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# Revisiting Instructor Misbehaviors: A Revised Typology and Development of a Measure

Alan K. Goodboy & Scott A. Myers

*Three studies (N = 1119) were conducted to replicate and expand upon Kearney, Plax, Hays, and Ivey's seminal research on instructor misbehaviors. In study 1 (n = 233), a replication of Kearney et al.'s study revealed 43 categories of perceived instructor misbehaviors; 27 of the misbehaviors were originally identified by Kearney et al. and 16 new misbehaviors were identified in this study. In study 2 (n = 650), the Instructor Misbehavior Scale (IMS) was created to operationalize underlying dimensions of instructor misbehaviors; three dimensions (i.e., antagonism, lectures, and articulation) were uncovered through principal axis factoring. In study 3 (n = 236), a confirmatory factor analysis provided construct validity support for the three-factor IMS. Additionally, the antagonism and lectures dimensions of instructor misbehaviors were correlated negatively with student learning outcomes (i.e., affective learning, cognitive learning, state motivation, student communication satisfaction) and served as unique predictors in multiple regression analyses. Collectively, these three studies provide an updated typology along with a reliable and a valid measure of instructor misbehaviors.*

*Keywords: Instructor Misbehaviors; Teacher Misbehaviors; Lectures; Learning; Motivation*

Over 20 years ago, Kearney, Plax, Hays, and Ivey (1991) conducted the first study on instructor misbehaviors in the college classroom, which refer to any instructor classroom behavior that interferes with instruction and learning. This pioneering research launched a series of successive studies, collectively revealing that instructor misbehaviors compromise students' affective learning, cognitive learning, and state motivation in the classroom (Goodboy & Bolkan, 2009; Sidelinger, Bolen, Frisby, &

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McMullen, 2011; Wanzer & McCroskey, 1998), detract from favorable instructor impressions (Kelsey, Kearney, Plax, Allen, & Ritter, 2004; Thweatt & McCroskey, 1996, 1998), and produce oppositional communicative responses from students (Goodboy, 2011; Goodboy, Myers, & Bolkan, 2010; Zhang, Zhang, & Castelluccio, 2011). From their research, Kearney et al. (1991) identified a typology of 28 misbehaviors that instructors enact which range from boring lectures to sexual harassment. Of these 28 misbehaviors, Kearney et al. found that many of these misbehaviors reflect three general types: instructor incompetence, which occurs when an instructor lacks basic teaching skills; instructor offensiveness, which occurs when an instructor lacks basic interpersonal communication skills; and instructor indolence, which occurs when an instructor lacks basic procedural skills, all of which are necessary for effective instruction (Vallade & Myers, 2014).

Based on the extant scholarship conducted to date, it is clear that research on instructor misbehaviors has explained a significant amount of variance in student learning and classroom behavior, and the findings from these studies have clear pedagogical value for instructors of any discipline. Therefore, it is important that this program of research be maintained by instructional communication scholars in order to continue informing instructors about adverse teaching behavior that has the potential to undermine college students' learning experiences. However, the research conducted to date on instructor misbehaviors has been based solely on Kearney et al.'s (1991) seminal typology. Although Kearney et al.'s work on instructor misbehaviors is quality scholarship, it is somewhat dated, as the findings are 24 years old at the time of this writing. It is likely that throughout the past two decades, the college classroom has evolved in several ways, which, in turn, has potentially influenced the ways in which instructors currently misbehave. Given the changes that likely have occurred over this time period, it is important to revisit Kearney's et al.'s work for two reasons.

First, the advent of classroom technology has proliferated on college campuses. Considering that most students are digital natives and use personal computers to complete a majority of their assignments both online and offline, it is likely that either some instructor misbehaviors occur through mediated channels or that some students perceive instructors who fail to use technology correctly as misbehaving. As Jones and Healing (2010) noted, students arrive at college "already schooled in a variety of practices related to learning and technology" (p. 344). To supplement student learning, many instructors have integrated technology into their lectures including PowerPoint presentations (Berk, 2011), student response systems/clicker technology (Powell, Straub, Rodriguez, & VanHorn, 2011), and online course management systems such as Blackboard or Desire2Learn (Unal & Unal, 2011). While this use of technology is intended to aid students in their learning, instructors who misuse technology run the risk of losing their credibility (Schrodt & Turman, 2005). At the same time, technology has affected how students choose to communicate in the classroom, which likely influences their interpretation of what they consider to be an instructor misbehavior. Not only do students expect to be able

to use their own technological devices in the classroom (Finn & Ledbetter, 2013) and report that they use their cell phones and computers during class (Bjorklund & Rehling, 2010), but also they recognize that they use these devices for reasons other than learning, such as combatting the boredom they experience in class, attempting to remain connected with their peers, and passing the time (Kelly et al., 2012). Therefore, it is likely that these classroom technologies that were not available in 1991 play an important role in how students perceive and respond to their instructors' communication behaviors, particularly if instructors do not allow students to use technology or if instructors themselves appear to be technologically illiterate or unable to use the technology appropriately and effectively. This lack of allowance of use or use itself, then, may now be considered by students as an additional way in which their instructors engage in misbehavior.

Second, the culture of college students has changed over two decades. The current generation of college students, known as Millennial students, prefer to receive individualized attention from instructors and expect to be actively engaged by their instructors (Becker, 2012). Research suggests that these students can be entitled and expect considerable time and effort directed toward them (Thompson & Gregory, 2012). As Varallo (2008) noted, "much data on the new [M]illennial student have indicated that students currently desire, even expect, a tremendous amount of communication and guidance in educational institutions" (p. 154). Given the unique generational differences between Millennial and Generation X students (Niles, 2011), including increases in self-competence and narcissism coupled with decreases in self-reliance and mental health (Twenge, 2009; Twenge & Campbell, 2008, 2009), it is possible that student perceptions of instructor misbehavior have changed over time due to the differences in student culture that have emerged since the Kearney et al. (1991) study, which sampled Generation X students.

