guidelines for U.S. Teacher Leaders in Adult Classrooms to enhance international undergraduate students' learning satisfaction. The researcher used convenience sampling that included 96 participants at Lindenwood University. The researcher conducted a focus group discussion with 14 international undergraduate students from 10 countries, an online survey with 70 international undergraduate students, and five U.S. professors, using the Modified Instructional Perspective Inventory (MIPI) and in-depth interviews with seven faculty experts selected from the Education Department and the International Students and Scholars Office.

The results showed international undergraduate students were faced with five major issues, including language, isolation, discrimination, professors' instruction techniques, and professors' behaviors in the classroom. The emerging themes in the focus group discussion were financial support, positive experiences, and suggestion for improving teacher leadership in the classroom. There was no congruency between U.S. professors' and international undergraduate students' perceptions on four factors of the MIPI — teacher empathy with learner, teacher trust of learners, planning and delivery of instruction, and accommodating learner uniqueness. However, there was congruency between U.S. professors' and international undergraduate students' perceptions on three

factors of the MIPI — teacher insensitivity toward learners, experience-based learning techniques, and teacher-centered learning processes. This congruency level, however, did not indicate a good relationship between U.S. professors and international undergraduate students, but instead the professors' inabilities to balance the practice of learner-centered and teacher-centered teaching approaches in the classroom.

The proposed Guidelines for U.S. Teacher Leaders in Adult Classrooms suggested processes to enhance International Undergraduate Satisfaction as follows: application of professors' beliefs (teachers' trust of learners and teachers' accommodating learners' uniqueness), professors' feelings (teachers' empathy with learners and teachers' insensitivity toward learners), and professors' behaviors (delivery of various instruction techniques and appropriate use of learner-centered and teacher-centered learning processes in the right context).

Research Questions

This research investigated the following research questions:

1) What issues do the international undergraduates face during academic experiences at U.S. colleges and/or universities?
2) What is the extent of congruency between international undergraduate professors' perceptions and international undergraduate students' perceptions of professor practices and leadership in the classroom as measured by survey results?
3) What guidelines may be proposed for U.S. teacher leaders in adult classrooms to enhance undergraduate satisfaction with the learning experiences at U.S. colleges and/or universities?

The conclusion of this research consists of five major parts: objective of research, research methodology, results gained from focus group discussion, results gained from online survey with professors and international undergraduate students using the MIPI, and the proposed Guidelines for U.S. Teacher Leaders in Adult Classrooms to Enhance International Undergraduate Satisfaction.

Objectives of research. The research on guidelines for U.S. teacher leaders in adult classrooms to enhance international undergraduates' satisfaction aimed to explore the issues that international undergraduates faced during academic experiences at U.S. colleges and universities. Another purpose of this research was to enhance comprehensive knowledge of the relationship between U.S. professors and international undergraduates, as measured by the extent of congruency between professors of international undergraduates and international undergraduates' online survey results. Lastly, an extension of this purpose was to portray the appropriate guidelines of teacher leadership in classrooms, including professors' beliefs, professors' feelings, and professors' behaviors to enhance international undergraduate satisfaction in learning experiences at U.S. colleges and/or universities.

Research methodology. This qualitative research consisted of participants (international undergraduate students) from different disciplines at Lindenwood University, Saint Charles, in Fall 2016. The researcher conducted a focus group discussion with 14 international undergraduate students from 10 different countries and used an online survey with 70 international undergraduate students and five professors of international undergraduate students. The researcher also conducted in-depth interviews with seven experts at Lindenwood University. Two of the selected experts were

andragogy professors, two professors were selected from the Educational Leadership Department, one was a professor of international undergraduate students, one was Director of the Office of International Students and Scholars, and another was the Vice President for Student Development and Global Affairs at Lindenwood University, Saint Charles.

The 15 questions used in the focus group discussion were examined and approved by Dr. John A. Henschke, the Chair of Dissertation and professor in the Educational Leadership Department at Lindenwood University. The online survey, on the other hand, was known as the Modified Instructional Perspective Inventory (MIPI), copyrighted by the U.S. office, which consisted of 45 questions. The MIPI instrument was used in 25 dissertations and was validated three times in the dissertations of Stanton (2005), Moehl (2011), and Vatcharasirisook (2011) (see Appendix K). Both professor and student versions of MIPI were scrutinized and approved by Henschke, the original author of the copyrighted MIPI.

The researcher conducted content analysis of the information gained from the focus group discussion with international undergraduate students, and descriptive statistical analysis was used to analyze the information gained from the online survey with international undergraduate students and their professors at Lindenwood University. The researcher used the analysis results from the focus group discussion and online survey to construct the proposed Guidelines for U.S. Teacher Leaders in Adult Classrooms to Enhance International Undergraduate Satisfaction. Last but not least, the researcher conducted in-depth interviews with seven experts at Lindenwood University, Saint Charles. Two of the selected experts were andragogy professors, two professors

were selected from the Educational Leadership Department, one was a professor of international undergraduate students, one was Director of the Office of International Students and Scholars, and another was the Vice President for Student Development and Global Affairs at Lindenwood University, Saint Charles. The selected experts were asked to examine and evaluate the appropriateness of the proposed Guidelines for U.S. Teacher Leaders in Adult Classrooms to Enhance International Undergraduate Satisfaction. The experts' comments and recommendation are discussed in Chapter five of this research.

Result gained from focus group discussion. The findings from the focus group discussion with 14 international undergraduate students at Lindenwood University revealed there were five major issues that international undergraduate students faced in academic study at U.S. colleges and/or universities. These included language, isolation, discrimination, professor's instruction technique, and professor's behavior. In addition, there were three emerging themes found from the focus group discussion — financial support, positive experiences in U.S. classrooms, and suggestions for effective teacher leadership in U.S. classrooms.

Results gained from online survey with professors and international undergraduate students using Modified Instructional Perspective Inventory (MIPI). The researcher obtained five responses from professors of international undergraduate students and 70 responses from international undergraduate students at Lindenwood University, Saint Charles, via the online survey sent. The findings revealed the poor relationship between international undergraduate students and their professors resulted from low congruency levels found in the seven factors of MIPI, including (a) teacher empathy with learners, (b) teacher trust of learners, (c) planning and delivery of

instruction, (d) accommodating learner uniqueness, (e) teacher insensitivity toward learners, (f) experience-based learning techniques (learner-centered learning processes), and (g) teacher-centered learning processes.

The findings indicated the biggest gap between international undergraduate students' and professors' perceptions of professors' practices and leadership in the classrooms on factor three (19.16%) — planning and delivery of instruction (Table 13). According to the andragogical principles category levels, U.S. professors rated their planning and delivery of instruction for international undergraduate students at an above average level, while international undergraduate students rated their professors' planning and delivery of instruction at an average level.

The second gap between international undergraduate students' and professors' perceptions of professors' practices and leadership in the classrooms was seen in factor two — teacher trust of learners (14.12%) (Table 14). According to the andragogical principles category levels, U.S. professors rated their trust of international undergraduate students at an above average level, while international undergraduate students rated their professors' trust of them at an average level.

The third gap between international undergraduate students' and professors' perceptions of professors' practices and leadership in the classrooms was seen in factor four — accommodating learner uniqueness (13.43%) (Table 14). According to the andragogical principles category levels, U.S. professors rated their accommodation of learning uniqueness at an average level, while international undergraduate students rated their professors' accommodation of learner uniqueness at a below average level.

The findings showed factor one, teacher empathy with learners (9.76%), as the fourth gap between international undergraduate students' and professors' perceptions of professors' practices and leadership in the classrooms (Table 14). According to the andragogical principles category levels, U.S. professors rated their empathy with learners at an above average level, while international undergraduate students rated their professors' empathy with learners at an average level.

Next, the findings indicated factor seven, teacher-centered learning processes (5.6%), as the fifth gap between international undergraduate students' and professors' perceptions of professors' practices and leadership in the classrooms (Table 14). According to the andragogical principles category levels, both U.S. professors and international undergraduate students rated their professors' use of teacher-centered learning processes at a low below average level.

The sixth gap between international undergraduate students' and professors' perceptions of professors' practices and leadership in the classrooms was in factor five — teacher insensitivity toward learners (-0.2%) (Table 14). According to the andragogical principles category levels, U.S. professors and international undergraduate students agreed to the veracity, that teacher insensitivity toward learners was at an average level.

The smallest gap between international undergraduate students' and professors' perceptions of professors' practices and leadership in the classrooms was seen in factor six — teachers using experience-based learning technique (learner-centered learning processes) in the classrooms (-6.24%) (Table 14). According to the andragogical principles category levels, this result showed both U.S. professors and international

undergraduate students rated teachers' use of learner-centered learning processes at a below average level.

To sum up, U.S. professors rated the overall perception of their teaching and leadership practices in the classrooms at 74.13%, while international undergraduate students only rated 65.48% as the overall perception of their professors' practices and leadership in the classrooms. According to the andragogical principles category levels, this result ascertained U.S. professors rated their practices and leadership in the classrooms at an average level, while international undergraduate students rated their professors' practices and leadership in the classrooms at a below average level.

Proposed Guidelines for U.S. Teacher Leaders in Adult Classrooms to Enhance International Undergraduate Satisfaction. According to the analysis on the focus group discussion and online survey conducted with international undergraduate students and their professors at Lindenwood University in Fall 2016, the researcher came up with the proposed Guidelines for U.S. Teacher Leaders in Adult Classrooms to Enhance International Undergraduate Satisfaction. The guidelines included the characteristics and application of professors' beliefs, feelings, and behaviors toward international undergraduate students in U.S. classrooms.

Professors' beliefs in international undergraduate students. Professors' beliefs were known as one of the effective remedies used to engage students' attention and satisfaction on their learning processes and outcomes. There were three characteristics of professors' beliefs in international undergraduate students.

First of all, the professor believes that international students are adults who have self-direction and potential in their learning, seek for immediate practices from learning,

learn through the application and adjustment of their previous experiences, and use intrinsic motivation to guide their learning goals and/or needs. Second of all, the professor believes that international undergraduate students vary in the way they acquire, process, and apply subject matter knowledge due to their coming from diversity of living and learning backgrounds. Third of all, the professor believes in the uniqueness of each international undergraduate student that they have different learning techniques and styles.

The application of professors' beliefs in international undergraduate students could be displayed through following professors' behaviors/actions:

1) Professor purposefully communicates to learners that each is uniquely important;
2) Professor expresses confidence that learners will develop the skills they need;
3) Professor trusts learners to know what their own goals, dreams, and realities are like;
4) Professor prizes the learners' ability to learn what is needed;
5) Professor understands learners need to be aware of and communicate their thoughts and feelings;
6) Professor enables learners to evaluate their own progress in learning;
7) Professor hears what learners indicate their learning needs are;
8) Professor engages learners in clarifying their own aspirations;
9) Professor develops supportive relationships with his/her learners;
10) Professor experiences unconditional positive regard for his/her learners;
11) Professor respects the dignity and integrity of the learners;

12) Professor expects and accepts learners' frustration as they grapple with problems;
13) Professor really listens to what learners have to say;
14) Professor encourages learners to solicit assistance from other learners;
15) Professor individualizes the pace of learning for each learner;
16) Professor helps learners explore their own abilities; and
17) Professor asks learners how they would approach a learning task.

Professors' feelings toward international undergraduate students. Professors' feelings referred to the sensitivity and the feeling of empathy that U.S. professors had toward international undergraduate students. There were three major characteristics that indicated professors' feelings, which included (a) professor understood that international undergraduate students were having issue with language, since English was not their first and/or second language; (b) professor understood that international undergraduate students needed more attention in addition to the slower instruction in the classrooms; and (c) professor made certain to understand learners' points of view and learners' progress.

The application of professors' feelings toward international undergraduate students could be seen through the following professors' behaviors:

1) Professor removes insensitivity toward international undergraduate students by paying more attention on international undergraduate students' learning needs and concerns.

2) Professor provides slower instruction to acknowledge the presence of international undergraduate students in the classrooms with the understanding that the students are struggling with the proficiency of English language.
3) Professor shows respect and understanding toward international undergraduate students' bringing different learning techniques and/or learning styles into the classrooms.
4) Since diversity of international undergraduate students in U.S. classrooms are coming from different learning background and experiences, it is vital that the professors allow them more time to get used to the new learning environment in the United States.
5) Professor encourages international undergraduate students to ask question(s) in class and is patient with their slow responses.
6) Professor expresses appreciation to learners who are actively involved in classroom discussion.
7) Professor balances his/her efforts between learner content acquisition and motivation.
8) Professor instills and supports positive energy in international undergraduate students including: positive self-expectation, positive self-motivation, positive self-image, positive self-direction, positive self-control, positive self-discipline, positive self-esteem, positive self-dimension, positive self-awareness and positive action.
9) Professor notices and acknowledges to learners' positive changes (in them).

Professors' behaviors toward international undergraduate students. Professors' behaviors consisted of three main characteristics: (a) professor's planning and delivery of instruction, (b) professor used experience-based learning techniques (learner-centered learning processes), and (c) professor used teacher-centered learning processes.

The following practices were the indicators of effective professors' behaviors toward international undergraduate students in the classrooms:

1) Professor establishes a positive learning climate, where students feel safe in the classrooms both physically and psychologically. Physical learning climate refers to the adequate teaching and learning materials in the classrooms, comfortable temperature and the arrangement of u-shape classrooms in which professor and students could see each other during the session. Psychological learning climate, on the other hand, refers to how the U.S. professor treats international undergraduate students in the classrooms with love, care, understanding and forgiveness.
2) Professor builds a good relationship with international undergraduate students by using professors' trust and professors' feelings of empathy and sensitivity toward students' learning progress.
3) Professor makes sure that their behaviors are consistent with their beliefs and feelings toward international undergraduate students' learning processes and growth.
4) Professor treats every student in classrooms equally regardless of their age, gender, race and nationality.

5) Professor removes or reduces the insensitivity toward international undergraduate students by increasing their attention on international undergraduate learning issues and needs.
6) Professor is well-prepared for teaching and focuses on process rather than content while facilitating his/her teaching in adult classrooms.
7) Professor balances the practice of teacher-centered learning processes and learner-centered learning processes in the classrooms to facilitate international undergraduate students who are coming from diversity of learning backgrounds.
8) Professor discovers students' learning needs by building trust with international undergraduate students, so that international undergraduate students will feel free to express their concerns in the classrooms. This will result in international undergraduate students' making progress on their learning outcomes and satisfaction in academic experiences at U.S. colleges and/or universities.
9) Professor allows international undergraduate students to get involved in mutual planning and negotiating their learning goals to ensure that their learning needs are addressed effectively.
10) Professor invites all students to set up the ground rules at a very beginning of the class, so that every student is taking part in determining classroom disciplines.

11) Professor knows when and how to be strict with the determined disciplines to ensure students' satisfaction and growth in the specific and acceptable standards.
12) Professor delivers slower and clearer instruction in the classrooms, in which there is a presence of international undergraduate students.
13) Professor uses various instruction methods including lectures, buzz group, discussion, role play, demonstration, simulation, case study, story-telling, etc.
14) Professor uses a variety of instruction in media (internet, distance learning, interactive video, videos, hybrid class, etc.)
15) Professor uses listening teams (learners grouped together to listen for a specific purpose) during lectures to ensure students' interaction within lecture session.
16) Professor searches for or creates new teaching techniques.
17) Professor includes a natural (not contrived) sense of humor into his/her teaching to ensure that students are not feeling bored in the classrooms.
18) Professor encourages students' participation/involvement in the classrooms by allowing students to ask questions at any time. This is very helpful to ensure that international undergraduate students are on the same page with other learners, too.
19) Professor uses more positive words to energize, encourage, motivate, and support international undergraduate students in their study endeavors.

20) Professor encourages the practice of peer learning, so that international undergraduate students could build a good relationship with other classmates and learn from their peers.
21) Professor is accessible and flexible for meeting with each and every student, so that international undergraduate students would feel that they receive adequate help regarding their misunderstanding and/or doubt in the assigned homework, assignment and/or projects.

Discussion

According to the research findings, the discussion section was divided into four main parts, including (a) current issues faced by international undergraduate students in U.S. classrooms, (b) emerging themes in focus group discussion, (c) relationship between international undergraduate students and their professors as measured by the congruency level found from online survey using MIPI, and (d) proposed guidelines for U.S. teacher leaders in adult classrooms to enhance international undergraduate satisfaction.

Discussion on current issues faced by international undergraduate students in U.S. classrooms. The findings from focus group discussion indicated that international undergraduate students encountered five major issues in their study in U.S. classrooms: language, isolation, discrimination, professor's instruction technique, and professor's behaviors.

Language issue. English language was absolutely a worrisome issue for most international undergraduate students, due to the fact that English was not their first and/or even the second language. Excelling in learning a new language was a real challenge for some international students, and it required international students to invest both tenacity

and time to overcome this obstacle. In addition, English language had become one of the common issues that led to the communication barriers between international undergraduate students and their professors, as well as their peers. According to Binder and Smith (2013), language proficiency may have a profound effect on an individual's ability to learn and develop, due to its key role in the transmission of information and regulation of cognitive process. Another study conducted by Young et al. (2013) also supported that a person's capability to perform socially and academically strongly depended on the effectiveness of their communication with professors and peers — in and outside the classrooms.

Poyrazli (2003) ascertained that academically, international students experienced many problems with writing, comprehension, and reading, due to limited English language skills. This language issue may trigger more anxiety to international students (Lin & Yi, 1997), and it could result in students achieving lower grades in their studying in U.S. classrooms. So far, without a proper intervention from professors and/or related persons and/or departments, as well as the institution, the issue could lead to a loss of academic self-efficacy, which in turn lowers international students' general adjustment and satisfaction in their academic journey in the United States (Poyrazli et al., 2002). However, Krahe et al. (2005) did not pinpoint a statistically significant overall level of increased discrimination from the population of students they studied, due to language. A study conducted by Wu et al. (2015) suggested that international students sought help from a writing center and/or had a native English speaker as a roommate, so they could improve their English proficiency effectively.

