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College Teacher Misbehaviors: Direct and Indirect Effects on Student Communication Behavior and Traditional Learning Outcomes

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The purpose of this study was to examine a theoretical model of the relationship between teacher misbehaviors and both student communication behavior (i.e., student resistance, student participation) and learning outcomes (i.e., cognitive learning, affective learning, state motivation, communication satisfaction). Participants were 343 students who reported on their instructor's behavior in addition to their own classroom behavior and learning. Results of structural equation modeling suggest that teacher misbehaviors are related (a) directly and indirectly with teacher-owned and student-owned resistance strategies, state motivation, and student communication satisfaction, and (b) indirectly with student participation and cognitive learning. Indirect paths were mediated by affective learning.

Keywords: Learning; Motivation; Perception; Student Resistance; Teacher Misbehavior

Instructional researchers have focused on how to diminish student misbehaviors in the classroom (Kearney, Plax, Sorensen, & Smith, 1988; Plax, Kearney, & Tucker, 1986). However, students are not the only individuals who misbehave in educational settings; in fact, teachers can (and do) misbehave in the classroom as well (Kearney, Plax, & Allen, 2002). Although teacher misbehaviors are related to both student perceptions of teachers (Kelsey, Kearney, Plax, Allen, & Ritter, 2004; Thweatt & McCroskey, 1996) and learning outcomes (Banfield, Richmond, &

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McCroskey, 2006; Dolin, 1995), instructional communication researchers have yet to explore the link between teacher misbehavior and subsequent student behavior in the classroom. Because educational research suggests that teacher misbehaviors can negatively impact student behavior in the classroom and appropriate teacher behavior can promote student civility (Boice, 1996), this link should be examined.

Promoting positive student behavior and discouraging negative behavior is largely a function of the behaviors teachers employ in the classroom (Goodboy & Myers, 2008). Therefore, the present study sought to produce a theoretical model exploring possible relationships between teacher misbehaviors with both objectionable and desirable student behavior (i.e., student resistance, student participation) and traditional learning outcomes in the college classroom (i.e., cognitive learning, affective learning, state motivation, communication satisfaction).

Teacher Misbehaviors

Teacher misbehaviors refer to behaviors that interfere with instruction, and thus, learning (Kearney, Plax, Hays, & Ivey, 1991). That is, teacher misbehaviors negatively impede effective instruction. In their seminal research on teacher misbehaviors, Kearney, Plax, Hays, et al. (1991) proposed 28 different categories of misbehaviors that teachers have the propensity to engage in. These categories of misbehaviors were inductively derived via student descriptions of teacher misbehaviors. Through a factor analysis of these categories, three main types of misbehaviors were identified. They were labeled teacher incompetence, teacher indolence, and teacher offensiveness.

Incompetence behaviors communicate that a teacher does not care about either the course or students. Such behaviors may give students the perception that their teacher does not know what he/she is doing. Examples include giving boring or confusing lectures, administering unfair tests, or not knowing course content. *Indolence* behaviors indicate laziness and disregard for students. These behaviors may also indicate a level of absent-mindedness. Examples include not showing up to class, forgetting assignments or test dates, and failing to grade assignments in a timely manner. *Offensiveness* behaviors generate insulting messages. Offensive teachers are mean and cruel because they can be verbally abusive and unreasonable (Kearney et al., 2002). Examples include making fun of students and acting condescending.

Although the literature suggests that teacher incompetence is the most common misbehavior employed (Zhang, 2007), research has overwhelmingly suggested that any misbehavior may jeopardize student learning outcomes (Dolin, 1995; Toale, 2001) and student perceptions of teachers (Kelsey et al., 2004). Extant research reveals that teacher misbehaviors are associated with decreases in cognitive learning (Dolin, 1995), affective learning (Banfield et al., 2006; Dolin 1995; Toale, 2001), student perceptions of teacher credibility (Banfield et al., 2006; Semlak & Pearson, 2008; Thweatt & McCroskey, 1998; Toale, 2001), and student motivation (Zhang, 2007).

Furthermore, students perceive misbehaving teachers as less immediate (Kelsey et al., 2004; Thweatt & McCroskey, 1996). Although effects on perceptions of teachers and learning outcomes have been established, research has yet to examine actual student communication behaviors associated with teacher misbehaviors in the college classroom. Two common student communication behaviors are student resistance and student participation.

Theoretical Framework

This study draws upon Mottet, Frymier, and Beebe's (2006) model of Relational Power and Instructional Influence as an interpretive framework for advancing the hypotheses. Mottet et al. (2006) proposed three propositions to explain how power and influence affect teaching and learning. First, the instructor–student dyad is an interpersonal relationship that involves social influence. Second, because this dyad is an interpersonal one, instructors and students yield power to one another where prosocial forms of power lead to more effective influence (versus antisocial forms of power). Third, the quality of the instructor–student relationship is enhanced when instructors and students use appropriate communication behaviors and diminished when inappropriate behaviors are used. Thus, the quality of the instructor–student relationship influences the type of mutual power employed in the classroom.