Therefore, the purpose of this research is twofold. First, this study aims to replicate Kearney et al.'s (1991) study with current data in an effort to update and revise the instructor misbehavior typology. It is likely that many of the instructor misbehaviors experienced by students in 1991 remain unchanged in 2015, but it is also likely that new types of instructor misbehaviors may be reported given the changes in technology and student culture. To identify these misbehaviors, study 1 was undertaken. Second, this study aims to create a reliable and valid instrument to operationalize instructor misbehaviors because the vast majority of the research conducted to date has taken the 28-item typology derived by Kearney et al., attached a rating scale to it, and used it as a measurement instrument, even though it is not an instrument and was not intended to be used as such (i.e., all of the items are at least double or tripled barreled, no items require recoding, and seven of the typology items are not used as part of a meaningful factor structure). To develop and validate a new measurement instrument of instructor misbehaviors, study 2 and study 3 were undertaken.

## **Study 1: Identification of Instructor Misbehaviors**

### *Participants*

Participants were 233 undergraduate students (68 men, 128 women, 37 unreported) whose ages ranged from 18 to 51 years ( $M = 21.18$ ,  $SD = 3.70$ ). Participants were enrolled in several introductory communication courses at a mid-sized Northeastern university. The participants consisted of 36 first year students, 56 sophomores, 30 juniors, 68 seniors, and two graduate students. Forty-one ( $n = 41$ ) students did not report their class rank. (Because the participants reported on the negative actions of their instructors and given the sensitive nature of the study and the likelihood of producing social desirability effects, participants were instructed that they did not have to provide demographic data.)

### *Procedures and Instrumentation*

This study was completed in three steps. First, we replicated Kearney et al.'s (1991) methodology by creating an open-ended survey asking participants to "think back over your college career and recall specific instances where teachers have said or done something that irritated, demotivated, or substantially distracted you in an aversive way during a course" (p. 313). Using Kearney et al.'s exact methodology, the survey also included identical examples of instructor misbehaviors to "stimulate students' recall of the illustrations" (p. 313), which included "not showing up for class, making fun of a student, using sarcasm to get even with a student, or teaching the wrong thing." The survey asked participants to provide brief written descriptions for as many misbehaviors as they could recall and instructed participants to be as specific as possible in their descriptions. Participants also were informed not to identify their misbehaving instructors.

For the purpose of clarity, this survey was administered to 41 undergraduate students in a research methods class for pilot testing. These students were instructed to review the directions of this survey (and complete the survey with instructor misbehavior descriptions) and give any recommendations for improving the clarity. This pilot testing led to several minor revisions in the directions including using the word "examples" over "descriptions" and revising the directions to be more brief. The written descriptions of instructor misbehaviors collected during the pilot testing were not used in any data analysis. Rather, the pilot testing was conducted to confirm that student participants had a clear idea of the directions used in the survey.

Second, after integrating the feedback from the pilot testing into the survey design, the final open-ended survey was administered to the 233 participants. These participants identified a total of 1783 unique misbehavior examples. The first author coded the examples using the existing Kearney et al. (1991) typology. (The examples that did not fit the existing typology were highlighted and revisited later for open coding by both authors.) Both authors then examined the examples that were coded by the first author to ensure that all examples were consistently sorted into their

appropriate categories. Any disagreements using the Kearney et al. coding scheme were resolved by the two authors.

The remaining examples that could not be coded using the Kearney et al. (1991) typology then were open coded and placed into new categories “containing both conceptually and/or operationally similar words and phrases” (p. 313). Objectivist grounded theory was employed (Charmaz, 2000) by using open coding and constant comparison of data (Pidgeon & Henwood, 2004). New categories were created and preliminary labels were given along with conceptual definitions. The new categories were retained, revised, or condensed through axial coding to ensure “the exhaustive coding of the intersecting properties of core conceptual categories” (Pidgeon & Henwood, p. 640). The results of coding 494 examples that could not be coded using the Kearney et al. typology yielded 16 new perceived instructor misbehaviors (see Table 1). Moreover, axial coding led to several revisions in the original misbehavior typology: (1) the original misbehaviors *keeps students overtime* and *early dismissal* were condensed into *time management* because they both reflect timing issues caused by the instructor, (2) the original misbehavior *verbally abusive* was relabeled *aggression* to capture physical actions beyond words, and (3) the misbehavior *unresponsive to students’ questions* was relabeled *unresponsive to students* to broaden the label and include any instance in which instructors do not respond to a student, not limited to student questioning.

Third, two independent coders who were not involved in the previous steps were provided with a codebook to examine 10% (Benoit & Holbert, 2008) of the 494 new instructor misbehaviors. Using systematic sampling and a random number generator for each code, the two coders randomly and independently coded 50 new instructor misbehaviors. Based on recommendations by Hayes and Krippendorff (2007), intercoder reliability was calculated and achieved with a Krippendorff’s alpha of 0.94.

## Results

The purpose of study 1 was to revise and develop a typology of perceived instructor misbehaviors. Based on the 1783 unique behaviors identified by the participants, 43 categories of instructor misbehaviors emerged from the data. These categories included 27 of the misbehaviors originally identified by Kearney et al. (1991) and 16 misbehaviors unique to this study. (Recall that two of the original behaviors identified by Kearney et al.—*keep students overtime* and *early dismissal*—were coded into one category which we titled *time management*.) The 43 categories of instructor misbehaviors, along with a description of each behavior and the frequency with which the behavior was reported, are presented in Table 1.