The perception of barriers varied among individual international students; for instance, learning English might motivate some students, while it might intimidate others (Nilsson, 2014). Worse still, the hardship could be exacerbated if international students did not get enough motivation and support, as well as understanding, from the professors and peers in the classrooms. The research on international students' issues indicated that domestic students usually were not open enough to respond and interact with international students, even though international students always desired to have a conversation with U.S. peers. As a result, international students tended to limit their communication cycle to just communicating and making friends with those who came from the same country of origin and/or at least shared the same or similar cultures and values (Hayes & Lin, 1994).

Isolation issue. International undergraduate students experienced the feeling of isolation in the classrooms simply because their U.S. peers and/or professors did not reciprocate the conversation appropriately. It could also be the case when international students were not treated the same as domestic students, and international students would feel the lack of support and felt isolated. As a matter of fact, being apart from a warm family and some good friends back home might cause some discomforts and homesickness to international students; however, the situation could be exacerbated if they could not find appropriate support and/or motivation from their professors and/or advisor in their program. Some students would rather remain silent when they feel excluded in the learning atmosphere. Worse still, if there was no intervention on their low academic performance, the high level of stress and pressures could lead to students to committing suicide and/or being non active students in the classroom. The study

conducted by Young and Schartner (2014) and Young et al. (2013) confirmed that inability to converse in the host country's language led to a certain amount of stress, miscommunication, isolation, and solitude.

Usually, international students tended to talk to their parents and friends back home via social media, such as Facebook, Skype, Hangout, Line, etc., any time they found themselves falling into a trap of isolation (Hayes & Lin, 1994; Poyrazli & Grahame, 2007; Olivas & Li, 2006). Dealing with isolation was somehow time-consuming, but it was absolutely possible, especially when there was a strong cooperation from peers, professors, faculty members, and related staff on campus. Wu et al. (2015) affirmed that international students usually took a more passive role in the beginning, but they eventually discovered different strategies to get involved in the social events and/or classroom discussions when engaged by their peers and/or professors.

Equally important, Wu et al. (2015) suggested that international students participate in the orientation, so they could be informed about the education system, as well as U.S. professors' expectations from students in general. The orientation session would prepare international students for dealing with common cultural shocks and to understand U.S. living styles, so that they would not feel too isolated and/or at least be aware of that. However, if the students still feel isolated, they can consider joining student organizations and/or study clubs, as well as religion gatherings on campus, so they can meet up with people who share the same and/or similar values and/or beliefs.

Worse still, if the problem still continues and leads to their poor performance in the classrooms, it is important that international students seek help from the counseling office on campus, for the experts there would be able to provide more helpful advice on

how to deal with such issues and/or stress. The research conducted by Mak et al. (2013) stated that without feeling isolated, international students would perform better in academic results, social interactions, and general adaptation.

Discrimination issue. Discrimination was known as one of the common distractions to international students' achievement and satisfaction in academic study in the United States. As a matter of fact, discrimination became an ongoing issue that happened not just on the international students, but also the U.S. citizens themselves. Traditionally, discrimination could happen in different forms, including age, gender, race, religion, and ethnicity, as well as the ability to think and judge through specific subjects and/or issues. A research on international students' perceptions of academic learning at the United States pinpointed some discrimination that international students suffered including gender, color, and foreign status in general (Sutton, 2002).

In addition, Lee (2006) shared a new version of discrimination, which was known as 'neo-racism' in her research on international students' issues in higher education. Beyond the traditional discrimination forms, neo-racism could happen on the basis of cultures and national order. According to the research conducted by Cho (2009), the most common complaints by international students were that U.S. students would make fun of international students' dress, accents, and customs, and that U.S. students would not associate with international students. In other words, rather than being treated differently according to their looks, international students were discriminated against in terms of their coming from specific regions and/or nations (Lee, 2006). Feagin and Eckberg (1980) ascertained that a major factor in the perpetration of discrimination toward others

was the so-called ‘prejudice.’ Prejudice was motivated by the preference of one’s own group, class, or race over those outside the group.

Charles-Toussaint and Crowson (2007) conducted a research with 188 U.S. students to observe their attitudes toward international students. The research findings indicated that U.S. students worried that international students posed threats to their economic, education, physical well-being, beliefs, values, and their social status from anti-immigrant prejudice. As a result, this lack of intercultural communication led to their feelings of anxiety to interact with international students. Furthermore, the findings in this study were aligned with Wu et al.’s (2015) research on international students’ challenges and adjustment to U.S. colleges and/or universities. The research confirmed that international students noted prejudice and discrimination in their academic and social lives. The participants in the research stated that U.S. peers might not understand their backgrounds and ended up making conclusions for them, though international students were willing to share their voices to promote mutual understanding across different cultures.

Regardless of the numerous types of discrimination that international students went through, being motivated, understood, and supported by the professors and peers would be very helpful for their struggles in the journey. The research conducted by Poyrazli and Grahame (2007), Olivas and Li (2006), and Hayes and Lin (1994) revealed that international students could ultimately achieve more success in their academic journeys when they have a good relationship with professors, faculty members, and staff. Equally important, international students could benefit a lot from having a good friendship with U.S. peers — they could improve their English proficiency and extend

their comprehensive knowledge on U.S. cultures and life as a whole (Hanassab, 2006; Poyrazli & Grahame, 2007; Victoria University of Wellington, 2006).

Professors' instruction technique and professors' behavior issues. International undergraduate students indicated professors' instruction techniques in relation to professors' behaviors as the important issues that impacted their satisfaction on the overall practices and leadership of their professors in the classrooms. International students in the focus group discussion complained about being placed in a boring session with a series of lectures, and some professors did not even use eye contact with them. In addition, a few international undergraduate students in the focus group discussion reported that their professors were talking too fast and telling too many irrelevant stories instead of engaging them in an interactive learning approach.

As a matter of fact, although there was no one-size-fits-all approach in teaching international undergraduate students, sticking to just one or two traditional instruction technique (doing lecture, for example) was not a wise decision to improve international students' learning progress and outcomes. There were various instruction techniques that adult educators could utilize in the classrooms, including lecture, discussion, demonstration, storytelling, case study, and role play. However, each technique should be applied in accordance to appropriate contexts and learning climates, as well as the student population in the class.

Dwyer and Peters (1999) indicated that international student satisfaction could be measured by their personal development, academic commitment, intercultural development, and career development. Professors of adults have to be flexible by knowing when, where, and how to utilize following teaching techniques with adults,

because not every student is moving at the same pace in the learning process (Brookfield, 1986; Knowles et al., 2005; McKeachie, 2010; Silberman & Auerbach, 1998). It is important that professors of adults know when, where, and how to apply each instruction technique to address students' learning needs without pulling students' attention away with the overuse of specific technique(s). Meanwhile, Henschke (2014) added that a positive learning climate could be flourished when a professor focused more on learning processes and being flexible in using the prepared contents.

In addition, international undergraduate students in the focus group discussion expressed some concerns on professors' behaviors. The students felt that their professors did not treat international students fairly in terms of assigning the presentation and/or assignments in the classroom. Also, a few of international undergraduate students said they felt uncomfortable every time they posed a question to their professors in the classroom — they did not think that their professors tried to understand what they tried to convey. In fact, international undergraduate students were also adult learners, and they did require professors to pay more attention to their learning needs and concerns. Hence, understanding adult learning characteristics was very helpful for professors to adjust their perceptions and behave in a way that helped increase international students' satisfaction in the classroom.

According to Knowles (1990), there were six assumptions of adult learning characteristics. First, adults were self-directed learners who were responsible for their learning decision and processes. Second, adult learners had specific learning goals and needs — they only invested their time on specific knowledge and/or skills that they considered useful, simply because they knew their needs and what they would like to

achieve within the specific amount of time. Third, adult learners tried to avoid spinning their wheels by asking for a particular reason when they were engaged into a specific subject in the learning process. Fourth, adult learners would prefer the idea of learning today and applying it tomorrow. This implied that adults needed the immediate application of the knowledge and skills they were learning today.

Fifth, adults were motivated by intrinsic motivation rather than extrinsic motivation. This meant it was rare that adults would come to class just because they needed to get a degree for their being promoted at the workplace and/or the recognition from their community and/or society. More important than this, adults pursued higher education because they had a desire to extend their comprehensive knowledge on specific subjects and/or skills in order to fulfill their life goals. Sixth, adults were learners who came to class with numerous life experiences, and they always expected that their experiences were recognized, respected, and valued. They tended to bring what they learned and/or knew to their learning processes and classroom discussion, which could cause some troubles to the novice professors who never dealt with such situations.

Knowles (1995) suggested both novice and experienced professors apply eight process elements in the adult learning model in order to help students cultivate a better learning outcome — preparation, climate, planning, diagnosis of needs, setting of objectives, designing learning plans, learning activities, and evaluation. First, preparation referred to professor gains insight understanding of what is to come. Second, professor establishes a learning environment that is relaxed, trusting mutually respectful, informal, warm, collaborative, and supportive. Third, learning plan is made mutually by both

learners and professor — teacher allows learners to take part in decision making on their learning plan and process.

Fourth, professor uses mutual assessment technique to diagnosis of learners' needs. This way, professor evaluates and reflects on teaching and allows learners to assess professor's practices and leadership in the classrooms. Fifth, setting of objectives referred to professor and learners mutually negotiate on learners' goals and how professor can help learners addressing those learning needs and goals. Sixth, professor designs learning plans by using learning contracts, learning projects — all of these must be sequenced by learners' readiness. Seventh, learning activities should include inquiry projects, independent study, and experiential techniques. Eighth, teacher evaluates learners' learning outcomes by allowing learners to collect evidence validated by peers, professor, experts, and criterion reference.

Furthermore, Davis (2012) affirmed that professors' instruction techniques and behaviors should be supportive for students' learning progress. He offered the following suggestions on using appropriate instruction techniques and behaviors to motivate adult learners more effectively: (a) professor used the adult learner's experience and knowledge as a basis from which to teach; (b) professor showed adult learners how their class would help students attain learning goals; (c) professor made all course and text material practical and relevant to the adults; (d) professor showed adult learners the respect they deserved; (e) professor adjusted teaching speed to meet the needs of the older learners and/or international students in the classrooms; and (f) professor motivated adult learners to learn new information using various instruction techniques, including lecture, group discussion, role play, case study, and storytelling, etc.

Discussion and reflection on emerging themes in the focus group discussion. The researcher found three major themes emerged in the focus group discussion with international undergraduate students at Lindenwood University, regarding their issues faced in U.S. classrooms: financial supports, positive experiences in U.S. classrooms, and suggestions for effective teacher leadership in U.S. classrooms.

Emerging theme #1. The first emerging theme indicated that international undergraduate students encountered a plethora of financial issues while studying at U.S. colleges and/or universities. They indeed emphasized that they were concerned on the amount of scholarships provided by U.S. colleges and/or universities, rather than worrying about the school location and/or reputation. According to Ross (2017), international students were required to pay their tuition fee at an out-of-state rate, which was more expensive compared to a domestic rate. Ashely (2017) added that domestic students may place high concern on a school's reputation, location, and tuition fee when it came to decision making regarding their favorite colleges and/or universities; however international students were just concerned on whether they received an adequate amount of scholarships that enabled them to come to the U.S. for their higher education.

According to Ross (2017), a majority of international students were holding F-1 visas, so they could not remotely work off campus to earn some extra cash to support their miscellaneous expenses. Worse still, Ross (2017) affirmed that international students were not eligible for student loans, and only very few outstanding students were lucky enough to receive a stipend from a few specific U.S. colleges and/or universities. Ashely (2017) supported the idea by mentioning that, even though some colleges and/or universities in the United States provided research grants and/or teaching assistantships to

facilitate international students' financial issues, only a few lucky international students were able to avail these facilities, while the rest had to look for other opportunities to manage their finances somehow.

Rosenberg (2016) suggested that international students look for a part-time job on campus, such as a position in the school cafeteria, book store, library, or gymnasium. He emphasized that it would not earn them a big amount of money, but at least that would facilitate the tuition fee that might show up in their bills; also, international students were able to make new friends and/or networks on campus, indeed.

Most participants (international undergraduate students) in the study agreed that Lindenwood University was one of the educational institutions that offered a great deal of financial support for international students from all around the globe. Most international students at Lindenwood University were eligible for working on campus in the position of librarian, school cafeteria, and gymnasium, etc. Some were able to work in their major departments as teacher assistants, which was helpful for their earning a specific amount of working experiences in their learning fields and also be able to cover some tuition fees that appeared on their student account, as well.

Emerging theme #2. The second emerging theme was the positive experiences that international undergraduate students expressed in the focus group discussion. Besides enduring some setbacks, including financial issues, language, cultural shock, and some other adjustments to the new cultures and social norms in the United States, the participants (international undergraduate students) indicated they were proud of being international students in the United States, and they valued all the experiences they received, both in and outside the classroom. International students were impressed by the

uniqueness of the U.S. educational system that the students' names remained confidential when their grades were published. They indeed showed an enthusiasm that their U.S. professors engaged them to a roundtable discussion — this allowed them to have an interactive conversation/discussion with U.S. peers and professors in the classroom. Furthermore, international undergraduate students showed their excitement in making new friends and exchanging cultures with U.S. and other international peers. A few said they could not ask for more when their cultures and social norms were respected, and they really enjoyed a good conversation with the diversity of people coming from different parts of the world.

Needless to say, a majority of international students viewed studying in the United States as a rewarding experience, because the U.S. colleges and/or universities offered variety and its unique quality in education system in higher education (Tempera, 2013). According to the *Study in the USA Magazine* (2016), international students received the pragmatic trainings that allowed them to analyze and scrutinize academic and life problems wisely. Butler (2015) also pinpointed that studying in the United States could make international students become more well-rounded students simply because U.S. colleges and/or universities provided students an opportunity to try a number of subjects before deciding to specialize in one for their final two years. This education system was de facto helpful for students, especially those who did not have a well-planned academic route.

In addition, stepping out of the comfort zone was one of the difficult decisions that every international student made; however, studying in the United States could be a great turning point in their lives. International undergraduate students would get an

opportunity to expose to new people, new living, and learning environments, which were not easy but beneficial for their growth — academically and spiritually. They could indeed make new friends and learn more about cross-cultural stuff, which they rarely experienced in their home countries. Additionally, international students could increase both their flexibility and problem solving skills when adjusting their lives in the new land. Butler (2015) emphasized that living independently abroad made a person stronger and wiser — these were the key skills that every student did need to master in order to grow as a responsible citizen; these skills were also beneficial for the future career of international undergraduate students after graduation.

Emerging theme #3. The third emerging theme was that international undergraduate students suggested U.S. professors led every student in the classroom with a strict discipline. In the focus group discussion, international undergraduate students illustrated that they did not like an idea that students could submit their assignment late with excuses. The participants (international undergraduate students) considered this behavior as a kind of cheating, especially when they worked so hard to meet the deadline, and other students could just ask for the delay of their submission, with excuses. They suggested that professors do not accept the late submission of the assignment and/or project, so that the students would be able to develop a good self-discipline and be more responsible in their own learning.

As a matter of fact, in order to enhance students' learning outcomes, strengthening students' self-discipline was very important. Knowles (1990) realized the concept of self-directed learning, which resulted from self-discipline, as one of the adult learning characteristics that would lead to success in learning. Furthermore, Duckworth

and Seligman (2005) stated that self-discipline was a better predictor of academic success than intelligence quotient (IQ). The findings in their research confirmed that students' failures to exercise self-discipline led to their falling short of their intellectual potential. They even stated, "We believe that many of American children have trouble making choices that require them to sacrifice short-term pleasure for long-term goal, and that programs that build self-discipline may be the royal road to building academic achievement" (Duckworth & Seligman, 2005, p. 1).

According to Waitley (1979), positive self-discipline was one of the 10 qualities owned by every total winner. He emphasized that every individual needed the power to discipline and take control of his or her learning process in order to walk the road of success. Lynch (2016b) delineated that self-discipline was flourished only when professors and students had trust relationships built on respect, and that students took their own responsibilities in their learning processes to generate a satisfactory learning outcome. Hence, the self-discipline approach was based on the belief that students were responsible for their own learning and that they could assess, as well as correct their own misbehaviors in the classrooms.

Coloroso (2002) revealed that there were three different kinds of professors who are trying to instill self-discipline to their students — brick-wall, jellyfish, and backbone. Brick-wall professors were those who were strict, demanding students to follow the rules without any questioning and/or exceptions. Jellyfish professors, on the other hand, enforced the rules like the way a jellyfish moved (Coloroso, 2002). They always changed the rewards and punishments simply because their rules were not clear, and the students de facto could not remotely expect consistency from these professors. Lastly, backbone

professors allowed students to make their own behavior choices and provided strong support to foster students' successes in academic journeys (Coloroso, 2002). According to Coloroso, as cited in Maschino (2013), professors could help improve students' self-discipline by (a) treating students with respect and dignity; (b) giving students a sense of positive power over their own lives; and (c) giving them opportunities to make decisions, take responsibilities for their actions, and learn from their successes and mistakes.

However, Weimer (2017) argued that it was not all about whether professors were doing their jobs, but self-discipline was flourished only when the students de facto took responsibility for their own learning. Canfield (2005) strongly affirmed that every great achievement was a story of education, training, practice, discipline, and sacrifice. Every student had to be willing to pay the price — maybe that price was pursuing one single activity while putting everything else in life on hold; maybe, it was investing the time and savings, and maybe it was the willingness to walk away from the safety of their then-current situation.