Teacher misbehaviors represent a misuse of instructor power which undermines students' faith and trust in an instructor. Research suggests that a misuse of such power leads to a disliking of the teacher (Banfield et al., 2006). Based on the aforementioned assumptions, if students simultaneously perceive a misbehaving instructor as abusing power in the classroom and enacting inappropriate teaching behaviors (i.e., propositions 2 and 3), both learning and student reactions should be jeopardized; one possible reaction is student resistance.

Student Resistance

Student resistance refers to students' constructive or destructive oppositional behaviors used in the classroom to resist instructors' persuasive attempts (Burroughs, Kearney, & Plax, 1989). Burroughs et al. (1989) explained that college students engage in a wide variety of attempts to resist an instructor's request and created a typology of nineteen resistance strategies. Of the nineteen resistance strategies, five are considered teacher-owned (i.e., the teacher is the source of the problem), five are student-owned (i.e., students are the source of the problem), and nine are neither. Teacher-owned strategies are: teacher advice, teacher blame, appeal to powerful others, modeling teaching behavior, and modeling teacher affect. *Teacher advice* resistance occurs when students express their opinions regarding teacher behaviors and request some sort of change. *Teacher blame* messages involve actively communicating fault and criticism to the teacher. *Appealing to powerful others* refers to communicating to an authority who possesses the power to solve a student's problem with the teacher. *Modeling teacher behavior* involves mimicking the teacher's (mis)behavior

and enacting the negative behaviors the teacher tends to engage in. *Modeling teacher affect* refers to mimicking the teacher's attitude about the class.

Student-owned strategies constitute deception, ignoring the teacher, priorities, hostile defensive, and student rebuttal. *Deception* involves pretending to comply with a teacher's request or lying to the teacher. *Ignoring the teacher* involves continuing a student behavior and neglecting a teacher's request. *Priorities* are an expression of ranked obligations for a student where the student accepts blame while simultaneously indicating that other obligations were more important. *Hostile defensive* resistance refers to open and aggressive communication with a teacher by challenging the compliance request in a hostile manner. *Student rebuttal* refers to presenting an argument against a teacher's compliance request in an attempt to refute the teacher's request with evidence.

Kearney, Plax, and Burroughs (1991) examined the likelihood of students using each resistance type. They discovered that students enact all 19 types of resistance; however, some resistance strategies were preferred over other resistance strategies. Students reported they were most likely to use three strategies: reluctant compliance (i.e., unwillingly complying), direct communication, (i.e., talking to a teacher directly), and priorities (i.e., telling a teacher about other priorities). Students also indicated they would be least likely to enact active resistance (i.e., actively not complying), disruption (i.e., attempting to disrupt class), and challenging the teacher's basis of power (i.e., challenging the authority). Furthermore, recent research has suggested that some student resistance strategies are not used as commonly in the college classroom (Burroughs, 2007).

Students were more likely to use student-owned strategies with immediate instructors and teacher-owned strategies with nonimmediate instructors (Kearney, Plax, & Burroughs, 1991). Interestingly, the influence of the teacher's compliance-gaining strategy (i.e., prosocial, antisocial) did not affect students' preference for using a particular resistance strategy. Kearney, Plax, Sorensen, and Smith (1988) discovered that students are least likely to resist a teacher who was immediate and utilized prosocial compliance strategies. Conversely, students reported offering more resistance to an immediate teacher who used antisocial compliance strategies, even more so than a nonimmediate teacher who used antisocial communication. Lee, Levine, and Cambra (1997) found that students were more likely to resist compliance when they were older and less likely when a teacher was liked. Similar to Kearney et al. (1988), they also discovered less resistance when a teacher utilized prosocial compliance strategies. Moreover, students were less likely to resist when they possessed a collectivist orientation as opposed to an individualistic orientation.

Resistance has also been studied in respect to the use of teachers' behavioral alteration techniques (BATs). Generally, students are more likely to resist coercive compliance attempts from instructors (Plax, Kearney, Downs, & Stewart, 1986). Paulsel and Chory-Assad (2004) discovered that teacher-owned resistance (i.e., teacher advice, teacher blame, appeal to powerful others, modeling teacher affect) was more likely to transpire when teachers used antisocial BATs (i.e., punishment from teacher, punishment from others, guilt, negative relationship, legitimate teacher

authority, debt). Similarly, Chory-Assad and Paulsel (2004) found that student perceptions of procedural justice (i.e., how a teacher arrives at classroom outcomes such as grades) was related negatively to the student resistance strategies of revenge and deception. Paulsel and Chory-Assad (2005) also discovered that student perceptions of interactional justice (i.e., the quality of interpersonal treatment from an instructor) were related negatively to teacher-owned resistance (i.e., teacher advice, teacher blame, appeal to powerful others, modeling teacher affect). Considering that teacher misbehaviors may be perceived as an abuse of power and considering students' propensity to react to such behaviors, we suspect that teacher misbehaviors will be direct predictors of both teacher-owned and student-owned resistance.