## Study 2: Scale Development

### Participants

Participants were 650 undergraduate students (276 men, 368 women, 6 unreported) whose ages ranged from 18 to 51 years ( $M = 20.42$ ,  $SD = 2.30$ ). Participants were

**Table 1** Perceived Instructor Misbehaviors ( $N = 1783$ )

Misbehavior	Description
Sarcasm and Putdowns ( $n = 159$ )	Acts rude, makes fun of students, embarrasses students
Unfair Testing ( $n = 154$ )	Writes difficult tests that trick students, tests do not coincide with lectures, no study guide
Unfair Grading ( $n = 104$ )	Makes mistakes in grading, does not give out good grades, gives arbitrary grades
Absent ( $n = 90$ )	Does not show up for class, cancels class, finds substitute
<sup>a</sup> Ineffective Teaching Behavior ( $n = 76$ )	Fails to use verbal and nonverbal teaching behaviors associated with effective teaching (e.g., relevance and humor)
Unreasonable and Arbitrary Rules ( $n = 70$ )	Does not accept late work, does not give breaks during long classes, is inflexible
Tardy ( $n = 65$ )	Is late for the class start time
Shows Favoritism or Prejudice ( $n = 64$ )	Has favorite students, treats other students in a prejudiced manner
<sup>b</sup> Student Preferences ( $n = 60$ )	Acts in idiosyncratic ways that students do not like or personally appreciate, but are in the realm of realistic for college (e.g., projects over break, reading the book, scheduling a test on Friday)
Late Returning Work/Items ( $n = 54$ )	Does not return graded exams or papers in a reasonable amount of time
<sup>a</sup> E-mail ( $n = 53$ )	Does not use e-mail to communicate with students or distribute assignments, does not respond to email
Strays from Subject ( $n = 51$ )	Talks too much about personal life, gets off topic, does not focus on subject
Foreign or Regional Accents ( $n = 48$ )	Has a strong accent, is hard to understand
Information Overload ( $n = 46$ )	Rushes through the material, assigns too much work, teaches too fast
<sup>a</sup> Unrealistic Expectations ( $n = 46$ )	Has expectations of students that are inflated or do not match students' normative expectations of course
Confusing/Unclear Teaching ( $n = 44$ )	Teaches in a confusing manner, makes course expectations are unclear, inconsistent
Negative Personality ( $n = 43$ )	Acts superior, self-centered, or moody with students, does not relate to students
<sup>a</sup> Lack of Professionalism ( $n = 42$ )	Does not behave in a professional teaching role (e.g., acts crude or familiar)
Does Not Know Subject Matter ( $n = 36$ )	Teaches wrong information, cannot answer students' questions, does not know the material
<sup>a</sup> Does Not Teach ( $n = 34$ )	Shows up to class but fills it with other activities (e.g., movies), does not engage in teaching
Inaccessible to Students ( $n = 34$ )	Does not maintain office hours, is hard to find after class, does not help students outside of class
Unresponsive to Students ( $n = 32$ )	Does not answer students' questions, does not want to repeat information in a lecture
<sup>a</sup> Opinionated ( $n = 31$ )	Pushes personal viewpoints (e.g., religion, politics) on students, acts like a know it all
Time Management ( $n = 31$ )	Lets students out after class is over, starts class early, lets class out early
Apathetic to Students ( $n = 30$ )	Does not care about students, shows no concern, does not write recommendation letters
Aggression ( $n = 29$ )	Yells and screams at students, bullies students, swears at students, throws objects
<sup>a</sup> Technology ( $n = 28$ )	Does not use technology, incorrectly uses technology

Table 1 (Continued)

Misbehavior	Description
Boring Lectures ( $n = 26$ )	Reading off PowerPoint, shows no enthusiasm during lectures, shows no variety in teaching
<sup>a</sup> Intimidation ( $n = 26$ )	Threatens or scares students about their success in the course or major, accuses students of acts they did not commit
Deviates from Syllabus ( $n = 25$ )	Does not follow the syllabus assignments or dates, does not use the required book
Unprepared/Disorganized ( $n = 25$ )	Is not prepared for class, forgets important assignments
<sup>a</sup> Double Standards ( $n = 22$ )	Instructor behavior does not match the required behavior for students (e.g., uses cell phone in class)
<sup>a</sup> Unnecessary Expenses ( $n = 22$ )	Requires students to purchase items that are not needed or never used (e.g., books, clickers, software)
<sup>a</sup> Mandatory Participation ( $n = 16$ )	Calls on students to participate regardless of their intent or willingness to participate in class, put students on the spot
<sup>a</sup> Extra Credit ( $n = 13$ )	Fails to offer or assign extra credit opportunities
<sup>a</sup> Lack of Feedback ( $n = 10$ )	Fails to provide written or oral feedback on assignments
Sexual Harassment ( $n = 10$ )	Flirts with students, makes sexual remarks or innuendos in class
<sup>a</sup> Pointless Assignments ( $n = 9$ )	Assigns work or teaches without a rationale, gives work that students consider to be irrelevant to the course
Negative Physical Appearance ( $n = 8$ )	Dresses sloppy, smells bad, does not care about appearance
Information Underload ( $n = 6$ )	Makes the class too easy, student does not learn anything
<sup>a</sup> Teaching Methods ( $n = 6$ )	Uses a specific teaching method that students do not appreciate (e.g., group work)
Inappropriate Volume ( $n = 3$ )	Teaches too loudly or softly
Bad Grammar/Spelling ( $n = 2$ )	Writes illegibly, misspells words, uses poor grammar

<sup>a</sup>Denotes the 16 new misbehaviors revealed in addition to the codes and conceptual definitions uncovered by Kearney et al. (1991). <sup>b</sup>We do not consider Student Preferences to be an actual instructor misbehavior.

enrolled in several communication courses at a large Mid-Atlantic university and consisted of 144 first year students, 116 sophomores, 148 juniors, 228 seniors, and 11 graduate students. (Three participants failed to report their class rank.) Participants were enrolled in courses representing over 70 academic disciplines (e.g., Computer Science, Religion, Exercise Physiology) which were taught by 315 male instructors and 324 female instructors (the sex of 11 instructors was not identified) and enrolled, on average, 115 students ( $M = 115.30$ ,  $SD = 96.84$ ; range = 6–400 students).