Weimer (2017) illustrated three different arenas of student responsibility and how professor intervention was helpful to cultivate learning success for students. First of all, students were responsible to learn what was taught in the classrooms. Professors should play a role as a facilitator to encourage and support the learning process in a variety of ways. Second, students took responsibility for doing research and/or seeking tasks to enhance their comprehensive knowledge on the subject and/or complete their assigned work on time with a satisfactory result (Weimer, 2017). The professor, in this process, should provide a clear detail of their assigned task and serve as an information resource, rather than assist students completing the tasks, or they were creating dependent learners.

Lastly, there were responsibilities that students could share with their professors (Weimer, 2017). Students should be willing to share opinions on how the class was run, how they would learn the content, and how their learning should be assessed. In other words, professors and students should work together to generate a positive learning climate and learning plans that were helpful for student development. In addition, professors should allow students to be involved in providing feedback and evaluating their peers' works. Sharing responsibility with students would increase their self-discipline and empower them as responsible learners (Weimer, 2017).

Discussion on relationship between international undergraduate students and their professors as measured by the congruency level found from online survey using Modified Instructional Perspective Inventory (MIPI). The research findings from the online survey using the MIPI indicated that international undergraduate students and U.S. professors shared different perceptions of professors' practices and leadership in the classrooms. In other words, there was no congruency level found in the overall perceptions of professors' practices and leadership in the classrooms, according to the analysis using andragogical principles category levels (Table 13 and Table 14). U.S. professors perceived their overall practices and leadership in the classrooms, as measured in the seven factors of MIPI, at an average level, while international undergraduate students perceived it at a below average level, according to the analysis using andragogical principles category levels (Table12).

As a matter of fact, the cookie-cutter perceptions of professors' practices and leadership in the classrooms were not remotely the indicators of a good relationship between U.S. professors and international undergraduate students; however, failure to

show this congruency level exhibited a telltale gap in professors' communication and relationship building with international undergraduate students in the classrooms. The research results pinpointed that U.S. professors perceived their practices and leadership in the classroom in a higher level, compared to international undergraduate students' perceptions on them regarding the four factors of MIPI: planning and delivery instruction, teacher trust of learners, accommodating learner uniqueness, and teacher empathy with learners (Table 13 and Table 14).

No congruency #1: Planning and delivery of instruction. U.S. professors viewed their practices of planning and delivery of instruction at an above average level, while international undergraduate students perceived it at an average level, according to the analysis based on andragogical principles category levels (Table12). Needless to say, the seemingly well-prepared professors may feel very confident in their teaching and presume that every student was engaged in the learning process, especially when they successfully delivered the prepared contents. However, appearing as a well-prepared professor in an adult classroom was not all about content preparation, but also the flexibility in facilitating the learning process that could reel in students' attention to the topic being taught.

Knowles (1990) stated that adults learned best when their previous experiences were respected and honored in the classrooms. Kolb (1984) indeed established a model of experiential learning to identify four modes in the adult learning cycle, including concrete experimentation, reflection, abstract conceptualization, and active experimentation. In more specific terms, Kolb (1984) explained that students learned by doing something (concrete experimentation), thinking about it (reflection), doing some research, talking

with others and applying what they already knew to the situation (abstract conceptualization), and doing something new or doing the same thing in a more sophisticated way based on their learning (active experimentation). He indeed emphasized two independent learning activities that transpired in the learning cycle — perception (the way students took in information) and processing (how students dealt with information) (Kolb, 1984).

Kolb (1984) stated that students' learning processes could be viewed in four different quadrants. First, converging processes associated with bringing a number of perspectives to finding a single answer — usually right or wrong. Students may use this thinking system in a scientific context. Second, diverging processes were about generating a number of accounts of different experiences (Kolb, 1984). Third, assimilating processes described (roughly) the taking in of new knowledge (Kolb, 1984). Fourth, accommodating processes marked out (again, roughly) the relationship of the new knowledge to the students' prior experiences and beliefs (Kolb, 1984).

Additionally, revealing students' degrees of knowing and not knowing was important to increase the effectiveness of professors' preparation and delivery of instruction. Heick (2013) highlighted six ways to honor the learning process in the classrooms.

First and foremost, Heick (2013) recommended professors use learning taxonomies in order to display understanding more clearly. Roughly put, professors should discover multiple resources to guide their instructional design, including assessment — move beyond 'pass or fail,' or even 'A through F,' to 'can define and apply, but has trouble analyzing.'

Second, professors should use concept maps that allow students to map, chart, and diagram and/or visually represent their own learning plans and change in their own understanding. In other words, professors should seek out ways for students to express what they do and do not understand, where they started, where they are, and where they might be going (Heick, 2013).

Third, professors used a variety of assessment forms to evaluate students' performances, writing, concept may, interviews, projects, and classroom participation, as well as team work. Professors could even allow students to make decision on their own assessment as professors challenge them to prove not just if they get it, but how (Heick, 2013).

Fourth, professors build metacognition into units. Needless to say, prime the pump by assigning students' quick writing prompts or minute paper/reflections about their own thinking. Professors should model what metacognition looks, sounds, and/or feels like by allowing students to express themselves and their thinking away from the pressure of the classrooms and the expectation of verbal eloquence (Heick, 2013).

Fifth, professors used digital portfolios and frequently reviewed what goes into them. Professors should analyze the changes in student work including content knowledge to notice the significant changes in students' learning progress (Heick, 2013).

Sixth, professors connected students to networks in order to plug them in the effective learning process. Professors should encourage students to involve in teamwork and/or direct them toward communities and resources that could help propel them toward knowing and understanding of the new concepts or knowledge (Heick, 2013).

No congruency #2: Teacher trust of learners. U.S. professors viewed their trust of international undergraduate students at an above average level, while international undergraduate students perceived their professors' trust of them at an average level, according to the analysis using andragogical principles category levels (Table12).

As a matter of fact, trust is the foundation of every healthy relationship, and it is a choice to be available, vulnerable and transparent in a relationship (Willis, 2015). Professors might believe that 'I trust you' and/or 'I trust you can do it' is the powerful word that every professor could use to buy trust from students. Some might believe that assigning students tasks was a telltale action to prove their trust in students' abilities that they absolutely could accomplish a certain task with a good result. However, that was not the right way to communicate trust to students. Finley (2013) emphasized that trust was an action word, and professors should make a decision to trust students even if it means risking that students may betray professors' faith in them.

Henschke (2013) supported that professors should 'walk their talk' and exemplify their trust in students by being consistent and believe in students' uniqueness as a responsible adult in the learning process. He added that trust needed to happen in a reciprocal way, or it would not be presented at all. In other words, if professors failed to illustrate trust to students from the beginning of the learning process, earning trust from students was ultimately a real challenge that every professor must recognize.

Fernandez (2016) ascertained that trust could be used to maintain a continual process within the classrooms when it is presented with honesty, consistency, connectivity, and acceptance. Roughly put, trust seemingly invited the practice of andragogical principles to the classrooms, where professors no longer implemented a

carrots and sticks approach in teaching, and students were more likely to engage with the curriculum, ask more questions, follow classroom norms, pay attention to their learning, and work collaboratively with peers. Rainer, Guyton, and Bowen (2000) stated that teachers' trust of learners would cultivate progressive practices, and classroom professionals were more likely to reshape old methods of instruction and try alternative strategies (Goddard, Tschannen-Moran, & Hoy, 2001).

Despite realizing the importance of trust in facilitation in adult classrooms, implementing trust was seemingly a struggle for both novice and experienced teachers still. Finley (2013) introduced seven strategies for professors to initiate trust with students in adult classrooms (a) trust must be given in order for it to develop. Ennis and McCaulay (2002) suggested professors give students a second chance, if they find out that students somehow misbehaved and/or broke their trust; (b) professors should slowly and deliberately get to know their students; (c) professors shared power by seeking students' input about what is to be learned and how; (d) professors explained to students how to earn professor's trust — this included honesty, academic effort, politeness and consistency; (e) professors should avoid any kind of punishment but offer encouragement and support students during the learning process; (f) professors avoided protective hesitancy. In other words, professors should engage students who do not look, sound, and act like them; and (g) professors adjusted the learning environment by arranging students to sit in circle instead of a row shape, so that everybody could interact and get to know each other better via the telltale face expression (Finley, 2013).

In addition, Brookfield (1990) affirmed that building trust with students required professor credibility and professor authenticity. Professor credibility referred to

professors' abilities to present themselves as people with something to offer — that could be professors' knowledge, skills, and experiences in teaching adults in diversity of learning climate. Authentic professors, according to Moustakas (1966), were those that students felt they could trust. Roughly put, they were also those whom students saw as real flesh-and-blood human beings with passions, frailties, and emotions. They were remembered as whole persons, not as people who hid behind a collection of learned role behaviors appropriate to college teaching (Moustakas, 1966). In more specific terms, teacher authenticity could be pinpointed rapidly through four behaviors, which included (a) professors' words and actions were congruent; (b) professors admitted to errors, acknowledge fallibility; (c) professors allowed aspects of their personhood outside their role as professors to be revealed to students; and (d) professors respected learners by listening carefully to students' expressions of concern, by taking care to create opportunities for students' voices to be heard, and be being open to alternative teaching and learning process as suggested by their students (Moustakas, 1966).

A research conducted on the importance of developing trust by Bruney (2012) proofed the concept of building trust with students and that professor authenticity and predictability were the most important factors in getting students to trust and believe in their professors. The study also suggested three main practices for professors to earn trust from students: (a) validating student feelings could foster trust and emotional intelligence; (b) good classroom management was contingent on a trusting environment; and (c) student willingness to take risks, make mistakes, and say 'I don't get it!' when they do not understand a certain concept improves their learning processes and achievement in the classrooms Bruney (2012).

No congruency #3: Accommodating learner uniqueness. Third of all, U.S. professors viewed their accommodating international undergraduate student uniqueness at an average level, while international undergraduate students perceived their professors' accommodating their uniqueness at a below average level, according to the analysis using andragogical principles category levels (Table12). In other words, at a certain level, international undergraduate students did not realize their professors appreciated and accepted them for who they were, while U.S. professors thought they provided a sufficient amount of attention that their students deserved in general.

As a matter of fact, it was easy to blame the diversity of cultures that influenced the differences in professors' and international undergraduate students' perceptions of teachers' accommodating learner uniqueness; however, professors should recognize diverse populations in the classrooms and realize that international undergraduate students were those who required special attention, understanding, and care in the learning process (Freiberg, 2011). Henschke (1989) recommended seven indicators of teachers' accommodating learner uniqueness that might be applicable to every student regardless of their learning backgrounds and styles. The seven indicators were (a) professors expected and accepted learners' frustration as they grapple with problems; (b) professors believed that learners varied in the way they acquired, processed, and applied subject matter knowledge; (c) professors really listened to what learners had to say; (d) professors encouraged learners to solicit assistance from other learners; (e) professors individualized the pace of learning for each learner; (f) professors helped learners explore their own abilities; and (g) professors asked the learners how they would approach a learning task (Henschke, 1989).

Additionally, according to Businessballs, as cited in UMass Dartmouth (2017), every student falls into one of these three learning styles—visual, auditory, and kinesthetic or tactile.

First, students with a visual learning style had a preference for seen or observed things, including pictures, diagrams, demonstrations, displays, handouts, films, and flip-chart, etc. These students would use phrases, such as 'show me,' 'let's have a look at that' and would be best able to perform a new task after reading the instructions or watching someone else do it first. These were the students who would work from lists and written directions and instructions (as cited in UMass Dartmouth, 2017). To accommodate learners with a visual learning style, professors should (a) use maps, flow charts, or webs to organize materials; (b) highlight and color code book/note to organize and relate material; (c) have students pick out key words and ideas in their own writing and highlight them in different colors to clearly reveal organizational pattern; (d) write out checklists of needed formulas, commonly misspelled words, etc.; (e) write out and use flash cards for review of material; (f) draw pictures or cartoons of concepts; (g) write down material on slips of paper and move them around into proper sequence; (h) use the chalkboard to note important information; and (i) if using the computer, have the students experiment with different font sizes and styles to enhance readability (as cited in UMass Dartmouth, 2017).

Second, students with an auditory learning style had a preference for the transfer of information through listening to the spoken word, of self or others, of sounds and noises. These students would use phrases such as 'tell me,' 'let's talk it over' and would be best able to perform a new task after listening to instructions from an expert (as cited

in UMass Dartmouth, 2017). These were the students who were happy being given spoken instruction over the telephone, and could remember all the words to songs that they heard. To accommodate learners with an auditory learning style, professors should (a) engage the students in conversation about the subject matter, (b) question students about the material, (c) ask for oral summaries of material, (d) have them tape lectures and review them with professors, (e) have them tape themselves reviewing material and listen to it together, (f) read material aloud to them, (g) use a talking calculator, and (h) have them put material to a rhythm or tune and rehearse it aloud (as cited in UMass Dartmouth, 2017).

Third, students with a kinesthetic or tactile learning style had a preference for physical experience — touching, feeling, holding, doing, and practical hands-on experiences (as cited in UMass Dartmouth, 2017). These students would use phrases such as ‘let me try,’ ‘how do you feel!?’ and would be best able to perform a new task by going ahead and trying it out, learning as they go. These were the students who liked to experiment, hands-on, and never looked at the instructions first. In order to accommodate learners with a kinesthetic or tactile learning style, professors should (a) write out checklists of materials to be learned or looked for; (b) trace words and diagrams on paper; (c) use textured paper and experiment with different sizes of pens, pencils, and crayons to write down information; (d) use role play or dramatize concepts (as cited in UMass Dartmouth, 2017). Students could move objects around to dramatize a concept or act out the concept themselves; (e) ask the students to envision a scene in which the material to be learned is being used or acted out somehow; (f) have the students take notes (on paper, word processor, in textbooks) while reading or listening; and (g) use

some form of body movement (snapping fingers, pacing mouthing ideas) while reciting material to be learned (as cited in UMass Dartmouth, 2017).

No congruency #4: Teacher empathy with learners. U.S. professors viewed their empathy with international undergraduate students at an above average level, while international undergraduate students perceived their professors' empathy with them at an average level, according to the analysis based on andragogical principles category levels (Table12). With the diversity of students in U.S. classrooms, paralleled by an increase in globalization, U.S. professors were seemingly aware of diverse students' experiences and how they could overcome and respect the differences to nail down an effective instructional approach in the classrooms.

According to Work and Olsen (1990), empathy was recognized as a quality of an individual. A majority of professors were placing empathy as a central piece to forge a good relationship with their students, yet they might not always yield a good result if they failed to implement the whole package of empathy with their students (Work & Olsen, 1990).

Crockett (2016) introduced two important types of empathy that yielded a great result when implemented with students in the classrooms: affective empathy and cognitive empathy. Affective empathy related to professors' capacity to share in students' feelings (Crockett, 2016). This may mirror what the students were feeling or have a unique physical or emotional reaction, as a result. Cognitive empathy, nevertheless, involved being able to understand students' perspectives and comprehend why students might be feeling a certain way (Crockett, 2016). Henschke (1989) revealed the concept of teacher empathy with learners as (a) professors felt fully prepared to teach, (b) professors

noticed and acknowledged to learners' positive changes, (c) professors balanced their efforts between learners' content acquisition and motivation, (d) professors expressed appreciation to learners who actively participate in the classrooms, and (e) professors promoted positive self-esteem in learners (Henschke, 1989).

Tavangar (2014) recommended three steps to successfully build the empathy muscle in the classrooms. First, professors should (a) create a safe space with trust to unlock empathy, (b) consider what empathy looks like in interactions and model it, and (c) develop emotional competency (understand and manage their own emotions in order to pinpoint and interpret those emotions in students). Second, professors should take actions that suit students' personalities and interests (Tavangar, 2014). There was no one-size-fits-it-all course to engage students to recognize empathy; however, professors could consider a few key activities, as follows: group play, storytelling, immersion, and problem solving — the act of collaboration builds empathy through shared challenges and victories. Third, professors should reflect and act by identifying shared valued and differences, instilling courage, and enabling action (creating opportunities through which students can put empathy into action) (Tavangar, 2014).

While there was no congruency in four factors of MIPI, the findings from the online survey indicated that U.S. professors and international undergraduate students shared the same perception in three factors of MIPI — teacher-centered learning processes, teacher insensitivity toward learners, and experience-based learning techniques (learner-centered learning processes).

Congruency #1: Teacher-centered learning processes. Interestingly, based on the results gained from the online survey on factor six and factor seven of MIPI, U.S.

professors used experience-based learning techniques at a below average level, and they used teacher-centered learning processes at a low below average level. These findings were not remotely consistent with the finding gained from the focus group discussion with international undergraduate students that their professors used too much lecture in the classrooms. However, lecture did not solely represent the teacher-centered learning process. Henschke (1989) indicated five indicators of professors using teacher-centered learning processes in the classroom as (a) professor believed that his/her primary goal was to provide students as much information as possible, (b) professor taught exactly what and how he/she planned, (c) professor tried to make his/her presentations clear enough to forestall all students' questions, (d) professor believed that his/her teaching skills are as refined as they can be, and (e) professor required students to follow the precise learning experiences he/she provides them (Henschke, 1989).

The congruency level of U.S. professors' and international undergraduate students' perceptions of factor six and factor seven (learner-centered and teacher-centered learning processes) were not consistent with the results found in the focus group discussion, yet it was possible that some international undergraduate students in the online survey might have experienced learning with U.S. professors that applied various instruction techniques in the classrooms. On the other hand, it was also possible that the findings from factor six and factor seven supported the finding gained from factor five — teacher insensitivity toward learners at an average level. In other words, if U.S. professors were not sensitive with the students' learning progress and outcomes at an average level, chances were they would not worry if they had to stand on a specific hill regarding their teacher approach — they were just concerned with whether they taught

the prepared content and whether the responsible task, teaching, was fulfilled for the day and/or week and/or quarter and/or semester. These professors did not remotely use a learner-centered approach at an average level, nor did they use a teacher-centered learning approach at an average level.

Using teacher-centered learning processes may not be a good idea for both novice and experienced professors, for every college student preferred to be treated as adult and so that they could be involved in an interactive learning process. However, teacher-centered learning processes should be applied in the context that the topics are very new to students, and the clarification on the specific subject matters is needed before students could be self-directed in their learning processes. In other words, U.S. professors should have a good relationship with their students, so they are able to apply the appropriate instruction approach that would address students' learning needs and satisfaction in the learning processes.

Knowles (1995) suggested that in order to cultivate students' satisfaction in learning processes and outcomes, it was important that adult educators focused more on the learning processes than the prepared contents. He introduced eight components of Andragogical Process Design that every professor could use to help their adult learners become involved actively in the learning process (a) professor prepared students for the program; (b) professor set a positive learning climate that includes trust, understanding, and care in the learning process; (c) professor allowed mutual planning that students can negotiate their learning plan with the professor; (d) professor was aware of students' learning needs and what they can do to address those needs; (e) professor set learning objectives that were determined through mutual planning with students; (f) professor

used learning contract with the students (students are asked to develop their learning needs, specify their learning objectives, identifying their learning resources and strategies, indicate a target date for completion, and illustrate how the evidence of accomplishment will be validated); (g) professor involved students in learning activities including inquiry projects, independent study, and the use of experiential techniques in order to achieve their learning goals (Park et al., 2016); and (h) professor allows students to self-evaluate their learning processes in regards to whether their set goals are met, or whether some adjustments on their learning plan needs to be made as necessary to be successful (Bucholz & Sheffler, 2009).

Congruency #2: Teacher insensitivity toward learners. U.S. professors and international undergraduate students shared the same perceptions of teacher insensitivity toward learners at an average level, according to the andragogical principles category levels (Table 13). This congruency level did not represent positive relationships, but the agreement that U.S. professors were insensitive toward international undergraduate students' learning progress and outcomes at an average level.

According to Henschke (1989), the telltale behaviors of insensitivity toward learners included (a) professor had difficulty understanding students' points of view, (b) professor had difficulty getting her/his point across to students, (c) professor felt impatient with students' progress, (d) professor experienced frustration with student apathy, (e) professor had difficulty with the amount of time students need to grasp various concepts, (f) professor got bored with the many questions students ask, and (g) professor felt irritation at student inattentiveness in the learning setting (Henschke, 1989).

In addition, insensitivity could occur in different forms including classroom instruction and interaction in general.

However, according to one of the experts in the in-depth interview, not every U.S. professor had travelled/taught outside the United States that they can understand how international students learn and the issues that those students faced in general. Additionally, owing to the fact that being sensitive with international undergraduate students took time and effort, not every U.S. professor was willing to take such additional responsibility.

According to Freiberg (2011), international undergraduate students required more attention, understanding, and care from U.S. professors, so it was easy for them to notice if their professors expressed insensitivity toward them. Insensitivity was not just a feeling of ignorance, but it included the inability to realize diverse populations in the classrooms that might lead to poor relationships between international undergraduate students and U.S. professors (Freiberg, 2011). Moreover, if insensitivity was not recognized and intervened properly by the professors, this issue could lead to students' low self-esteem, low self-confidence, and lack of motivation in their learning. Worse still, poor relationships between professors and students might result in students' misbehaviors in the classrooms, which would literally impact international undergraduate students' learning progress and satisfaction on their learning experiences at U.S. colleges and/or universities as a whole (Freiberg, 2011). Those misbehaviors included being inactive and/or silent in the classrooms, skipping classes, and/or having poor grades.

While dealing with insensitivity was a struggle for some novice and experienced professors, getting over this challenge was not impossible. In response to the issue of

insensitivity, it was important that U.S. professors realized, understood, and were thoughtful of international undergraduate students' feelings and learning progress (Freiberg, 2011). This aligned with the concept of emotional intelligence that every U.S. professor should borrow to practice with international undergraduate students in the classrooms.

Goleman (1998) introduced five main elements of emotional intelligence including self-awareness, self-regulation, internal motivation, empathy, and the social skills component.

First, U.S. professors should strive to increase international undergraduate students' self-awareness including self-confidence, emotional awareness, and realistic self-assessment (knowing one's strengths and limits) (Goleman, 1998).

Second, U.S. professors should strengthen international undergraduate students' self-regulation including internal states, impulse, and resources (Goleman, 1998). This also includes students' self-control, trustworthiness, conscientiousness, adaptability, and innovation in U.S. classrooms.

Third, U.S. professors should encourage international undergraduate students towards internal motivation including achievement drive, commitment, optimism, and initiative in their learning processes to create satisfactory learning outcomes (Goleman, 1998).

Fourth, U.S. professors should be empathetic toward international undergraduate students' learning progress and outcomes (Goleman, 1998). This included (a) understanding and taking an active interest in international undergraduate students' concerns; (b) service orientation (anticipating, recognizing, and meeting international

undergraduate students' learning needs); (c) developing students (sensing what international undergraduate students need to develop and bolstering their abilities); (d) leveraging diversity (cultivating opportunities through diverse populations); and (e) political awareness (reading a group's emotional currents, building a good relationship with international undergraduate students, and empowering them through their academic journey at U.S. colleges and/or universities) (Goleman, 1998).

Lastly, U.S. professors should increase international undergraduate students' social skills including proficiency in building networks and the ability to manage relationships with others (Goleman, 1998). Examples of social skills include (a) influence (wielding effective tactics for persuasion), (b) leadership (inspiring and guiding groups of people), (c) change catalyst (initiating or managing change), (d) communication (sending clear and convincing messages), (e) conflict management (negotiating and resolving disagreements), (f) building bonds (nurturing instrumental relationships), (g) team capabilities (creating group synergy in pursuing collective goals), and (h) collaboration and cooperation (working with others toward shared goals) (Goleman, 1998).

Congruency #3: Experience-based learning technique (learner-centered learning processes). Both U.S. professors and international undergraduate students agreed that experience-based learning technique (learner-centered learning processes) was implemented in the classrooms at a below average level, according to the analysis using andragogical principles category levels (Table 13). Failure to meet an average level of implementing a learner-centered learning approach in the classrooms, along with this congruency level in this factor, indicated that U.S. professors still implemented traditional instruction in the classrooms. This finding literally confirmed international

undergraduate students' concerns on professors using too much lecture in the classrooms, as indicated in the focus group discussion conducted with international undergraduate students regarding their issues faced in U.S. classrooms.

According to Henschke (2013), the 21st century gradually moved from the traditional teaching concept to a learner-centered model — teaching became the vehicle and road map for helping the learner internalize, develop, practice, and refine proficiency in the application and use of that knowledge. There was no denial that in U.S. higher education, professors were welcomed to implement different instruction styles; however, failure to meet the average practice of learner-centered learning processes in the classroom could lead to students' dissatisfaction in their learning experiences in U.S. classrooms. While using traditional instruction approach (lecture) to introduce new concepts to students was necessary, being able to know its limit was equally important. U.S. professors should consider applying various instruction techniques that involve students in an interactive learning experience, in addition to their lectures about specific topics.

Henschke (1989) indicated five principles of learner-centered learning processes that every professor could implement in the classroom to yield students' satisfactory learning outcomes: (a) professor used buzz groups (students are placed in groups to discuss) information from lectures, (b) professor taught through simulations of real life, (c) professor conducted group discussions, (d) professor used listening teams (students grouped together to listen for a specific purpose) during lectures, and (e) professor conducted role plays.

In addition, according to Bitner et al. (2000), the service providers could address customer satisfaction only if they knew their customers' needs. By the same token, colleges and/or universities, as well as the U.S. professors, might be able to implement effective services for international students only if they were aware of international students' issues and needs. The study on service quality in higher education reported that it was crucial that the faculty and staff, including U.S. professors, never assumed international students' learning needs without prior interaction and/or conducting a need assessment with them (Bitner et al., 2000). The research also pinpointed that what institutions found interesting and/or important might not be aligned with what international students expected for their academic success (Oldfield and Baron, 2000).

Knowles (1990) emphasized that adults learned best when they could bring their previous experiences to the new learning process, and they did expect that their experiences were honored and respected by the professor in the classroom. These principles matches with the model of experiential learning in the adult learning cycle introduced by Kolb (1984), that adults learned best by doing something (concrete experimentation), thinking about it (reflection), doing some research, talking with others and applying what they already knew to the situation (abstract conceptualization), and doing something new or doing the same thing in a more sophisticated way, based on their learning (active experimentation).

Discussion on proposed Guidelines for U.S. Teacher Leaders in Adult Classrooms to Enhance International Undergraduate Satisfaction. The proposed Guidelines for U.S. Teacher Leaders in Adult Classrooms to Enhance International Undergraduate Satisfaction was composed of three major components, including

professors' beliefs, professors' feelings, and professors' behaviors toward international undergraduate students in the classrooms. Each component consisted of its characteristics and the application of professors' behaviors that indicated the practice of each component in the classroom.

In order to evidence that the proposed guidelines described the qualities of effective teacher leaders in U.S. adult classrooms, the discussion on the proposed Guidelines for U.S. Teacher Leaders in Adult Classrooms to Enhance International Undergraduate Satisfaction was divided into six main parts: (a) alignment of professors' beliefs with qualities of effective teachers, (b) alignment of professors' beliefs with qualities of effective leaders, (c) alignment of professors' feelings with qualities of effective teachers, (d) alignment of professors' feelings with qualities of effective leaders, (e) alignment of professors' behaviors with qualities of effective teachers, and (f) alignment of professors' behaviors with qualities of effective leaders.

Alignment of professors' beliefs with qualities of effective teachers. Professors' beliefs, in this research, referred to teacher trust of learners and teachers' accommodating learner uniqueness. The proposed Guidelines for U.S. Teacher Leaders in Adult Classrooms to Enhance International Undergraduate Satisfaction suggested the following practices to be the indicators of professors' beliefs in international undergraduate students in the classrooms:

1) Professor purposefully communicates to learners that each is uniquely important;
2) Professor expresses confidence that learners will develop the skills they need;

3) Professor trusts learners to know what their own goals, dreams, and realities are like;
4) Professor prizes the learners' ability to learn what is needed;
5) Professor understands learners need to be aware of and communicate their thoughts and feelings;
6) Professor enables learners to evaluate their own progress in learning;
7) Professor hears what learners indicate their learning needs are;
8) Professor engages learners in clarifying their own aspirations;
9) Professor develops supportive relationships with his/her learners;
10) Professor experiences unconditional positive regard for his/her learners;
11) Professor respects the dignity and integrity of the learners;
12) Professor expects and accepts learners' frustration as they grapple with problems;
13) Professor really listens to what learners have to say;
14) Professor encourages learners to solicit assistance from other learners;
15) Professor individualizes the pace of learning for each learner;
16) Professor helps learners explore their own abilities; and
17) Professor asks learners how they would approach a learning task.

As a matter of fact, teacher trust of learners and the ability to recognize students' uniqueness was important in relationship building with international undergraduate students. When students felt that their learning needs and experiences were honored and concerned, they were more open to the discussion about their learning needs and goals. They, indeed, were likely to come to the professors for advice and/or solutions to

academic problems they have faced in the classroom, which impacted their learning processes and outcomes as a whole. This finding aligned with the qualities of effective teachers mentioned by Cochran (1981), that effective teachers could be measured by their efforts to address students' learning needs and increase student satisfaction in the classroom.

In addition, the finding in this research matched with Knowles (1990) concept that adults learned best when their previous learning experiences were honored and respected in their new learning environment. Henschke (1987), in his first building block of adult learning foundation (beliefs and notions about adult learners), supported Knowles' concept by stating that the learning situation must to take advantage of those resources and should at least help to (a) create positive attitudes in the learner toward the instructor, one's self as a learner, the subject and learning situation, expectancy for success; (b) relate the instruction to the learner's needs; (c) increase stimulation of the learner's attention, awakens, awareness, interest, involvement, and interaction; (d) encourage, optimize and integrate learner emotion; (e) achieve the learner's progress toward self-chosen goals; and (f) reinforce learner participation, positive changes and continuous learning (Henschke, 1987).

Additionally, Henschke (1989) described how effective teachers delivered trust to students: (a) teacher purposefully communicated to learners that each was uniquely important; (b) teacher expressed confidence that students would develop the skills they needed; (c) teacher trusted students to know what their own goals, dreams, and realities were like; (d) teacher prized the students' abilities to learn what was needed; (e) teacher felt students needed to be aware of and communicate their thoughts and feelings; (f)

teacher enabled students to evaluate their own progress in learning; (g) teacher heard what students indicated their learning needs were; (h) teacher engaged students in clarifying their own aspirations; (i) teacher developed supportive relationships with his/her students; (j) teacher experienced unconditional positive regard for his/her students; and (k) teacher respected the dignity and integrity of the students (Henschke, 1989).

Furthermore, according to Coloroso, as cited in Maschino (2013), backbone professors believed in students' uniqueness and allowed students to make their own behavior choices. Professors would provide strong support to foster students' success in academic journey. She added that professors could help improve students' self-discipline by (a) treating students with respect and dignity; (b) giving students a sense of positive power over their own lives; and (c) giving them opportunities to make decisions, take responsibilities for their actions, and learn from their successes and mistakes (as cited in Maschino, 2013).

Trust played a significant role in bringing students' learning needs and goals to be known, and it only flourished when professors and students had a good relationship with each other. When asked to evaluate the proposed guidelines, all invited experts in the in-depth interviews agreed that U.S. professors needed to build trust and ultimately establish a good relationship with international undergraduate students. For instance, one expert expressed that trust was the confidence in what professors say and do. He added that it was more of the interpretation that U.S. professors represented what they truthfully say what they do. Professors had to earn trust, and that earning came from constantly

representing what they were saying. If the students see their professors were doing the same right thing again and again, then the professors did the right thing at the end.

One expert in the in-depth interview said that, ‘Relationship must exist, and that as with any students, you have to work to find that common ground that would help to build the relationship because relationship does need to be there.’ Another expert emphasized that when he had to deal with diversity of students in the classroom, what he would try to do was to embrace the uniqueness of the individual, find out and talk to them, and build the individual relationship as much as possible. He would make sure that the students were feeling comfortable, and he would try to talk about the experiences that were related to the students’ interests.

Another expert said that higher education educators, professors, and instructors should be critical of their teaching — first they know harm, and they know that sometimes they did not teach and/or help students learn. She continued that sometimes that was because of the professor’s judgmental attitude, their beliefs about the ability to learn, ability to succeed in relation to where the students were from, the students’ cultures, and the students’ abilities to speak the language. She added that when there was learning going on, there was a loss of learning, because their negative psychology resulted from the negative experiences in the classroom; hence, it was important that U.S. professors were aware of this reality.

One more expert released a possibility that U.S. professors and/or peers could invite international students to have dinner and/or join social events at their house in order to get to know more about international students and be able to introduce some U.S. cultures to international students and vice versa. When international students’ uniqueness

was recognized, and they felt included in the events and/or conversation, they were more likely to increase their trust with U.S. professors and/or peers, and the good relationship was ultimately built. Another expert added that international students should be engaged into a conversation, discussion, and/or teamwork with U.S. students, so that both U.S. and international students could figure out the way to break the ice and build a good relationship together. As a result, international students could practice their English with peers' support, in addition to their professors.'

Alignment of professors' beliefs with qualities of effective leaders. The characteristics and application of professors' behaviors that represented professors' beliefs in international undergraduate students matched with the qualities of effective leaders through many lanes.

Buss (1985) affirmed that transformational leaders worked harder than originally expected to earn trust, admiration, loyalty, and respect from their followers. Such leaders would encourage a positive change in employees by giving an opportunity to the followers to come up with new ideas and/or unique ways to challenge the status quo and to alter the environment to support the success of organization. This was consistent with the professors' beliefs — when professors trusted and believed in international students' uniqueness, they were most likely able to make a good relationship with international undergraduate students and help those students achieving a better learning outcome (Buss, 1985).

Additionally, Hugg (2015) stated that transformational leaders were willing to take the right risk. This quality matched with what Finley (2013) mentioned about trust, that professors should make decision to trust their students, even if it means risking that

students would betray professors' faith in them. Trust happened in a reciprocal way, so in order to earn trust from students, it was important that professors made decisions to give it to students first, without hesitation (Henschke, 2013).

Maxwell (2013) summarized five levels of leadership as position (level one), relationship (level two), production (level three), people development (level four), and pinnacle (level five). Trust lies in the second level of leadership, and it will continually yield a satisfactory result if used in the next levels (Maxwell, 2013). Understanding followers' uniqueness could enable leaders to earn not just trust and respect, but the followers' willingness to work hard in order to achieve organizational goals. This quality would contribute to increasing production and people development, which were mentioned in level three and four (Maxwell, 2013). Thereafter, leaders could decide if they wanted to move up the level five (pinnacle) that they have to invest more time and efforts to build other leaders as themselves. These qualities matched with the characteristics and practices of professors' beliefs that could contribute hugely to international undergraduate students' effective learning processes and outcomes.

Furthermore, professors' beliefs aligned with one of the four competencies of leadership introduced by Bennis (1984), management of trust. He mentioned that trust was crucial to all organizations, since it was known as the best way to communicate and build a good relationship between employers and employees within the organization.