### *Procedures and Instrumentation*

During week 14 of a 16-week semester, participants were provided with an initial item pool consisting of 126 instructor misbehavior items (three items reflecting each of the 42 misbehaviors in study 1; the *student preferences* category was not included in this item pool, decreasing the 43 misbehaviors to 42 misbehaviors) and were asked to complete the instrument in reference to the instructor of the course they attended prior to the research session (Plax, Kearney, McCroskey, & Richmond, 1986). However, after further inspection of the 126 item pool, we realized that not all of the 42 misbehaviors were appropriate to use in our quest to develop a measure of



instructor misbehaviors because several of these behaviors demonstrated poor conceptual fit with Kearney et al.'s (1991) initial conceptualization of instructor misbehaviors, which was “those teacher behaviors that interfere with instruction and thus learning” (p. 310). Using this conceptualization as our exclusion criteria, we then examined whether each of the 42 misbehaviors as reported by the participants in study 1 (a) had the potential to directly interfere with students' learning experiences in a course or (b) reflected their disposition (e.g., personal like or dislike) toward a particular instructor behavior, course policy, or communication behavior rather than a behavior that jeopardized their learning. This reexamination led to the exclusion of 9 of the 42 misbehaviors (i.e., 27 scale items) that reflected preferences but did not directly affect students' learning experiences. The excluded misbehaviors were *attendance, extra credit, mandatory participation, negative physical appearance, unrealistic expectations, unnecessary expenses, double standards, teaching methods, and pointless assignments*.

The remaining 33 misbehaviors were represented by 99 scale items (i.e., three items for each of the 33 misbehaviors) that were included in the revised item pool taken verbatim from 1511 of the 1783 inductively derived examples generated by the participants in study 1. These 99 items were taken directly from the study 1 data to preserve the content validity of the instrument. Participants were instructed to indicate the frequency with which their identified instructor used each misbehavior. Responses were solicited using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 0 (*never*) to 4 (*very often*). In line with the replication of Kearney et al. (1991), the composite mean scores (of the three items) and standard deviation scores of each instructor misbehavior are reported in Table 2 (in descending order). Nineteen of the 99 items were positively valenced and required recoding prior to data analysis.

## Results

The purpose of study 2 was to develop a reliable and valid measure of instructor misbehaviors. The 99 misbehavior items were subjected to an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) using principal axis factoring with varimax rotation to “maximize the variance of the squared loadings for each item” (DeVellis, 2012, p. 137). A large sample was needed for our EFA to ensure that the minimal number of participants was “5 times the number of variables being analyzed” (Hatcher, 1994, p. 73); with 99 variables/items in the EFA, a minimum sample of 495 participants was needed, according to Hatcher (1994), which was exceeded. To be retained as a factor, each factor was required to (a) have an Eigenvalue greater than 1.0, (b) have a primary loading of .60 or higher with a secondary loading of .40 or lower, and (c) not cross load on another factor (Hatcher, 1994; McCroskey & Young, 1979).

The Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin test of sampling adequacy was .94 and the Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant,  $\chi^2(4851) = 30802.133$ ,  $p < .001$ , indicating that the data were appropriate for an EFA. Items that did not pass the aforementioned criteria (e.g., .60/.40 test, cross loading items) were deleted from the item pool and the EFA was recalculated until all retained items met the criteria. This led to four rounds of

**Table 2** Means, Standard Deviations, and Rankings of Revised Perceived Instructor Misbehavior Types ( $N = 650$ ) in Study 2

Misbehavior	Rank	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Ineffective Teaching Behaviors	1	2.60	2.58
Deviates from Syllabus	2	1.82	2.20
Boring Lectures	3	1.31	1.22
Unfair Grading	4	1.18	0.85
Technology	5	1.10	0.93
Information Overload	6	1.08	0.90
Late Returning Work/Items	7	1.02	0.96
Time Management	8 (tied)	1.01	0.66
Unresponsive to Students	8 (tied)	1.01	0.68
E-mail	10	0.98	0.98
Information Underload	11 (tied)	0.97	0.73
Apathetic to Students	11 (tied)	0.97	0.87
Lack of Feedback	13	0.73	0.85
Confusing/Unclear Teaching	14	0.68	0.81
Strays from Subject	15	0.65	0.73
Absent	16	0.64	0.68
Does Not Know Subject Matter	17	0.61	0.80
Negative Personality	18	0.59	0.84
Inappropriate Volume	19 (tied)	0.57	0.73
Unfair Testing	19 (tied)	0.57	0.86
Inaccessible to Students	21 (tied)	0.56	0.75
Bad Grammar/Spelling	21 (tied)	0.56	0.82
Foreign/Regional Accents	23	0.54	0.96
Does Not Teach	24	0.47	0.65
Lack of Professionalism	25 (tied)	0.43	0.66
Tardy	25 (tied)	0.43	0.66
Shows Favoritism/Prejudice	27	0.39	0.72
Sarcasm/Putdowns	28	0.37	0.70
Opinionated	29	0.35	0.66
Unprepared/Disorganized	30	0.32	0.62
Intimidation	31	0.28	0.60
Sexual Harassment	32	0.26	0.59
Aggression	33	0.20	0.53

Note. Response format ranging from (0) *never* to (4) *very often*.

item trimming and the final iteration consisted of 16 of the 99 original items, producing a three-factor solution accounting for 58.58% of the total variance. Factor 1, *Antagonism*, accounted for 27.94% of the variance (Eigenvalue = 4.47;  $M = 2.30$ ,  $SD = 4.78$ ) and consisted of eight items (derived from the *putdowns*, *aggression*, *professionalism*, *opinionated*, and *favoritism/prejudice* misbehaviors) that yielded a Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient of .91. Factor 2, *Lectures*, accounted for 18.46% of the variance (Eigenvalue = 2.95;  $M = 5.94$ ,  $SD = 5.35$ ) and consisted of five items (derived from the *boring lectures*, *information overload*, and *confusing/unclear teaching* misbehaviors) that yielded a Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient of .87. Factor 3, *Articulation*, accounted for 12.18% of the variance (Eigenvalue = 1.95;  $M = 1.62$ ,  $SD = 2.89$ ) and consisted of three items (derived from the *foreign/regional accents* misbehavior) that yielded a Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient of .83.