Finally, the concept of professors' beliefs was mentioned in the theory of servant leadership as well. Spears (2005) indicated that servant leaders believed that every individual had an intrinsic value beyond the tangible contributions as workers. These leaders used their power to nurture the personal, professional, and spiritual growth of

employees. They, indeed, encouraged, empowered, and supported the growth of their co-workers.

Alignment of professors' feelings with qualities of effective teachers. Professors' feelings, in this research, referred to the sensitivity and the feeling of empathy that U.S. professors had toward international undergraduate students. There were three major characteristics that indicated professors' feelings, which included (a) professor understood that international undergraduate students are having issue with language, since English is not their first and/or second language; (b) professor understood that international undergraduate students need more attention in addition to the slower instruction in the classrooms; and (c) professor made certain to understand learners' point of view and learners' progress.

The proposed Guidelines for U.S. Teacher Leaders in Adult Classrooms to Enhance International Undergraduate Satisfaction suggested the following practices to be the indicators of professors' feelings toward international undergraduate students in the classrooms:

1) Professor removes insensitivity toward international undergraduate students by paying more attention on international undergraduate students' learning needs and concerns.
2) Professor provides slower instruction to acknowledge the presence of international undergraduate students in the classrooms with the understanding that the students are struggling with the proficiency of English language.

3) Professor shows respect and understanding toward international undergraduate students' bringing different learning techniques and/or learning styles into the classrooms.
4) Since diversity of international undergraduate students in U.S. classrooms are coming from different learning background and experiences, it is vital that the professors allow them more time to get used to the new learning environment in the United States.
5) Professor encourages international undergraduate students to ask question(s) in class and be patient with their slow responses.
6) Professor expresses appreciation to learners who are actively involved in classroom discussion.
7) Professor balances his/her efforts between learner content acquisition and motivation.
8) Professor instills and supports positive energy in international undergraduate students including: positive self-expectation, positive self-motivation, positive self-image, positive self-direction, positive self-control, positive self-discipline, positive self-esteem, positive self-dimension, positive self-awareness and positive action.
9) Professor notices and acknowledges to learners' positive changes (in them).

The ability to feel sensitive toward international undergraduate students' learning processes and outcomes was a special gift only owned by effective professors. Henschke (2014) indicated that one of the basic characteristics of low-level adult learners was the sensitivity to nonverbal communication. In order to respond to this circumstance,

andragogical technique should be applied by effective teachers of adults — teachers should be alert for clues of what was said and what was not said, but felt. In addition, teachers had to be sensitive about students' learning needs and make sure that those learning needs were diagnosed through a process of mutual assessment.

Additionally, the concept of professors' feelings towards international undergraduate students matched with the second building block of adult learning foundation, qualities of effective teachers, mentioned by Henschke (1987) that effective teachers demonstrated sincere concern and interest in their students' progress and well-being. Moreover, some further qualities of effective teachers were a desire to instruct, a sense of humor, being flexible, tact, patience, using a variety of teaching techniques, sensitivity, and courtesy (Henschke, 2013).

Professors' feelings of empathy and sensitivity were also mentioned in the research conducted by Stanton (2005) on a construct validity assessment of the Instructional Perspectives Inventory. Stanton (2005) affirmed that empathetic teachers responded to their students' learning needs and paid attention to development of a warm, close, and working relationship with students. Henschke (1987) illustrated qualities of effective teacher empathy toward students as (a) teacher felt fully prepared to teach, (b) teacher noticed and acknowledged to students' positive changes, (c) teacher balanced his/her efforts between students' positive acquisitions and motivations, (d) teacher expressed appreciation to students who actively participate, and (e) teacher promoted positive self-esteem in students.

Additionally, one expert in the in-depth interview insisted professors felt empathy toward international students' issues and learning progress. Professors should not ignore

any red flags that might impact international students' learning performance and satisfaction in their learning experiences in U.S. colleges and/or universities — those red flags can appear rapidly through their misbehaviors and/or low grade in their learning outcomes.

Furthermore, another expert in the in-depth interview encouraged the professors to build a good relationship with international students and try to be more sensitive to international students' learning needs and outcomes. Reaching out to international students was not a common norm and/or an obligation of the professors, though, it was very essential for U.S. professors to understand more about their students' issues and be able to address students' learning needs in the right way, at the right time. Nonetheless, understanding the sensitive points and/or issues that international students suffered, professors could avoid any verbal and/or behavioral acts that may be perceived as discriminations toward international students. However, she added, 'The students also need to understand that not all professors are going to do that (empathy), so the prompting would be good — students should give a little bit of a clue, or the professors would think that everything was fine.'

She suggested that U.S. colleges and/or universities provide adequate training to all professors, faculty members, and staff whose work is associated with the communication with international students on campus. This way, the related persons, including faculty members and staff, would be well-informed about common challenges that international students would bring to the classrooms and/or community, due to their limited language and understanding of U.S. cultures. By the same token, understanding the nature and characteristic of international students' issues is very helpful for the

professors and/or faculty members to build a good relationship with international students and be able to effectively provide essential help, motivation, and support to address the need and satisfaction of international students on campus.

One more expert agreed that professors in higher education were not hired to be sensitive toward international students, but to fulfill their responsible tasks mentioned in the job description. Only if professors were interested in understanding diversity problems, they would do something with it. Another expert supported the idea by saying that not every U.S. professor had travelled and/or taught outside of the United States, so they might not be open enough and be able to feel the difficulties that international students faced in the classrooms. He added that teacher empathy toward students was good, but if empathy was provided unconditionally, every international student would just expect to be empathetic without being willing to adjust to the new learning environment. He suggested the development of a nuanced approach that would engage U.S. professors and other related faculty members to understand more about international undergraduate students' learning needs and styles.

On the other hand, another expert shared his opinions on teachers' feelings of international undergraduate students,

> I really want to see the faculties feel about their students and want their students to have the best. They should have the feeling to motivate them to be more effective teachers rather than to have the emotional engagement. I believe teachers can be good people, be passionate, be warm, be engaging, but in terms of how he gives the information, it should be very neutral and really bring students

to the term that they can really understand. So, there is no one right way to teach or modify feelings for international students.

Alignment of professors' feelings with qualities of effective leaders. Not surprisingly, the important hallmarks of professors' feelings — the ability to be sensitive and empathetic toward students — were found in the qualities of servant leaders mentioned by Spears (2005) that servant leaders felt empathy for others. They strive to understand that people need to be accepted ad recognized in society. They assume the good intentions of co-workers, and those who become empathetic listeners would make successful servant leaders. Servant leaders listen more, simply because they have the heart to serve the needs of others.

Additionally, the concept of sensitivity and empathy was also applied by emotional leaders. Lynch (2016a) stated that emotional leadership was concerned with the feelings and motivations of followers. It took the focus completely to the other side of the spectrum — demanding that leaders be emotionally intelligent themselves and then motivated others through the use of their own emotional intelligence. The research conducted by Mayer and Salovey (1995) on Emotional Quotient (EQ) principles confirmed that individuals who scored higher in the ability to perceive accurately, understand, and appraise others' emotions, were better able to respond to the changes in their social environment and build supportive social networks (Mayer & Salovey, 1995). Goleman (1996) emphasized that emotional intelligence was the ability to recognize, understand and manage one's own emotion and the capacity to recognize, understand and influence the emotions of others.

In addition, Goleman (1998) indicated that empathy was one of the emotional intelligence's components. It was the ability to understand the emotional makeup of other people. Empathy referred to the awareness of others' feelings, needs, and concerns. Examples of leaders with empathy toward learner were (a) leaders understood followers (sensing followers' feelings and taking an active interest in their concern), (b) leaders were service oriented, (c) leaders sensed followers' needs in order to develop and bolster followers' abilities, (d) leaders leveraged diversity by cultivating opportunity through diverse people, and (e) leaders were aware of political awareness including reading a group's emotional currents and empowering their relationship with followers (Goleman, 1998).

Furthermore, the characteristics of sensitivity and empathy aligned with the qualities of transformational leaders. Bass (1998) introduced four elements of transformational leadership, including individual consideration, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, and influence. He mentioned that a transformational leader would act as a mentor or coach to the followers, listened to the concerns and needs of the followers, and helped those followers achieving their needs effectively (Bass, 1998). Transformational leaders would give empathy and support to inspire the followers' self-development. They would encourage the followers to be more creative, so that the followers asked more questions, thought deeply about things, and discovered the better ways to deal with the responsible tasks (Bass, 1998).

Finally, the concept of sensitivity and empathy was found in the second level of leadership mentioned by Maxwell (2013), an American author, speaker, and pastor who had written many books, primarily focusing on leadership. Maxwell (2013) stated that

every leader was automatically known as level one leader when they were appointed the position; however, in order to move up to level two (permission), every leader needed to invest time and effort to build a good relationship with the followers (Maxwell, 2013). He emphasized that good relationships created energy, and they gave people's interaction a positive tone. When leaders invested time and effort to get to know their followers more, it actually paid off with greater once the relationships were built. And in that kind of positive, energetic environment, the followers were willing to give their best, because they knew the leaders wanted the best for them. He added that effective leaders in level two would use their ears to hear what the followers said, their eyes to see what the followers said, their heart to feel what the followers said, and their undivided attention to value who the followers were and what they said (Maxwell, 2013).

Alignment of professors' behaviors with qualities of effective teachers.

Professors' behaviors, in this research, referred to professors' planning and delivery of instruction, professors' using experience-based learning techniques (learner-centered learning processes), and professors' using teacher-centered learning processes in the classrooms.

The proposed Guidelines for U.S. Teacher Leaders in Adult Classrooms to Enhance International Undergraduate Satisfaction suggested the following practices to be the indicators of effective professors' behaviors toward international undergraduate students in the classrooms:

1) Professor establishes a positive learning climate, where students feel safe in the classrooms both physically and psychologically. Physical learning climate refers to the adequate teaching and learning materials in the classrooms,

comfortable temperature and the arrangement of u-shape classrooms in which professor and students could see each other during the session. Psychological learning climate, on the other hand, refers to how the U.S. professor treats international undergraduate students in the classrooms with love, care, understanding and forgiveness.

2) Professor builds a good relationship with international undergraduate students by using professors' trust and professors' feelings of empathy and sensitivity toward students' learning progress.
3) Professor makes sure that their behaviors are consistent with their beliefs and feelings toward international undergraduate students' learning processes and growth.
4) Professor treats every student in classrooms equally regardless of their age, gender, race and nationality.
5) Professor removes or reduces the insensitivity toward international undergraduate students by increasing their attention on international undergraduate learning issues and needs.
6) Professor is well-prepared for teaching and focuses on process rather than content while facilitating his/her teaching in adult classrooms.
7) Professor balances the practice of teacher-centered learning processes and learner-centered learning processes in the classrooms to facilitate international undergraduate students who are coming from diversity of learning backgrounds.

8) Professor discovers students' learning needs by building trust with international undergraduate students, so that international undergraduate students will feel free to express their concerns in the classrooms. This will result in international undergraduate students' making progress on their learning outcomes and satisfaction in academic experiences at U.S. colleges and/or universities.
9) Professor allows international undergraduate students to get involved in mutual planning and negotiating their learning goals to ensure that their learning needs are addressed effectively.
10) Professor invites all students to set up the ground rules at a very beginning of the class, so that every student is taking part in determining classroom disciplines.
11) Professor knows when and how to be strict with the determined disciplines to ensure students' satisfaction and growth in the specific and acceptable standards.
12) Professor delivers slower and clearer instruction in the classrooms, in which there is a presence of international undergraduate students.
13) Professor uses various instruction methods including lectures, buzz group, discussion, role play, demonstration, simulation, case study, story-telling, etc.
14) Professor uses a variety of instruction in media (internet, distance learning, interactive video, videos, hybrid class, etc.)

15) Professor uses listening teams (learners grouped together to listen for a specific purpose) during lectures to ensure students' interaction within lecture session.
16) Professor searches for or creates new teaching techniques.
17) Professor includes a natural (not contrived) sense of humor into his/her teaching to ensure that students are not feeling bored in the classrooms.
18) Professor encourages students' participation/involvement in the classrooms by allowing students to ask questions at any time. This is very helpful to ensure that international undergraduate students are on the same page with other learners, too.
19) Professor uses more positive words to energize, encourage, motivate, and support international undergraduate students in their study endeavors.
20) Professor encourages the practice of peer learning, so that international undergraduate students could build a good relationship with other classmates and learn from their peers.
21) Professor is accessible and flexible for meeting with each and every student, so that international undergraduate students would feel that they receive adequate help regarding their misunderstanding and/or doubt in the assigned homework, assignment and/or projects.

The findings of professors' behaviors indicated professors' flexibility in planning and delivery of instruction and the ability to implement appropriate learner-centered and teacher-centered learning processes in the right context, at the right time, in order to ensure international undergraduate students' success and satisfaction in learning

experiences at U.S. colleges and/or universities. These findings matched with the qualities of effective teachers mentioned by Knowles (1995). Knowles (1995) ascertained that effective teachers focused more on learning processes of their students than delivery of the prepared contents.

Additionally, Knowles (1995) indicated eight components of Andragogical Process Design that every effective teacher of adult used to facilitate their students' learning in the classroom (a) teacher prepared students for the program; (b) teacher set a positive learning climate; (c) teacher engaged students in mutual planning; (d) teacher concerns on students' learning needs; (e) teacher set specific learning objectives through mutual planning and negotiation with students; (f) teacher designed learning experiences using learning contract that allows students to diagnose their learning needs, specify their learning objectives, identify their learning resources and strategies, indicate a target date for completion, and illustrate how the evidence will be validated; and (g) teacher evaluated the learning process by allowing students to self-evaluate their learning progress in regards to whether their set goals are met, or whether some adjustments on their learning plan need to be made as necessary to be successful (Knowles, 1995).

In addition, the findings of professors' behaviors aligned with qualities of effective teachers indicated in Henschke's (1987) second building block of in adult learning foundations. Henschke (1987) identified five major components that made an effective adult educator.

First, the main quality of effective teachers involved interest in the students and the subject being studied. Students were quick at determining how interested teachers were in them and the subject being taught. Teachers could not have one to the exclusion

of the other. Effective teachers demonstrated sincere concern and interest in their students' progress and well-being (Henschke, 1987).

Second, effective teachers of adults had the ability to communicate well. Communication was the act of helping others learn concepts, skills and attitudes. Teachers communicated by speaking, listening, and writing. Communication included presenting material in a clear and straightforward manner using language and written materials geared to learners' comprehension levels. Since learning was an active progress, communication methods used must actively engage students (Henschke, 1987).

Third, good knowledge of the subject defined the quality of effective teachers. Successful teachers and trainers had a thorough and comprehensive knowledge of the subject they were teaching. The expectation of students was that the teacher would be able to respond to their questions and help them develop their areas of interest. However, when challenged by a question, the teacher of adults needed to be willing to admit to not knowing the answer, as well as expressing willingness to work with the students to find the answer (Henschke, 1987).

Fourth, effective teachers were well prepared to teach the lesson. Good teaching and good planning go hand in hand. Planning required an investment of time. It should be a joint venture done with students, so that their needs were addressed. The basic ingredients of planning were establishing goals, selecting techniques and materials to achieve these goals, and evaluating to see if the goals have been met (Henschke, 1987).

Fifth, enthusiasm was the major quality that made an effective teacher. Enthusiasm is catching. If one was deeply interested in a group of ideas, a set of facts, or a type of work, one was also more likely to get others interested. Enthusiasm was the

natural celebration of the joy of learning a new bit of knowledge or a new skill. Students loved enthusiastic teachers, and would, as a result, get ‘steamed up’ about learning. It afforded them the opportunity to explore new ideas and expand themselves in new directions with the support of a knowledgeable and exciting teacher (Henschke, 1987).

Furthermore, Henschke (2013) added some further qualities of an effective teacher including a desire to instruct, a sense of humor, being flexible, tact, patience, using a variety of teaching techniques, sensitivity, and courtesy. Heick (2014) described the qualities of effective teachers in association with the 10 characteristics of a highly effective learning environment (a) the students asked the questions; (b) questions were valued over answers; (c) ideas came from a divergent sources; (d) a variety of learning models were used; (e) classroom learning ‘emptied’ into a connected community; (f) learning was personalized by a variety of criteria; (g) assessment was persistent, authentic, transparent, and never punitive; (h) criteria for success was balanced and transparent; (i) learning habits were constantly modeled; and (j) there are constant opportunities for practice (Heick, 2014).

What is more, Henschke (1987), in his fourth building block of adult learning foundations, teaching tips, and learning techniques, stated that effective teachers were flexible in utilizing various instruction techniques to engage diverse groups of students in the classroom. He introduced different instruction techniques that may be flexibly used by effective teachers, such as lecture, motion picture and slides, assigned or suggested reading material, audiocassettes, demonstration, case study, group discussion, simulation, huddle groups, teaching/learning team, and buzz groups (Henschke, 1987).

Nonetheless, in his fifth building block of adult learning foundations, implementing the prepared plan, Henschke (1987) delineated that effective teachers created a climate of learning which nurtured the seeds of adult learning into a glorious flower that flourished. It was practical intelligence, practical reasoning, and practice of the art of teaching adults, which was different from talking about the rules of adult education (Henschke, 1987). He emphasized, "It is not just talking about adult education, but doing adult education and doing it well. This comes from following our inner sense, honing the skills, and practicing it until it is refined, like a costly and precious gem" (Henschke, 1987, p. 421)

Equally important, the findings of professors' behaviors matched with qualities of effective teachers mentioned by Cochran (1981). Cochran (1981) illustrated that effective teachers were those who could keep students yearning, learning, earning, and returning. In more specific terms, effective teachers played a role as a guide in the learning process and provided whatever for which the learner's yearned, such as new and advanced parts of the subject, developing a spirit of inquiry, another expert resource on the topic, reading and studying outside, and being helped to find out answers to their questions (Cochran, 1981). Teachers also produced clarity, which would help the learners learn, such as incremental parts of the subject, using time well, classroom group would help the learners earn success, confidence, praise, and interest (Cochran, 1981). Finally, teachers offered that which would cause the learners to return with enthusiasm, moving forward, sharing their learning and progress, finding sincere teacher interest, and experiencing affirmation. He indeed emphasized that the qualities of effective teachers could be measured by their

efforts to address students' learning needs and increase students' satisfaction on learning experiences in the classroom (Cochran, 1981).

Moreover, the findings of professors' behaviors also matched with the qualities of effective teachers mentioned by Davis. Davis (2012) affirmed that professor's instruction techniques and behaviors should be supportive for students' learning progress. He offered the following suggestions on using appropriate instruction techniques and behaviors to motivate adult learners more effectively (a) professor used the adult learner's experience and knowledge as a basis from which to teach; (b) professor showed adult learners how their class would help students attain learning goals; (c) professor made all course and text material practical and relevant to the adults; (d) professor showed adult learners the respect they deserved; (e) professor adjusted teaching speed to meet the needs of the older learners and/or international students in the classroom; and (f) professor motivated adult learners to learn new information using various teaching techniques, including lecture, group discussion, role play, case study, and storytelling, etc. (Davis, 2012).

Additionally, one expert in the in-depth interview supported the findings of professors' behaviors by saying that U.S. professors should put themselves in international students' shoes, so that they could understand the challenges that those students suffered. He added that instead of teaching, the professors should stop and ask themselves, 'If I was in another country, how I wanted somebody to teach me?' He suggested four major techniques that might be useful for U.S. professors to better their teaching international students in the classrooms, including being patient, having clear instruction, taking time to make the person understand what is being taught, and making the students feel very welcomed.

Another expert agreed with the findings of professors' behaviors by expressing that the learning contents had to be understood, but in order to make it possible, professors should pay attention to the learning process. He emphasized,

> The learning processes are typically more important to me because in the big picture, if we can help students to develop the learning process, then they can grow and analyze what the content is and be able to know what is in the content.

He also shared his opinion on how he evaluated his students' satisfaction on his instruction by saying,

> They do rate us. What I will look at is that the lowest number, what I can do to improve on that skill. Let's say that they are not happy we are following course syllabus, and I already changed it three or four times during the semester. So, what I might be able to do is to understand that we can change it all the time throughout the learning process, so the students won't get upset that things have to be exactly as what were put in the course syllabus. If they say I am not helpful, I will try to create assistance to be helpful. I would like diversity, and I don't think that it is fair if I was scored low. Also, I have a student in my class who said that I did not treat her fairly. She was actually wrong, but what I responded to her is that, 'I am sorry if I have treated you unfairly, and please let me know what I can do to move you forward.'

He added that he always told students a joke to make sure that they did not get bored in his class.

On the other hand, one expert said that teachers should crack a joke appropriately in the classroom. He said, 'Jokes should be told in a harmless way to everyone, or it will

cause more harm than success.' He added that not every professor had a common sense of humor, so they still could earn students' attention in classrooms through their application of any instruction techniques that work well for them.

Another expert supported the findings of professors' behaviors by stating that it was a common sense that every effective teacher should prepare for the diversity, students' needs, and whatever the audiences that they are going to work with should happen to need — whether it is in the classroom verbally or it is in online classes. She emphasized that both U.S. professors and international students might share different perceptions on things (including learning styles), so it was important that everyone was open to accept the differences. She added, 'I am a fan of whatever you learn from a person will always help you in all the areas that you are connected with.'

Additionally, in responding to the findings of professors' behaviors, one expert suggested that U.S. professors engaged their students to experience learning the way students like — that could be the telling stories, case studies, a research, and discussion. She emphasized that these were the main strategies to get people to change their behaviors and perform effectively in the classroom.

Alignment of professors' behaviors with qualities of effective leaders. The findings of professors' behaviors indicated that professors should strive to address students' learning needs and satisfaction in learning experiences at colleges and/or universities. In order to achieve this, professors need to understand and accept students' diversity and be flexible enough to adjust their prepared contents, as well as teaching processes and techniques. Professors, nonetheless, should encourage, empower, and support students through the learning process to ensure students' success in learning.

These qualities matched with the qualities of servant leader mentioned by Greenleaf (1977). Greenleaf (1977) paired the term ‘servant’ to ‘leader’ in order to prompt new insights into leadership style that included the act of guidance, empowerment, and a culture of trust.

In addition, Spears (2005) illustrated 10 characteristics of servant leaders as (a) they listened well; (b) they felt empathy for others; (c) they learned to heal themselves; (d) they had both self-awareness and general awareness; (e) they persuaded people rather than use one’s positional authority in making decisions within the organization; (f) they sought to nurture the abilities to dream big, which means they think beyond day-to-day realities; (g) they committed to serve the needs of others; (h) they committed to grow people by encourage, empower, and support; and (i) they sought to build community among those who work within a given institution (Spears, 2005).

Moreover, the findings of professors’ behaviors delineated that effective professors were well prepared and had an ability to motivate and embrace changes in students’ learning processes and outcomes. These qualities aligned with the theory of transformational leadership. Burns (1978) defined transformational leadership as a process in which the leaders and followers helped each other to achieve organizational goals with morale and motivation.

Bass (1998) ascertained that transformational leaders would encourage a positive change in the employees by giving an opportunity to the followers to come up with new ideas and/or unique ways to challenge the status quo and to alter the environment to support the success of organization. He indeed revealed four elements of transformational leadership in the full range of leadership.

The first element of transformational leadership was individual consideration (Burns, 1978). This referred to the degree in which the leader acted as a mentor or coach to the followers, listened to the concerns and needs of the followers, and helped them achieve their needs. In this, the leader gave empathy and support, so that the followers were inspired toward self-development and had intrinsic motivation for their tasks.

The second element of transformational leadership was intellectual stimulation – this referred to the degree in which the leader challenged assumptions, took risks, and solicited followers' ideas (Burns, 1978). The leader in this would encourage the followers to be more creative, so that the followers asked more questions, thought deeply about things, and discovered the better ways to deal with the responsible tasks.

The third element of a transformational leader was inspirational motivation (Burns, 1978). It referred to the degree in which the leader articulated a vision that was appealing and inspiring to the followers. The leader ensured that the vision was understandable, and he or she provided meaning for the task at hand, challenged followers with high standards, and communicated optimism about future goals.

The fourth element of a transformational leader was influence (Burns, 1978). This referred to the degree in which the leader exemplified a high, ethical behavior, instilled pride, and gained respect and trust.

Furthermore, Hugg (2015) discovered 10 characteristics of effective transformational leaders in the organization that supported the findings of professors' behaviors. Hugg (2015) believed that being an effective leader was not enough — he/she had to be an effective transformational leader who could lead the changes successfully in an organization.

The first characteristic of transformational leaders included internal motivation and self-management (Hugg, 2015). Transformational leaders managed a company's direction using motivation from within. The best, natural form of motivation derived from the love of what one does and the recognition that one's values mattered and were aligned with the organization they worked for.

Second, transformational leaders had an ability to make difficult decisions effectively (Hugg, 2015). They were not indecisive when it came to the decision-making process, and they believed that difficult decisions were made easier when decisions aligned with clearly defined vision, values, goals, and objectives.

Third, transformational leaders usually checked their ego (Hugg, 2015). They did not let their ego get set in the way of doing what was best for business. Also, they ensured they put the company first over personal gain, and they encouraged the best input from others within the organization.

Fourth, transformational leaders were willing to take the right risks (Hugg, 2015). They gathered essential information and intelligence from their team before making any decision that involved taking risks.

Fifth, transformational leaders shared the collective conscious of their organization (Hugg, 2015). They knew what actions needed to be taken in order to evoke change, spur innovation, and make decisions that all fabricated growth.

Sixth, transformational leaders felt positive when it came to the adaptability in a constantly changing business environment (Hugg, 2015). They were lifelong learners who were willing to change themselves to ensure they were not passed by their competitors.

Seventh, transformational leaders were willing to listen and entertain new ideas (Hugg, 2015). They valued the ideas from team effort, and they created intentional ways to listen carefully, so that they could incorporate the insights from their teams.

Eighth, transformational leaders understood that every individual wanted to be inspired, and they knew they had the capacity to make those around rise to the occasion (Hugg, 2015). They would deliver motivational speeches or simply recognize the employees' outcome to inspire the successful team work within the organization.

Ninth, transformational leaders were proactive decision makers. They dared to take calculated risk, try new things, and take an innovative approach to grow their organization (Hugg, 2015). However, they were mindful of the consequences resulting from their decision makings — they generally conducted research to gain multiple insights before making any decisions that impacted the future of their employees and organizations.

Tenth, transformational leaders were visionaries (Hugg, 2015). They set a realistic and concise company mission, vision, and values and made sure those goals were aligned with the culture of the organization. Transformational leaders had the ability to also engage people into the process of organizational development and clearly communicate organizational needs for sustainable development with all the employees through effective communication.

Additionally, the findings of professors' behaviors matched with Maxwell's five levels of leadership. Maxwell (2013) indicated that every leader fell into one of these five levels of leadership: position, permission, production, people development, and pinnacle.

First, after being appointed as a leader, every leader was automatically known as a level one leader (Maxwell, 2013). Whether they would like to move up to the next level and become a more effective leader, they needed to work hard to climb the ladder of leadership. Likewise, a person was known as a teacher/professor when he/she was appointed the position to teach, but whether he/she could guide students' success depended on their investment of time and efforts.

Second, level two leaders were those who got a permission to lead, which meant they needed to establish a good relationship with their followers to receive this privilege, and their followers would be with them with respect rather than fear (Maxwell, 2013). In the same way, professors needed to build a good relationship with students as well, so they could get students' attention and be able to engage students to the learning process with satisfaction, rather than fear.

Third, level three leaders were those who can yield effective production for the organization (Maxwell, 2013). Likewise, professors should be able to cultivate students' success in learning by helping students address their learning needs and satisfaction in the learning process.

Fourth, level four leaders were those who could embrace changes and encourage the development of their followers — spiritually and professionally. Likewise, professors needed to encourage, empower, and support their students through the learning process to ensure students' growth academically and spiritually.

Fifth, level five leaders were those who could produce another leader like themselves (Maxwell, 2013). This was the highest level of leadership, and not every leader was willing to invest additional time and efforts to reach this level. Likewise,

professors could also reproduce another professor, such as themselves, if the students were aiming to be professors and willing to learn from their current professors. On the other hand, professors needed to exemplify diversity of their instruction styles and be able to be consistent with their values and teaching philosophies, including being patient, empathetic, understanding, and supportive to students. In order to achieve this, professors would have to invest more time and efforts in their professions, as well.

Equally important, the findings of professors' behaviors indicated that professors needed to communicate well with students and be able to apply flexible instruction techniques to address students' learning needs and satisfaction. These findings matched with the qualities of effective leaders mentioned in the competencies of effective leadership by Bennis (1984). Bennis (1984) explained that effective leaders were people who did the right things. He indicated four competencies of leadership, such as management of attention, management of meaning, management of trust, and management of self.

First of all, management of attention referred to the leaders who had an ability to communicate an extraordinary focus of commitment, so that they could attract people to join in and enroll in their vision (Bennis, 1984).

Second of all, management of meaning referred to the leaders who knew how to make dreams apparent to others (Bennis, 1984). These leaders communicated their vision to align people with them.

Third of all, management of trust meant that the leaders knew how to build a good relationship with their followers (Bennis, 1984). These leaders constantly focused on

promoting high-trust organizations, and they were willing to give away their trust to the employees in the first place.

Finally, management of self-referred to the leaders who knew their skills and were able to develop them effectively in order to cultivate success in the team, as well as the organization as a whole (Bennis, 1984).

Experts' opinions on the effectiveness and implementation process of the proposed Guidelines for U.S. Teacher Leaders in Adult Classrooms to Enhance International Undergraduate Satisfaction. In this study, the researcher invited two professors from the andragogy major, two professors from the Educational Leadership Department, one professor of international undergraduate students, the Director of the Office of International Students and Scholars, and the Vice President for Student Development and Global Affairs at Lindenwood University, Saint Charles, to participate in the in-depth interviews. In the in-depth interviews, the selected experts were asked to evaluate and provide some suggestions in order to promote the cutting edge and reliability of the proposed Guidelines for U.S. Teacher Leaders in Adult Classrooms to Enhance International Undergraduate Satisfaction.

Experts' discussion on the effectiveness of the* proposed *Guidelines for U.S. Teacher Leaders in Adult Classrooms to Enhance International Undergraduate Satisfaction. After scrutinizing the data analysis and details written in the proposed guidelines, all the selected experts in the in-depth interviews agreed that the proposed guidelines were meaningful and they would be helpful for all the faculty members, including U.S. professors and staff whose work was dealing with international students on campus.

When asked to evaluate the effectiveness of the proposed guidelines, one expert responded, ‘You know, I have seen that you have given very good things in that, and I assume that it come from your chair and you work together. I am very comfortable with it when I went through it. I think it was set up very well as you move forward in your study.’

Another expert agreed by saying, ‘I think your guidelines are strong. I feel very good about the conversation about your guidelines. I think you have some very good things going on here, and I am sure that your dissertation will be very helpful. You will want to publish it, so that you can present your words out.’

In addition, one more expert stated, ‘I think you covered a lot of it. You covered it pretty good. It is very good. I wish I could see all the teachers in the U.S. practicing like that and following this guideline regarding teachers’ beliefs, feelings, and behaviors. It seems like these are too excessive work for those teachers to do, though.’

Another professor said that in order to ensure the effectiveness of the guidelines, when put into the implementation, professors should not fully implement the guidelines, but be selective for only those techniques that were adjustable to their teaching styles and preferences. He said,

> Instead of implementing it the way it was supposed to, they should implement it according to their own design, and therefore, it will be effective because it is not a full application. It is just the partial application of it, so I recommend them implement some things in the guidelines and do not rush because if you rush, you will fault things, and your design might get manipulated.

Experts' discussion on implementation process of the proposed Guidelines for U.S. Teacher Leaders in Adult Classrooms to Enhance International Undergraduate Satisfaction. When asked to discuss about the possibility and implementation of the proposed guidelines — whether they were ready to be used in the U.S. classrooms, all the selected experts in the in-depth interviews indicated their endorsement on that. One expert indeed insisted that the proposed guidelines should be implemented and/or tested in the classroom, or it would be lifeless.

Regarding the implementation process, all the selected experts in the in-depth interviews suggested that the proposed guidelines should be implemented in the top-down approach in order receive the full benefits.

In more specific terms, one expert said, 'These people in the leadership have to make the assumption that you already engaged them into a transformational learning experience. The guidelines should be approved by the president and the board to be implemented in the program.' Another expert supported by saying,

> The president, I think, is the priority. Then, they tell to the provost that everybody has to do those things. The faculty members still have to choose if they want to implement it. I have to emphasize that some degree areas, the pedagogy teaching idea trains them not to do anything rather than they are supposed to teach. But, in andragogy, everyone is interested to do it, so it will be genuine. But, you may not get many participants, if they are not told by their boss to do it. That is why I think that the more administrators are involved in—the dean, the provost, and the vice president, then that would put it to practice on the right value of its spectrum.

Another expert shared the same perspective by saying,

> Well, it will probably be the provost and academic services. It is underneath the students' services, the provost, right? I think so. I think you should approach from that perspective because you want to improve the experience of international students. Then, you need to approach the international office, for the international office's mission is to improve and make-it-happen kind of thing. But, academic services would have involved in getting you in the door, where you will be asked to consider this for the whole university because you cannot just have the professors of international students involve in that. It has to be the university wide, and that has to go through the academic services. The provost has to take it to the president and the board.

Equally important, one more expert added that the proposed guidelines would be effective only if they were implemented by both professors and international undergraduate students in the classroom. She said, 'It is both the professors and students. We are not just considering just one side of thing.'

Implications of the Study

The continuous flow of international students into the United States has generated a picture of student diversity in U.S. colleges and/or universities. The international students, in addition, brought to the United States a kind of global education, which was crucial in building relationships between people and communities in the United States and around the world. According to Open Doors (2014), Ryan, Assistant Secretary of State for Education and Cultural Affairs, stated that it was through relationships that together the global issues, such as climate change, the spread of pandemic disease, and combating violent extremism are collaboratively resolved.

Notwithstanding, international students bring diverse cultures, languages, and educational experiences, which were beneficial for creative teaching, and the learning of both U.S. professors and students. Most significantly, Bista and Foster (2011) recommended that every higher education institution in the United States should maintain the international students' flow and retention, for those students helped generate lucrative revenue in U.S. colleges and/or universities and U.S. economy as a whole.

This study included not only the factors that influenced international student decisions regarding academic enrollment in the United States, but also proposed guidelines for improving teacher leadership in adult classrooms, so that U.S. professors are aware of the way they treat international undergraduates as adults rather, than children with special needs.

If the implementation of this study were considered by the president of various colleges and/or universities, the proposed guidelines could be used as a handbook for U.S. professors, both experienced and novice, to enhance their understanding of international undergraduate issues in the classrooms and to better help address international undergraduate student needs. Moreover, the criteria of professor beliefs, feelings, and behaviors could help improve U.S. professor sensitivity to international students' learning progress and be able to foster a better relationship with their students.

Although U.S. professors in higher education had various instruction styles and preferences, it was important that they did not hesitate to try some new techniques that may be helpful for increasing international students' learning success and satisfaction. The partial and/or full application of the proposed guidelines might be helpful for both

novice and experienced professors to enhance their students' learning success and satisfaction at U.S. colleges and/or universities.