**Table 3** EFA Factor Loadings for Instructor Misbehavior Scale (IMS) in Study 2

	F1	F2	F3
<i>My instructor:</i>			
1. belittles students.	<b>.65</b>	.32	.00
2. yells at students when they ask for help.	<b>.69</b>	.21	.00
3. argues with students during class.	<b>.72</b>	.15	.15
4. tells students their opinions are wrong.	<b>.68</b>	.13	.16
5. criticizes students' responses to instructor comments or questions.	<b>.82</b>	.18	.10
6. screams or yells at students.	<b>.78</b>	.09	.13
7. discriminates against certain students.	<b>.74</b>	.11	.16
8. tells students their opinions are wrong because his/her opinion is right.	<b>.70</b>	.15	.10
9. lectures in a dry manner.	.13	<b>.88</b>	.08
10. goes over the material so quickly it is difficult to take notes.	.20	<b>.64</b>	.07
11. gives boring lectures.	.08	<b>.75</b>	.10
12. teaches in a confusing manner.	.33	<b>.65</b>	.16
13. lectures in a monotone voice.	.18	<b>.69</b>	.13
14. speaks English very well. <sup>a</sup>	.10	.10	<b>.63</b>
15. speaks in a strong accent.	.08	.11	<b>.84</b>
16. has problems with pronunciation or articulation due to accent.	.22	.17	<b>.82</b>

Note. Principal Axis Factoring with Varimax Rotation. Response format ranging from (0) *never* to (4) *very often*. Primary loadings are in bold.

<sup>a</sup>Item 14 is reverse-coded. F1: Antagonism; F2: Lectures; Factor 3: Articulation.

Items and factor loadings of this measure, which is named the Instructor Misbehavior Scale (IMS), are presented in Table 3.

### Study 3: Scale Validation

#### *Participants*

Participants were 236 undergraduate students (101 men, 134 women, 1 unreported) whose ages ranged from 18 to 32 years ( $M = 20.24$ ,  $SD = 1.77$ ). Participants were enrolled in several introductory communication courses at a large Mid-Atlantic university and consisted of 59 first year students, 35 sophomores, 57 juniors, 80 seniors, and 3 graduate students (Two participants failed to report their class rank). Participants were enrolled in courses representing over 50 academic disciplines (e.g., Physics, Geology, Economics) which were taught by 118 male instructors and 111 female instructors (the sex of seven instructors was not identified) and enrolled, on average, 105 students ( $M = 105.15$ ,  $SD = 88.97$ ; range = 2–350 students).

#### *Procedures and Instrumentation*

Following Kline's (2011) suggestion that researchers replicate the factor structure of a measure "if it is ever to represent anything beyond a mere statistical exercise" (p. 94), the purpose of study 3 was to both validate the dimensionality of the measure developed in study 2 through confirmatory factor analysis (Levine, 2005), which is one way to establish construct validity (James, Mulaik, & Brett, 1982). Study 3 also was conducted to provide construct validity of the IMS developed in study 2 by

linking instructor misbehaviors to student learning outcomes (i.e., affective learning, cognitive learning, state motivation, student communication satisfaction). To do so, during week 14 of a 16-week semester, participants were provided with a set of instruments and asked to complete the instruments in reference to the instructor of the course they attended prior to the research session (Plax et al., 1986). These instruments were the IMS (see Table 3), the Instructional Affect Assessment Instrument (McCroskey, 1994), the Revised Learning Indicators Scale (Frymier & Houser, 1999), the State Motivation Scale (Christophel, 1990), and the Student Communication Satisfaction Scale (Goodboy, Martin, & Bolkan, 2009).

The *IMS* is a 16-item instrument that asks participants to indicate the frequency with which their instructors engage in three types of misbehaviors: antagonism, lectures, and articulation. Responses are solicited using a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 0 (*never*) to 4 (*very often*). In this study, a Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient of .90 was obtained for antagonism ( $M = 2.50$ ,  $SD = 5.00$ ), a Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient of .86 was obtained for lectures ( $M = 5.52$ ,  $SD = 5.29$ ), and a Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient of .75 was obtained for articulation ( $M = 1.61$ ,  $SD = 2.78$ ).

The *Instructional Affect Assessment Instrument* is a 24-item instrument that asks participants to indicate their level of affect across three dimensions: affect toward course content (eight items), affect toward the course instructor (eight items), and affect toward the recommended course behaviors (eight items). Responses are solicited using a 7-point bipolar (i.e., adjective pairs) scale (e.g., good–bad, worthless–valuable). Previous Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients ranging from .82 to .96 have been reported for the three dimensions (Myers, 2012; Myers, Goodboy, & Members of COMM 600, 2014; Myers et al., 2010). In this study, Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients of .94 were obtained for both student affect toward the course content ( $M = 42.63$ ,  $SD = 12.68$ ) and student affect toward the recommended course behaviors ( $M = 44.85$ ,  $SD = 10.49$ ) and a Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient of .96 was obtained for student affect toward the instructor ( $M = 44.20$ ,  $SD = 13.61$ ).

The *Revised Learning Indicators Scale* is a seven-item instrument that asks participants to rate the extent to which they believe that enrollment in a course has increased their cognitive learning about the course content. Responses are solicited using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). Previous Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients ranging from .85 to .88 have been reported for the scale (Holmgren & Bolkan, 2014; Myers et al., 2014; Wei, Wang, & Klausner, 2012). In this study, a Cronbach alpha reliability of .90 ( $M = 24.39$ ,  $SD = 6.97$ ) was obtained.

The *State Motivation Scale* is a 12-item instrument that asks participants to indicate their level of motivation about the course instructor. Responses are solicited using a 7-point bipolar (i.e., adjective pairs) scale (e.g., inspired–uninspired, not excited–excited). Previous Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients ranging from .88 to .94 have been reported for the scale (Edwards & Edwards, 2013; Holmgren & Bolkan, 2014; Zhang, 2007). In this study, a Cronbach alpha reliability of .92 ( $M = 57.99$ ,  $SD = 15.26$ ) was obtained.

The *Student Communication Satisfaction Scale* is an 8-item instrument that asks students to rate the extent to which they are satisfied with their communicative encounters with a course instructor. Responses are solicited using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). Previous Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients ranging from .93 to .95 have been reported for the scale (Holmgren & Bolkan, 2014; Mansson & Lee, 2014; Myers et al., 2014). In this study, a Cronbach alpha reliability of .94 ( $M = 29.73$ ,  $SD = 7.98$ ) was obtained.

### Results

The purpose of study 3 was twofold: (a) to validate the dimensionality of the IMS developed in study 2 through confirmatory factor analysis and (b) to establish construct validity evidence for the measure. To provide construct validity of the IMS, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) with maximum likelihood estimation (ML) using LISREL 8.8 (Jöreskog & Sorbom, 2007) was employed to test the three-factor structure. Model fit was assessed using the minimum fit function chi-square, Bentler comparative fit index (CFI), Steiger–Lind root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and the standardized root mean square residual (SRMR). The results of the CFA indicated that the three-factor structure fit the data reasonably well [ $\chi^2(101) = 329.73$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $\chi^2/df = 3.26$ ; CFI = .94; SRMR = .07; RMSEA = .09], with all 16 items loading significantly (loadings ranged from .59 to .95) on their three respective factors at the  $p < .01$  significance level.

Table 4 contains item means and standard deviations of all the variables examined in study 3, along with a correlation matrix of the variables.

To establish additional construct validity, a series of Pearson product-moment correlations was calculated to examine the relationship between each of the three instructor misbehaviors and the four traditional learning outcomes studied in the instructional communication context (Goodboy & Myers, 2008). These four learning outcomes are student affective learning (i.e., affect toward the course content, affect toward the recommended course behaviors, and affect toward the instructor), student perceived cognitive learning, student state motivation, and student communication satisfaction. Of the three misbehaviors, both antagonism and lectures were correlated negatively (ranging from  $r = -.19$ ,  $p < .01$  to  $r = -.66$ ,  $p < .001$ ) with all four traditional student learning outcomes. Antagonism was correlated negatively with student affect toward the content ( $r = -.22$ ,  $p < .001$ ), student affect toward the recommended course behaviors ( $r = -.30$ ,  $p < .001$ ), student affect toward the instructor ( $r = -.36$ ,  $p < .001$ ), student perceived cognitive learning ( $r = -.19$ ,  $p < .01$ ), student state motivation ( $r = -.29$ ,  $p < .001$ ), and student communication satisfaction ( $r = -.44$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Lectures was correlated negatively with student affect toward the content ( $r = -.57$ ,  $p < .001$ ), student affect toward the recommended course behaviors ( $r = -.47$ ,  $p < .001$ ), student affect toward the instructor ( $r = -.66$ ,  $p < .001$ ), student perceived cognitive learning ( $r = -.46$ ,  $p < .001$ ), student state motivation ( $r = -.57$ ,  $p < .001$ ), and student communication satisfaction ( $r = -.56$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Articulation was correlated negatively with student affect toward the

**Table 4** Item Means, Standard Deviations, and Pearson Correlations between Variables in Study 3 ( $N = 236$ )

Variables	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
<i>Instructor Misbehaviors</i>										
1. Antagonism	.31	.63	–							
2. Lectures	1.10	1.06	.42†	–						
3. Articulation	.54	.93	.40†	.30†	–					
<i>Learning Outcomes</i>										
4. Affective Learning (Content)	5.33	1.58	–.22†	–.57†	–.02	–				
5. Affective Learning (Behavior)	5.61	1.31	–.30†	–.47†	–.13*	.81†	–			
6. Affective Learning (Instructor)	5.53	1.70	–.36†	–.66†	–.12	.79†	.78†	–		
7. Perceived Cognitive Learning	3.48	1.00	–.19**	–.46†	–.12	.65†	.58†	.59†	–	
8. State Motivation	4.83	1.27	–.29†	–.57†	–.13*	.74†	.71†	.74†	.59†	–
9. Communication Satisfaction	3.72	1.0	–.44†	–.56†	–.16*	.66†	.71†	.81†	.66†	.66†

\* $p < .05$ . \*\* $p < .01$ . † $p < .001$ . Two-tailed.

recommended course behaviors ( $r = -.13$ ,  $p < .05$ ), student state motivation ( $r = -.13$ ,  $p < .05$ ), and student communication satisfaction ( $r = -.16$ ,  $p < .05$ ). To identify which instructor misbehaviors served as unique predictors of each learning outcome, a series of post-hoc multiple regression analyses was conducted. The results (see Table 5) indicated that all six learning outcomes were significantly predicted by lectures, three of the six learning outcomes were predicted by antagonism, and one of the six learning outcomes was predicted by articulation. All regression models, including unstandardized betas, standard errors, and standardized betas, are reported in Table 5.