Recommendation for Future Research

This research combined andragogical and leadership theories in order to suggest the proposed guidelines for teacher leaders in U.S. classrooms that might be helpful to increase international undergraduate students' learning success and satisfaction; however, the guidelines have not been tested by the U.S. professors and international undergraduate students. So, future research could implement the proposed Guidelines for U.S. Teacher Leaders in Adult Classrooms to Enhance International Undergraduate Satisfaction and delineate the results — whether the suggested theories and techniques in the proposed guidelines could increase international students' learning outcomes and their satisfaction in learning experiences, or not. The future research may be able to test and/or discuss why the proposed guidelines are helpful and why they are not, so that U.S. professors could receive another source of information to consider before applying the proposed guidelines with their international students.

Notwithstanding, since the study of the proposed Guidelines for U.S. Teacher Leaders in Adult Classrooms to Enhance International Undergraduate Satisfaction just included the international undergraduate students at Lindenwood University, Saint Charles, the future research could consider studying international undergraduate students' issues and experiences at various U.S. colleges and/or universities in the Mid-West. The findings of the future research, as a result, would possibly be able to suggest the practices of U.S. professors' teaching and leadership at Mid-West colleges and/or universities, which would be more specific.

Finally, in order to extend the research of international students' issues and their satisfaction of teacher leadership in the classroom, the future research should be conducted with U.S. professors and international students across the states and/or regions. The future research should make a comparison of those international students' issues and experiences in U.S. classrooms across the states/regions, so that the findings might cover a broader spectrum of teacher leadership practices in different regions in the United States.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the qualities of effective teachers as leaders are made of the combination of qualities of effective teachers and qualities of effective leaders. In order to address international undergraduates' satisfaction in learning experiences at U.S. colleges and/or universities, it is important that the proposed guidelines are taken into consideration, even though implementing the entire proposed guidelines could be considered manipulated practice. Future research should focus on the implementation of the guidelines for USA teacher leaders in adult classrooms in order to verify the research results and/or suggest a better solution of how U.S. professors could deal with international undergraduate students' learning needs and satisfaction. Also, future research should make a comparison of those international students' issues and experiences in U.S. classrooms across the states/regions, so that the findings might cover a broader spectrum of teacher leadership practices in different regions in the United States.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Guidelines for Focus Group Discussion

Purposes and Instruction

Focus group discussion under the topic of guidelines for U.S. teacher leaders in adult classrooms to enhance international undergraduate satisfaction is initiated with the aim to explore the issues that international undergraduate students face during academic experiences at colleges and universities in the United States.

Following are the questions used in the focus group discussion with 14 international undergraduate students from Aruba, Venezuela, Mongolia, Taiwan, Ecuador, Tunisia, Vietnam, China, Panama, and Thailand:

Question 1: Please introduce yourself with the name and citizenship that you are coming from, plus educational background.

Question 2: Why did you choose LU?

Question 3: Can you describe your background prepare you to be ready to start class in the United States?

Question 4: How long have you come here in the United States?

Question 5: If you look at my literature review, international students are facing issues with adjusting to the different academic demands from the professors, and expectation that may causes some issues like language, financial support issues, discrimination, isolation, etc.

How do you think about the issue of language barriers? Isolation? Discrimination from U.S. people or anyone here? Family and/or social support?

Question 6: Do those experiences impact to your academic learning here?

Question 7: How do you think about diversity issues in the classroom here?

Question 8: How do you think about teacher leadership in classroom?

Question 9: Do you think that those experiences are helpful for your academic learning in classroom here?

Question 10: Anyone would like to share any positive or negative experiences that you got from the classroom?

Question 11: What do you expect to be happened in U.S. classroom?

Question 12: What are the similarities and differences do you find from the classroom here and your back home country?

Question 13: How is your relationship with your professor in classroom?

Question 14: What are the positive and negative practices from U.S. professors that are very helpful to develop your academic learning?

Question 15: If you have the problem accomplish your homework and assignment, what will your professors do to help you?

Appendix B: Modified Instructional Perspectives Inventory (professor version)

John A. Henschke (1989)

Listed below are 45 statements reflecting beliefs, feelings, and behaviors beginning or seasoned professors of international students as learners may or may not possess at a given moment. Please indicate how frequently each statement typically applies to you as you work with your international students as learners. Circle the letter that best describes you.

How frequently do you;	Almost Never	Not Often	Sometimes	Usually	Almost Always
1. Use a variety of teaching techniques?	A	B	C	D	E
2. Use buzz groups (learners placed in groups to discuss)	A	B	C	D	E
3. Believe that your primary goal is to provide learners as much information as possible?	A	B	C	D	E
4. Feel fully prepared to teach?	A	B	C	D	E
5. Have difficulty understanding learner point-of-view?	A	B	C	D	E
6. Expect and accept learner frustration as they grapple with problems?	A	B	C	D	E
7. Purposefully communicate to learners that each is uniquely important?	A	B	C	D	E
8. Express confidence that learners will develop the skills they need?	A	B	C	D	E
9. Search for or create new teaching?	A	B	C	D	E
10. Teach through simulations of real-life?	A	B	C	D	E
11. Teach exactly what and how you have planned?	A	B	C	D	E

How frequently do you:		Almost Never	Not Often	Sometimes	Usually	Almost Always
12.	Notice and acknowledge to learners positive changes in them?	A	B	C	D	E
13.	Have difficulty getting your point across to learners?	A	B	C	D	E
14.	Believe that learners vary in the way they acquire, process, and apply subject matter knowledge?	A	B	C	D	E
15.	Really listen to what learners have to say?	A	B	C	D	E
16.	Trust learners to know what their own goals, dreams, and realities are like?	A	B	C	D	E
17.	Encourage learners to solicit assistance from other learners?	A	B	C	D	E
18.	Feel impatient with learner's progress?	A	B	C	D	E
19.	Balance your efforts between learner content acquisition and motivation?	A	B	C	D	E
20.	Try to make your presentations clear enough to forestall all learner questions?	A	B	C	D	E
21.	Conduct group discussions?	A	B	C	D	E
22.	Establish instructional objectives?	A	B	C	D	E
23.	Use a variety of instructional media? (internet, distance, interactive vidéo, videos, etc.)	A	B	C	D	E
24.	Use listening Learns (learners grouped together to listen for a specific purpose) during lectures?	A	B	C	D	E
25.	Believe that your teaching skills are as refined as they can be?	A	B	C	D	E
26.	Express appreciation to learners who actively participate?	A	B	C	D	E
27.	Experience frustration with learner apathy?	A	B	C	D	E
28.	Prize the learner's ability to learn what is needed?	A	B	C	D	E
29.	Feel learners need to be aware of and communicate their thoughts and feelings?	A	B	C	D	E
30.	Enable learners to evaluate their own progress in learning?	A	B	C	D	E

	Almost Never	Not Often	Sometimes	Usually	Almost Always
How frequently do you:					
31. Hear what learners indicate their learning needs are?	A	B	C	D	E
32. Have difficulty with the amount of time learners need to grasp various concepts?	A	B	C	D	E
33. Promote positive self-esteem in the learners?	A	B	C	D	E
34. Require learners to follow the precise learning experiences you provide them?	A	B	C	D	E
35. Conduct role plays?	A	B	C	D	E
36. Get bored with the many questions learners ask?	A	B	C	D	E
37. Individualize the pace of learning for each learner?	A	B	C	D	E
38. Help learners explore their own abilities?	A	B	C	D	E
39. Engage learners in clarifying their own aspirations?	A	B	C	D	E
40. Ask the learners how they would approach a learning task?	A	B	C	D	E
41. Feel irritation at learner inattentiveness in the learning setting?	A	B	C	D	E
42. Integrate teaching techniques with subject matter content?	A	B	C	D	E
43. Develop supportive relationships with your learners?	A	B	C	D	E
44. Experience unconditional positive regard for your learners?	A	B	C	D	E
45. Respect the dignity and integrity of the learners?	A	B	C	D	E

INSTRUCTOR'S PERSPECTIVE INVENTORY
FACTORS

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
4 ____	7 ____	1 ____	6 ____	5 ____	2 ____	3 ____
12 ____	8 ____	9 ____	14 ____	13 ____	10 ____	11 ____
19 ____	16 ____	22 ____	15 ____	18 ____	21 ____	20 ____
26 ____	28 ____	23 ____	17 ____	27 ____	24 ____	25 ____
33 ____	29 ____	42 ____	37 ____	32 ____	35 ____	34 ____
	30 ____		38 ____	36 ____		
	31 ____		40 ____	41 ____		
	39 ____					
	43 ____					
	44 ____					
	45 ____					
TOTAL	TOTAL	TOTAL	TOTAL	TOTAL	TOTAL	TOTAL

Scoring process
A = 1, B = 2, C = 3, D = 4, and E = 5
Reversed scored items are 3, 5, 11, 13, 18, 20, 25, 27, 32, 34, 36, and 41. These reversed items are scored as follows: A = 5, B = 4, C = 3, D= 2, and E = 1.

FACTORS	TOTAL	POSSIBLE MINIMUM	POSSIBLE MAXIMUM
1. Teacher empathy with learners.	____	5	25
2. Teacher trust of learners.	____	11	55
3. Planning and delivery of instruction.	____	5	25
4. Accommodating learner uniqueness.	____	7	35
5. Teacher insensitivity toward learners.	____	7	35
6. Experience based learning techniques (Learner-centered learning process).	____	5	25
7. Teacher-centered learning process.	____	5	25
Grand Total	____		

Appendix C: Modified Instructional Perspectives Inventory (International undergraduate student learner version)

John A. Henschke (1989)

Listed below are 45 statements reflecting how international student learners perceive beliefs, feelings, and behaviors from U.S. professors. Please indicate how frequently each statement typically applies to you (as an international student learner) in your studying with U.S. professors in the United States. Circle the letter that best describes your perceptions of U.S. professors.

How frequently do your professors;	Almost Never	Not Often	Sometimes	Usually	Almost Always
1. Use a variety of teaching techniques?	A	B	C	D	E
2. Use buzz groups (learners placed in groups to discuss)	A	B	C	D	E
3. Believe that their primary goal is to provide learners as much information as possible?	A	B	C	D	E
4. Feel fully prepared to teach?	A	B	C	D	E
5. Have difficulty understanding learner point-of-view?	A	B	C	D	E
6. Expect and accept learner frustration as they grapple with problems?	A	B	C	D	E
7. Purposefully communicate to learners that each is uniquely important?	A	B	C	D	E
8. Express confidence that learners will develop the skills they need?	A	B	C	D	E
9. Search for or create new teaching?	A	B	C	D	E
10. Teach through simulations of real-life?	A	B	C	D	E
11. Teach exactly what and how they have planned?	A	B	C	D	E
12. Notice and acknowledge to learners positive changes in them?	A	B	C	D	E

How frequently do your professors;	Almost Never	Not Often	Sometimes	Usually	Almost Always
13. Have difficulty getting their point across to learners?	A	B	C	D	E
14. Believe that learners vary in the way they acquire, process, and apply subject matter knowledge?	A	B	C	D	E
15. Really listen to what learners have to say?	A	B	C	D	E
16. Trust learners to know what their own goals, dreams, and realities are like?	A	B	C	D	E
17. Encourage learners to solicit assistance from other learners?	A	B	C	D	E
18. Feel impatient with learner's progress?	A	B	C	D	E
19. Balance their efforts between learner content acquisition and motivation?	A	B	C	D	E
20. Try to make their presentations clear enough to forestall all learner questions?	A	B	C	D	E
21. Conduct group discussions?	A	B	C	D	E
22. Establish instructional objectives?	A	B	C	D	E
23. Use a variety of instructional media? (internet, distance, interactive vidéo, videos, etc.)	A	B	C	D	E
24. Use listening Learns (learners grouped together to listen for a specific purpose) during lectures?	A	B	C	D	E
25. Believe that their teaching skills are as refined as they can be?	A	B	C	D	E
26. Express appreciation to learners who actively participate?	A	B	C	D	E
27. Experience frustration with learner apathy?	A	B	C	D	E
28. Prize the learner's ability to learn what is needed?	A	B	C	D	E
29. Feel learners need to be aware of and communicate their thoughts and feelings?	A	B	C	D	E
30. Enable learners to evaluate their own progress in learning?	A	B	C	D	E

How frequently do your professors:

	Almost Never	Not Often	Sometimes	Usually	Almost Always
31. Hear what learners indicate their learning needs are?	A	B	C	D	E
32. Have difficulty with the amount of time learners need to grasp various concepts?	A	B	C	D	E
33. Promote positive self-esteem in the learners?	A	B	C	D	E
34. Require learners to follow the precise learning experiences you provide them?	A	B	C	D	E
35. Conduct role plays?	A	B	C	D	E
36. Get bored with the many questions learners ask?	A	B	C	D	E
37. Individualize the pace of learning for each learner?	A	B	C	D	E
38. Help learners explore their own abilities?	A	B	C	D	E
39. Engage learners in clarifying their own aspirations?	A	B	C	D	E
40. Ask the learners how they would approach a learning task?	A	B	C	D	E
41. Feel irritation at learner inattentiveness in the learning setting?	A	B	C	D	E
42. Integrate teaching techniques with subject matter content?	A	B	C	D	E
43. Develop supportive relationships with their learners?	A	B	C	D	E
44. Experience unconditional positive regard for their learners?	A	B	C	D	E
45. Respect the dignity and integrity of the learners?	A	B	C	D	E

INSTRUCTOR'S PERSPECTIVE INVENTORY
FACTORS

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
4 ____	7 ____	1 ____	6 ____	5 ____	2 ____	3 ____
12 ____	8 ____	9 ____	14 ____	13 ____	10 ____	11 ____
19 ____	16 ____	22 ____	15 ____	18 ____	21 ____	20 ____
26 ____	28 ____	23 ____	17 ____	27 ____	24 ____	25 ____
33 ____	29 ____	42 ____	37 ____	32 ____	35 ____	34 ____
	30 ____		38 ____	36 ____		
	31 ____		40 ____	41 ____		
	39 ____					
	43 ____					
	44 ____					
	45 ____					
TOTAL	TOTAL	TOTAL	TOTAL	TOTAL	TOTAL	TOTAL

Scoring process
A = 1, B = 2, C = 3, D = 4, and E = 5
Reversed scored items are 3, 5, 11, 13, 18, 20, 25, 27, 32, 34, 36, and 41. These reversed items are scored as follows: A = 5, B = 4, C = 3, D= 2, and E = 1.

FACTORS	TOTAL	POSSIBLE MINIMUM	POSSIBLE MAXIMUM
1. Teacher empathy with learners.	____	5	25
2. Teacher trust of learners.	____	11	55
3. Planning and delivery of instruction.	____	5	25
4. Accommodating learner uniqueness.	____	7	35
5. Teacher insensitivity toward learners.	____	7	35
6. Experience based learning techniques (Learner-centered learning process).	____	5	25
7. Teacher-centered learning process.	____	5	25
Grand Total	____		

Appendix D: Guidelines for In-Depth Interview

Purposes and Instruction

The purposes of designing guidelines for in-depth interview are (a) to present the research findings on: "Guidelines for U.S. Teacher Leaders in Adult Classrooms to Enhance International Undergraduate Satisfaction" to the invited experts from Andragogy Department, Educational Leadership Department, and Higher Education Department; and (b) to request opinions and suggestions from invited experts on research findings to help improve the better quality of the proposed guidelines.

In-depth interview will last up to an hour for each expert. Researcher will provide a draft of proposed guidelines to selected experts one week prior to the meeting. The proposed guidelines will consist of (a) application of beliefs in international students as adult learners using adult learning theories, (b) enhancing the feeling of empathy and sensitivity toward the international students in terms of their learning issues progress, and (c) application of the effective behaviors of teacher as leaders in order to help facilitate the best learning achievement for international students in their undergraduate level in colleges and universities in the United States.

In-Depth Interview Questions

Following are the questions that researcher prepared for in-depth interview session:

Question 1: What are your thoughts on research findings regarding the issues that international undergraduate students face during academic experiences at colleges and universities in the United States?

Question 2: Please describe your perceptions regarding the relationship found between international undergraduate students and their professors in U.S. classroom.

Question 3: How do you think the real practices of guidelines for U.S. teacher leaders in adult classrooms to enhance international undergraduate satisfaction would be?

Question 4: Who do you think are the responsible people for implementation of guidelines for U.S. teacher leaders in adult classrooms to enhance international undergraduate satisfaction?

Question 5: Do you find any issues (problems and obstacles) that the researcher needs to be aware of when issuing proposed guidelines for U.S. teacher leaders in adult classrooms to enhance international undergraduate satisfaction?

Question 6: Please provide your opinions regarding responsibilities of professors and school principals to enhance teacher leadership in U.S. classrooms to achieve international undergraduate satisfaction advancement.

Question 7: What are your opinions on the current practices of teacher leadership in U.S. classrooms to serve international undergraduate satisfaction?

Question 8: Please share your opinions on implementation procedures of the proposed guidelines for U.S. teacher leaders in adult classrooms to enhance international undergraduate satisfaction.

Question 9: Please share your opinions regarding the essential strategies that need to be used for the improvement of professors' beliefs, professors' feelings, and professors' behaviors towards international undergraduate students in order

to enhance international undergraduate students' satisfaction in U.S. classrooms.

Question 10: Is there anything that you have not seen in these questions, and you would like to make comment and/or suggestion in order to improve the quality and trustworthiness of this study?

Appendix E: Invitation Letter for Focus Group Discussion

Dear international undergraduate students,

I am a doctoral student in Educational Leadership program at Lindenwood University. Currently, I am writing a dissertation research on: "Guidelines for U.S. Teacher Leaders in Adult Classrooms to Enhance International Undergraduate Satisfaction."

With the aim of exploring the issues that international undergraduate students face during academic experiences at colleges and universities in the United States, I would like to invite you to take part in a focus group discussion on (date is to be determined) in campus about the issues that international undergraduate students face during academic experiences at colleges and universities in the United States. The focus group should last no longer than two hours.

The focus group will provide an opportunity for you to find out about the possible issues that already happened to international students in the U.S. classroom via discussion engaged. In particular, the researcher would like to know about your academic experiences as an international undergraduate student, your understanding on teacher leadership in classroom, your experiences in the U.S. classroom, and your suggestion for effective teacher leaders in adult classrooms to help facilitate international undergraduate satisfaction in academic learning in the United States. More background information will be sent to those confirming attendance before the focus group.

Your views will be used to help the researcher in gathering accurate information to put in dissertation writing. Nonetheless, your contribution will enable the researcher to propose appropriate guidelines for U.S. teacher leaders in adult classrooms to help

facilitate and enhance international undergraduate student satisfaction in their academic achievement in the United States.

If you would like to take part in this focus group discussion, and your age is 18 and over, please contact me via this email (somanitak@gmail.com) or sk839@lionmail.lindenwood.edu. I can also be reached at 636-288-4389. Thank you so much in advance for your willing to partake in this important research.

Yours faithfully,

Somanita Kheang

Appendix F: Invitation Letter for Google Forms Survey (professors' version)

Dear Professors of International Students,

My name is Somanita Kheang. I am a doctoral student in the Educational Leadership doctoral (EdD) program at Lindenwood University. Currently, I received the International Review Board [IRB] approval from Lindenwood University to conduct a dissertation research on: "Guidelines for U.S. Teacher Leaders in Adult Classrooms to Enhance International Undergraduate Satisfaction."

With the purpose of enhancing comprehensive knowledge of the relationship between teachers and international students, I am inviting you to participate in completing the Modified Instructional Perspective Inventory (MIPI), which is designed through Google Forms.

Please notice that in the first section of the survey, you will see the consent form that you are being asked to sign (you can just fill out your name and date) to ensure you understand the condition of participation and how the researcher will use your information in her study. Please click 'Next' to go to the second section of the MIPI. The MIPI will ask you to choose only ONE answer in each question to indicate your beliefs, feelings, and behaviors concerning international students in your classrooms at Lindenwood University.

The survey will take fewer than 20 minutes to complete, and it is completely anonymous. This survey is available for completion online or via your mobile device.

To participate in the survey, please follow the steps indicated below:

Step 1: Please do Ctrl and click on, or copy and paste this link to your browser, the following link:

https://docs.google.com/forms/d/1aX6Ia5SawBJrggKwq8iBY1SHHatXDcPeluBsIOKCxvE/viewform

Step 2: Please sign (fill out your name and the date that you complete the survey) on the consent form.

Step 3: When you finished signing on the consent form, please click 'Next' to go to the MIPI, and the instructions to complete the survey will be provided to you.

Step 4: Please choose only ONE answer for each question.

Step 5: Click 'Submit' when you finish answering all the questions.

If you have any questions, I would be happy to elaborate or clarify. I can be reached on my cell phone at 636-288-4389, or you could contact me via somanitak@gmai.com OR sk839@lionmail.lindenwood.edu.

Thank you in advance for your time to help with this important survey. Your time and participation are truly the thoughtful investment for international students' learning success.

Yours faithfully,

Somanita Kheang

Appendix G: Invitation Letter for Google Forms Survey (students' version)

Dear International Students,

My name is Somanita Kheang. I am a doctoral student in the Educational Leadership doctoral (EdD) program at Lindenwood University. Currently, I received the International Review Board [IRB] approval from Lindenwood University to conduct a dissertation research on: "Guidelines for U.S. Teacher Leaders in Adult Classrooms to Enhance International Undergraduate Satisfaction."

With the purpose of enhancing comprehensive knowledge of the relationship between teachers and international students, I am inviting you to participate in completing the Modified Instructional Perspective Inventory — Student [MIPI-S], which is designed through Google Forms.

Please notice that the first section of the survey is the consent form – you will be asked to sign (you can just fill out your name and date) consent form to ensure that you understand the condition of participation and how the researcher will use your information in her study. The second section is MIPI-S—in this section, the researcher will ask you to choose only ONE answer for each question to indicate your perception concerning your teachers' beliefs, teachers' feelings, and teachers' behaviors about international students in the classrooms at Lindenwood University.

The survey will take fewer than 20 minutes to complete, and it is completely anonymous. This survey is available for completion online or via your mobile device.

To participate in the survey, please follow the steps indicated below:

Step 1: Please do Ctrl and click on or copy and paste this link to your browser, the following link:

https://docs.google.com/forms/d/141Vuo6mm0KrAuP5MLWkNA8kXNBz_-Csh-mEd9yX6yZA/viewform

Step 2: Please sign (fill out your name and the date that you complete the survey) on the consent form.

Step 3: When you finished signing on the consent form, please click 'Next' to go to the MIPI-S, and the instructions to complete the survey will be provided to you.

Step 4: Please fill out your age and country of birth as indicated under the MIPI-S instructions. Then, choose only ONE answer for each question.

Step 5: Click 'Submit' when you finish answering all the questions.

If you have any questions, I would be happy to elaborate or clarify. I can be reached on my cell phone at 636-288-4389, or you could contact me via somanitak@gmai.com OR sk839@lionmail.lindenwood.edu.

Thank you in advance for your time to help with this important survey. Your time and participation are truly the thoughtful investment for international students' learning success.

Yours faithfully,

Somanita Kheang

Appendix H: Professors' Perceptions of the Use of Seven Factors in MIPI with International Undergraduate Students

Table H1

Professors' Perceptions of the Use of Seven Factors in MIPI with International Undergraduate Students

Teacher	Total score on professors' perceptions of seven factors in MIPI	Possible maximum scores
1	175	225
2	153	225
3	159	225
4	172	225
5	175	225
Grand Total	834 (74.13%)	1125
Average Score	166.8	

Appendix I: International Undergraduate Students' Perceptions of Professors' Practices of Seven Factors in MIPI

Table I1

International Undergraduate Students' Perceptions of Professors' Practices of Seven Factors in MIPI

International undergraduate student	Total score on teachers' perceptions of seven factors in MIPI	Possible maximum scores
1	129	225
2	142	225
3	154	225
4	126	225
5	140	225
6	141	225
7	165	225
8	164	225
9	158	225
10	139	225
11	164	225
12	135	225
13	151	225
14	98	225
15	142	225
16	148	225
17	167	225
18	175	225
19	138	225
20	137	225
21	128	225
22	142	225
23	140	225
24	138	225
25	129	225
26	104	225
27	145	225
28	142	225

(Continued)

Table I1. Continued

International undergraduate student	Total score on professors' perceptions of seven factors in MIPI	Possible maximum scores
29	143	225
30	118	225
31	155	225
32	178	225
33	161	225
34	131	225
35	169	225
36	147	225
37	147	225
38	139	225
39	154	225
40	146	225
41	143	225
42	175	225
43	171	225
44	124	225
45	134	225
46	161	225
47	183	225
48	149	225
49	155	225
50	175	225
51	150	225
52	148	225
53	152	225
54	104	225
55	137	225
56	150	225
57	159	225
58	166	225
59	152	225
60	144	225
61	155	225
62	163	225

(Continued)

Table I1. Continued

International undergraduate student	Total score on professors' perceptions of seven factors in MIPI	Possible maximum scores
63	158	225
64	178	225
65	150	225
66	131	225
67	162	225
68	149	225
69	154	225
70	114	225
Grand Total	10313 (65.48%)	15750
Average Score	147.33	

Appendix J: Permission to Use MIPI

LINDENWOOD
LINDENWOOD UNIVERSITY ST. CHARLES, MISSOURI

February 19, 2016

Dear Ms. Somanita Kheang:

I am pleased that you wish to use both the Modified Instructional Perspectives Inventory – Teacher Version; and, the Modified Instructional Perspectives Inventory – International Undergraduate Student Learner Version adapted for use in your Doctoral Dissertation at Lindenwood University. I understand that the tentative title of your study is "*Guidelines for USA Teacher Leaders in Adult Classrooms to Enhance International Undergraduate Satisfaction*."

I hereby grant you permission to use these copyrighted instruments. I would expect appropriate citations in your dissertation or any publications that result from using them.

If there is any other way I may help you in this process, please let me know. My best wishes to you in your research. I look forward to hearing of your results.

Most Sincerely,

John A. Henschke Ed. D.

Lindenwood University

Chair of the Andragogy (Adult Education) Doctoral Emphasis Specialty

Instructional Leadership Doctoral Program

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Appendix K: Doctoral Dissertations Completed Using Henschke's Modified Instructional Perspectives Inventory (MIPI)

1995	**Thomas, E.**	**An identification of the instructional perspectives of parent educators. [KSU]**
1997	**Seward, S.**	**An identification of the instructional perspectives of Kansas parents as teachers educators [KSU]**
1997	**Dawson, S.**	**Instructional perspectives of nurse educators [UMSL]**
2003	**Drinkard, G.**	**Instructional perspectives of nurse educators in distance education [UMSL]**
2005	**Stanton, C.** ***(Modified instrument and first validation study)***	**A construct validity assessment of the Instructional Perspectives Inventory (MIPI) [UMSL]**
2006	**Stricker, A.**	**Learning leadership: An investigation of principals' attitudes toward teachers in creating the conditions conducive for learning in school-based staff development [UMSL]**
2007	**Reinsch, E.**	**The relationship among lifelong learning, emotional intelligence and life satisfaction for adults 55 years of age or older [UMSL]**
2007	**McManus, L.**	**The instructional perspectives of community college mathematics faculty [UMSL]**
2007	**Rowbotham, M.**	**Teacher perspectives and the psychosocial climate of the classroom in a traditional BSN program [UMSL]**
2009	**Ryan, L.**	**Adult learning satisfaction and instructional perspective in the foreign language classroom [UMSL]**
2010	**Manjounes, C.**	**An adult accelerated degree program: Student and instructor perspectives and factors that affect retention [LU]**
2011	**Vatcharasirisook, V.** ***(Second validation study of instrument)***	**Organizational learning and employee retention: A focused study examining the role of relationships between supervisors and subordinates [UMSL]**
2011	**Jones-Clinton, T.**	**Principals as facilitators of professional development with teachers as adult learners [UMSL]**
2011 ----------	**Moehl, P.** ***(Third validation study of instrument)*** ----------	**Exploring the relationship between Myers-Briggs Type and Instructional Perspectives among college faculty across academic disciplines [UMSL]** ----------
2012	**Risley, L.**	**Exploring Congruency between John A. Henschke's Practice and Scholarship [LU]**
2013	**Lubin, M.**	**Coaching the Adult Learner: A Framework for Engaging the Principles and Processes of Andragogy for Best Practices in Coaching [VPSU-NCR]**
2014	**Gillespie, L.**	**Trust in Leadership: Investigation of Andragogical Learning and Implications for Student Placement Outcomes [LU]**
2014 ----------	**Lu, Y.** ----------	**An Exploration of Merit Pay, Teacher and Student Satisfaction, and Teacher Performance Evaluation from an Instructional Perspective [UMSL]** ----------
2014 _____	**Queen, V.** _____	**Practical Andragogy: Considering Instructional Perspectives of Hospitality Educators [SLU]** _____
2015	**Lundry, S.**	**Transformational Learning: An Investigation of the Emotional Maturation Advancement in Learners Aged 50 and Older [UMSL]**
2016 ----------	**Hantak, K.** ----------	**An Initial Examination of Relationships Between Early Intervention Services and Andragogical Factors. [LU]** ----------
2017 _____	**Najjar, H.** _____	**A Case Study: An Andragogical Exploration of a Collegiate Swimming and Diving Coach's Principles and Practices at Lindenwood University. [LU]** _____
2017 _____	**Klepper, E.** _____	**Andragogy and Workplace Relationships: A Mixed Methods Study Exploring the Employees Perception of their Relationships with their Supervisors. [LU]** _____
2017 _____	**Morgan, R.** _____	**Inclusive Education for Preschool Learners with Autism: A Program Evaluation. [LU]** _____
2017	**Kheang, S.**	**Guidelines for U.S. Teacher Leadership in Adult Classrooms to Enhance International Undergraduate Satisfaction. [LU].**

Appendix L: Teacher's Beliefs, Teacher's Feelings, and Teacher's Behaviors from MIPI

Teacher's Beliefs	Teacher's Feelings	Teacher's Behaviors
6. Teacher expects and accepts learner frustration as they grapple with problems.	4. Teacher feels fully prepared to teach.	1. Teacher uses variety of teaching techniques.
7. Teacher purposefully communicates to learners that each is uniquely important.	5. Teacher has difficulty understanding learner's point of view.	2. Teacher uses buzz groups (learners placed in groups to discuss) information from lectures.
8. Teacher expresses confidence that learners will develop the skills they need.	12. Teacher notices and acknowledges to learners positive changes in them.	3. Teacher believes that her/his primary goal is to provide learners as much information as possible.
14. Teacher believes that learners vary in the way they acquire, process, and apply subject matter knowledge	13. Teacher has difficulty getting her/his point across to learners.	9. Teacher searches for or creates new teaching techniques.
15. Teacher really listens to what learners have to say.	18. Teacher feels impatient with learners' point of view.	10. Teacher teaches through simulations of real-life.
16. Teacher trusts learners to know what their own goals, dreams, and realities are like.	19. Teacher balances her/his efforts between learner content acquisition and motivation.	11. Teacher teaches exactly what and how she/he has planned.
17. Teacher encourages learners to solicit assistance from other learners.	26. Teacher expresses appreciation to learners who actively participate.	20. Teacher tries to make her/his presentations clear enough to forestall all learners' questions.
28. Teacher prizes the learners' ability to learn what is needed.	27. Teacher experiences frustration with learner apathy.	21. Teacher conducts group discussions.
29. Teacher feels learners need to be aware of and communicate their thoughts and feelings.	32. Teacher has difficulty with the amount of time learners need to grasp various concepts.	22. Teacher establishes instructional objectives.
30. Teacher enables learners to evaluate their own progress in learning.	33. Teacher promotes positive self-esteem in learners.	23. Teacher uses a variety of instructional media (internet, distance learning, interactive video, videos, etc.)
31. Teacher hears what learners indicate their learning needs are.	36. Teacher gets bored with the many questions learners ask.	24. Teacher uses listening teams (learners grouped together to listen for a specific purpose) during lectures.
37. Teacher individualizes the pace of learning for each learner.	41. Teacher feels irritation at learner inattentiveness in the learning setting.	25. Teacher believes that her/his teaching skills are as refined as they can be.
38. Teacher helps learners explore their own abilities.		34. Teacher requires learners to follow the precise learning experiences she/he provides them.
39. Teacher engages learners in clarifying their own aspirations.		35. Teacher conducts role plays.
40. Teacher asks the learners how they would approach a learning task.		42. Teacher integrates teaching techniques with subject matter content.
43. Teacher develops supportive relationships with her/his learners.		
44. Teacher experiences unconditional positive regard for her/his learners.		
45. Teacher respects the dignity and integrity of the learners.		

Vitae

Somanita Kheang was born in Phnom Penh, Cambodia on March 10, 1989. She attended high school in Cambodia. She was a national scholarship student at two universities in Cambodia — Royal University of Law and Economics (majoring in Finance and Banking (2007–2011), and University of Cambodia (majoring in English Literature (2008–2012). She worked as Securities Representative (Broker) and Research Analyst at OSK Indochina Securities Limited and simultaneously served as Part-Time English Teacher at Cambright School (September 2011 to December 2011) in Phnom Penh, Cambodia.

Somanita won an international scholarship from Thai Princess (Princess Maha Chakri Sirindhorn) to pursue the Master's Degree in Non-Formal Education at Chulalongkorn University [CU], Bangkok, Thailand in 2012–2014. She served as Teaching Assistant in Lifelong Education Department, Faculty of Education at Chulalongkorn University (2012–2013), prior to her coming to Lindenwood University [LU], St. Charles, MO, USA, for a study exchange in Andragogy in Fall 2013. After graduating with her Master's Degree from Chulalongkorn University in 2014, with the biggest support from Dr. Ryan Guffey, she received a full scholarship for her doctoral study in Educational Leadership with the emphasis specialty in Andragogy at Lindenwood University [LU], St. Charles, MO, USA (2014–2017).

From August 2014 to December 2016, Somanita served as doctoral assistant of Dr. John A. Henschke, Professor in Andragogy, School of Education at Lindenwood University. After the retirement of Dr. John A. Henschke in 2016, she continued serving the entire Educational Leadership Department as doctoral assistant until May 2017.

During her study and work at Lindenwood University, Somanita indeed assisted in the adult education/andragogy workshop conducted in Spring 2015 to help Panamanian high school teachers, who studied for a semester at LU in learning how to teach English as second language to fellow Panamanian citizens.

Somanita currently speaks three languages: English, Thai, and Khmer (native language of Cambodia), and she assisted in translation as well as facilitating the meetings of faculty members and students from Thailand with faculty members at Lindenwood University. She also served as coordinator to facilitate the coming of Thai students from Chulalongkorn University [CU], Bangkok, Thailand to Lindenwood University [LU], Missouri, USA, in the exchange program between LU and CU, from August 2014 to May 2017.

Somanita was inducted into Alpha Chi National College Honor Society at Lindenwood University [LU] in recognition of her high academic achievement in doctoral work at LU. She is also a member of American Association for Adult and Continuing Education (AAACE) and International Society of Comparative Adult Education (ISCAE). She presented her research papers to national and international adult education conferences in Thailand (Nakorn Prathum province) and in the United States (Missouri, Virginia, Oklahoma, New Mexico, Kentucky, and Tennessee).