## General Discussion

The overall purpose of this study was twofold: (1) to revise and update the original Kearney et al. (1991) instructor misbehaviors typology and (2) to create and validate an instrument to measure instructor misbehaviors. Through a series of three successive studies, the general purpose of this study was met. Not only was the Kearney et al. instructor misbehaviors typology revised and updated to include 43 unique misbehaviors, but also a three-factor measure was created to operationalize the general dimensions underlying instructor misbehaviors that have the potential to undermine students' learning outcomes. Moreover, preliminary evidence for the scale suggests that it has a stable factor structure that can be replicated.

The results obtained in each of the three studies make important and unique contributions to the instructor misbehaviors literature. In study 1, the contribution made is the identification of 16 additional perceived instructor misbehaviors (see Table 1) that reflect the change in both the instructional environment and the mentality of undergraduate college students since 1991, resulting in a more comprehensive typology of instructor misbehaviors. Over the past 23 years, the instructional environment has evolved substantially from a reliance on the instructor standing in the front of the classroom and lecturing students using a chalkboard and

**Table 5** Ordinary Least-Squares Regression Analyses with Instructor Misbehaviors Predicting Learning Outcomes

Variables	AL-Content			AL-Behavior			AL-Instructor			Cog Learning			Motivation			Comm Sat		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SEB</i>	$\beta$	<i>B</i>	<i>SEB</i>	$\beta$	<i>B</i>	<i>SEB</i>	$\beta$	<i>B</i>	<i>SEB</i>	$\beta$	<i>B</i>	<i>SEB</i>	$\beta$	<i>B</i>	<i>SEB</i>	$\beta$
Antagonism	-.07	.16	-.03	-.31	.15	-.14*	-.37	.16	-.14*	-.03	.10	-.02	.24	.20	-.08	-.48	.11	-.28†
Lectures	-1.45	.14	-.60†	-.83	.13	-.42†	-1.62	.14	-.63†	-.60	.09	-.46†	-1.61	.18	-.56†	-.72	.09	-.47†
Articulation	.69	.28	.15*	.14	.24	.04	.51	.27	.10	.08	.17	.03	.42	.34	.08	.22	.17	.07

Note. AL-Content:  $F(3, 227) = 40.08, p < .001, R^2 = .35$ ; AL-Behavior:  $F(3, 225) = 22.59, p < .001, R^2 = .23$ ; AL-Instructor:  $F(3, 226) = 61.64, p < .001, R^2 = .45$ ; Cognitive Learning:  $F(3, 225) = 19.83, p < .001, R^2 = .21$ ; Motivation:  $F(3, 224) = 37.00, p < .001, R^2 = .33$ ; Comm Sat:  $F(3, 217) = 43.43, p < .001, R^2 = .38$ .

\* $p < .05$ . \*\* $p < .01$ . † $p < .001$ . Two-tailed.

an overhead projector (i.e., the instructor as “sage on the stage” model) to the potential for instructors to teach in smart classrooms (although not all instructors use these resources) and interact with students using mediated means such as e-mail, online management tools, and clicker response tools while simultaneously communicating in a manner that conveys enthusiasm, concern, and caring toward students. Additionally, undergraduate college students have become increasingly more vocal about their educational experiences and their expectations about their instructors and their teaching behaviors, course policies, requirements, and demands, possibly leading to an increase in student entitlement, which refers to expectations of positive academic outcomes regardless of performance (Kopp, Zinn, Finney, & Jurich, 2011).

The emergence of new instructor misbehaviors in study 1 such as *e-mail*, *technology*, *unnecessary expenses*, *unrealistic expectations*, and *extra credit* reflects these changes. Not only do students expect their instructors to use e-mail and technology, but also they expect their instructors to use these mediated means correctly and properly. They want their instructors to limit the supplies needed for courses, particularly when the supplies are never or rarely used; they want to participate in extra credit opportunities regardless of their academic performance; and they believe that their instructors’ expectations are set too high. The emergence of the *student preferences* misbehavior further highlights the entitlement students bring with them to the classroom, as this misbehavior centers on the dislikes they associate with instructors’ expectations and requirements. This misbehavior is intriguing because it directly reflects the idiosyncratic needs students believe should be met by their instructors without stopping to consider either the absurdity of the need (i.e., the instructor “expects us to take tests on Fridays”) or the failure to accept the legitimacy of the request (i.e., the instructor “asks for an excuse when missing class”). Other new student-reported misbehaviors included *attendance*, *pointless assignments*, *teaching methods*, and *mandatory participation*. These perceived misbehaviors suggest that some students do not want to be bothered by their instructors; nor do they want to be active members of a classroom. Rather they want an easy grade with minimal effort, which further highlights the problem of student entitlement. Thus, many of these new misbehaviors reflect a changing classroom culture with a focus on individual students with entitled expectations and leisurely work values (Twenge, 2009). It should be noted, though, that while not all of these identified instructional misbehaviors arguably constitute actual misbehaviors (in light of the conceptualization that they must interfere with learning), these are misbehaviors to students who consider, at the least, to be undesirable, unpleasant, annoying, or irritating, which again highlights the changing culture of the college classroom. And, in addition to the identification of the 16 new perceived misbehaviors, this new typology also contains some revisions and updated examples to the previous 28 misbehaviors identified by Kearney et al (1991).

In study 2, the contribution made is the development of the 16-item IMS based on 33 instructor misbehaviors we identified as interfering with student learning. The IMS, which is deemed reliable and measures three distinct dimensions of instructor misbehaviors, is the first instrument developed to assess students’ perceptions of their



instructors' misbehaviors in the classroom. Prior to the development of the IMS, instructional communication researchers were forced to measure perceived instructor misbehaviors in one of two ways: (1) utilize Kearney et al.'s (1991) 28-item typology and add a Likert-type response scale to it in an attempt to make it function as an instrument (e.g., Goodboy & Bolkan, 2009; Kelsey et al., 2004; Zhang, 2007) or (2) rely on the three underlying latent dimensions of instructor misbehaviors (i.e., incompetence, offensiveness, and indolence) to develop scenarios of instructor misbehaviors and have students respond to the scenarios rather than respond to each of the 28 typology items (e.g., Banfield, Richmond, & McCroskey, 2006; Sendlak & Pearson, 2008; Thweatt & McCroskey, 1998). While the findings of these previous studies have indeed contributed to the instructor misbehaviors literature, researchers have been stymied by the best way to measure the construct. The IMS provides one way in which instructor misbehaviors can now be measured in a reliable manner. Furthermore, the mean scores and the standard deviation scores for each of the 33 misbehaviors were calculated, resulting in a list of how often students perceived their instructors to engage in each misbehavior retained in the initial IMS item pool. While a majority of the misbehaviors were perceived as being rarely used, a finding similarly obtained by Kearney et al., the most frequently used misbehavior was *ineffective teaching behaviors*. This misbehavior encapsulates the misuse of both rhetorical (e.g., clarity, relevance) and relational (e.g., immediacy, confirmation) instructional communication behaviors students typically associate with effective teaching (Kramer & Pier, 1999; Myers, 2010; Myers et al., 2014; Nussbaum, 1992; Waldeck, Plax, & Kearney, 2010). This finding is actually encouraging because it suggests that students are cognizant of, and paying attention to, what it means for an instructor to be an effective communicator in the classroom.

The IMS reported in study 2 also provides researchers with one of two viable ways to operationalize instructor misbehaviors. First, some researchers may only be interested in using the 13 items that measure *antagonism* and *lectures*. These two misbehavior types were correlated negatively with all of the learning outcomes in study 3 and share similarity with Kearney et al.'s original dimensions of *offensiveness* and *incompetence*. Moreover, in post-hoc multiple regression analyses, these two dimensions uniquely predicted learning outcomes (particularly the lectures dimension), but the articulation dimension did not. Second, researchers who are interested in potential accent/speaking problems of instructors may consider adding the three articulation items. Although the *articulation* dimension emerged as a unique factor in the IMS and, by definition, can interfere with students' learning, it is a specific misbehavior that may not be of interest to researchers who want to operationalize more general domains of misbehavior (i.e., antagonism and lectures). Furthermore, the inverse relationships observed between the articulation dimension and learning outcomes were either weak or nonsignificant, suggesting that articulation plays a more minor role in student learning outcomes than antagonism or lectures. Either methodological choice—using two factors or three factors—is warranted, depending on the nature and the scope of future studies. The contribution made by study 3 is the provision of construct validity support for the IMS. Along with the reliability of the

IMS assessed in study 2, study 3 assessed the validity of the instrument and its three-factor structure, thus establishing the IMS as a reliable and valid measure for investigating instructor misbehaviors. This study confirmed the factor structure for the three distinct types of instructor misbehaviors (i.e., antagonism, lectures, and articulation) identified in study 2.

Aside from the research potential to use the IMS to assess instructor misbehaviors, the identification of the three factors themselves offers some practical application for instructors and their classroom behaviors. To avoid misbehaving in the classroom, instructors should consider these three factors when communicating with their students on a daily basis. More specifically, instructors should review the items contained on the first (i.e., antagonism) and second (i.e., lectures) factors before the semester begins and periodically throughout the remainder of the semester. Instructors should be mindful of their behaviors (e.g., arguing, yelling, or criticizing) that may appear to be antagonistic to students because extant research has found that when instructors behave in ways that can be considered to be condescending, critical, or even verbally aggressive, students are less likely to view their instructors favorably; they also are likely to stop participating in class, asking questions and offering opinions, and immersing themselves in classroom discussion (Myers, Edwards, Wahl, & Martin, 2007). Lecturing in a boring or confusing manner can also be detrimental for students because they expect their instructors to teach in a clear, relevant, and interesting manner. When instructors are perceived by their students to behave antagonistically or are poor lecturers, these types of behaviors generally serve to demotivate students (Gorham & Christophel, 1992). Because students desire a classroom environment that is open, respectful, supportive, and safe (Anderson & Carta-Falsa, 2010), instructors need to be aware of those behaviors that communicate otherwise, which in this case are encapsulated within the *antagonism* and *lectures* factors. Moreover, chairs and administrators might consider giving feedback about these misbehaviors to faculty during peer observations of teaching; it is possible that instructors are objectively unaware of their teaching deficiencies.

The primary limitation of this study was that only construct validity was examined with the IMS. Future researchers should examine other types of validity, including the predictive validity of the IMS, using longitudinal assessments throughout the semester. Researchers should also continue to confirm the dimensionality of the IMS using CFA in subsequent samples, recognizing that instructor misbehaviors in the United States may vary or function differently from those found in other cultures (Zhang, 2007). Furthermore, future researchers may consider conducting observational studies of instructor misbehaviors in actual classrooms to supplement student self-reports. As Smythe and Hess (2005) found in their study of instructor nonverbal immediacy, students' reports of their instructors' immediacy behaviors generally were not correlated with observers' reports of the same instructors' immediacy behaviors. Triangulating the methodologies used to investigate instructor misbehaviors may prove fruitful in future research endeavors.

In summary, over two decades of research on instructor misbehaviors have informed educators on what *not* to do inside and outside the classroom. Although the

primary purpose of this study was to develop an instrument to measure instructor misbehaviors, it should be noted that when it comes to creating an updated typology of instructor misbehaviors, this study echoes the original findings of Kearney et al. (1991) but adds some new important findings unique to the current Millennial generation of college students. Competent instructors should be mindful of the misbehaviors discovered in this study, reflect on the misbehaviors they are guilty of enacting, and actively work toward phasing these misbehaviors out of their teaching repertoires. By doing so, instructors will facilitate a better learning environment for their students who appreciate their pedagogical efforts.

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