Student Participation

As previously mentioned, if students perceive misbehaving instructors as abusing power in the classroom and enacting inappropriate teaching behaviors, both learning and student reactions should be compromised. In addition to student resistance, student participation may be affected by teacher misbehaviors as well. Student class participation refers to any comments or questions that students offer or raise in class (Fassinger, 1995a). Student participation is indispensable considering that learning is an active process (Junn, 1994) and students remember course content better when engaged in class (Petress, 2006). Naturally, student participation is associated with an increase in average exam scores and cumulative course grades (Christle & Schuster, 2003; Daly, Kreiser, & Roghaar, 1994; Reinsch & Wambsganss, 1994; Voelkl, 1995).

Teaching behaviors can promote or diminish student participation. Instructors perceived as supportive, responsive, and approachable, and who encourage student feedback promote participation (Daly, et al., 1994; Fassinger, 1995b, 2000). Consequently, teacher verbal immediacy (Auster & MacRone, 1994; Menzel & Carrell, 1999), and the human (i.e., open, attentive, friendly, relaxed), actor (i.e., dramatic, animated, impression leaving), and authority (i.e., precise, dominant, contentious) communicator styles (Myers et al., 2005) are associated positively with student participation. Additionally, instructors who disclose personal opinions and pose questions elicit student question asking in the classroom (West & Pearson, 1994). Overall, teachers who communicate in an approachable and supportive manner promote student participation (Fassinger, 1995b, 2000). Considering that misbehaving teachers may be perceived as unapproachable and unsupportive, we suspect that teacher misbehaviors will be a direct predictor of student participation.

Traditional Learning Outcomes

Four traditional learning outcomes were examined in this study: cognitive learning, affective learning, state motivation, and student communication satisfaction. *Cognitive learning* ranges from the simple retention of information to the complex synthesis of material (Bloom, Hastings, & Madaus, 1971). *Affective learning* involves student feelings, emotions, and degrees of acceptance toward the subject matter (Krathwohl, Bloom, & Masia, 1964). *State motivation* to learn refers to student attempts to obtain academic

knowledge or skills from classroom activities by finding these activities meaningful (Brophy, 1987). *Student communication satisfaction* refers to an affective response to the accomplishment of communication goals and expectations (Hecht, 1978).

These learning outcomes were chosen for two reasons. First, these variables represent several ways to gauge student success. Second, teacher misbehaviors (predominantly using hypothetical scenarios) are already associated inversely with cognitive learning (Dolin, 1995), affective learning (Banfield et al., 2006; Dolin 1995; Toale, 2001), and state motivation (Zhang, 2007) and are likely to be associated with the additional learning outcome of student communication satisfaction. Therefore, we expected that teacher misbehaviors would be direct predictors of the aforementioned learning outcomes.

Mediating Variable

Previous research has suggested that affective learning is a mediating variable between instructor behavior (e.g., instructor immediacy, confirmation) and student outcomes (Ellis, 2000; Rodriguez, Plax, & Kearney, 1996). Notably, Thweatt and McCroskey (1996) discovered that teacher immediacy and teacher misbehaviors cannot be manipulated independently. That is, students perceive nonimmediate teachers as misbehaving teachers. Considering that affective learning is a mediating variable with instructor immediacy (Rodriguez et al., 1996) and that teacher misbehaviors and immediacy are interdependent variables (Thweatt & McCroskey, 1996), this study examined the possibility that affective learning mediates the relationships between teacher misbehaviors and both student communication and learning outcomes.

Method

Participants

Participants were 343 undergraduate students enrolled in one of 16 introductory or upper level communication courses at a midsized Eastern university. Participants were 117 men and 226 women whose ages ranged from 18 to 30 years ($M = 20.14$, $SD = 1.73$). Sixty-four ($n = 64$) participants were freshmen, 151 participants were sophomores, 55 participants were juniors, 70 participants were seniors, and 2 were unreported.

Procedures and Measurement

Participants completed a series of instruments and provided demographic data. Participants completed the instruments in reference to the instructor of the course they attended immediately prior to the data collection (Plax, Kearney, McCroskey, & Richmond, 1986). Participants also provided the initials of the instructor to ensure this procedure was followed correctly and to provide a cognitive reference for reporting. Data were collected near the end of the semester to guarantee that participants were familiar with their instructors' classroom behaviors.

Participants completed the Teacher Misbehavior Scale (Kearney, Plax, & Burroughs, 1991), the Student Resistance Scale (Burroughs et al., 1989), the Class Participation Scale (Fassinger, 1995b), the Revised Cognitive Learning Indicators Scale (Frymier & Houser, 1999), the Affective Learning Scale (McCroskey, Richmond, Plax, & Kearney, 1985), the Student Motivation Scale (Richmond, 1990), and the Student Communication Satisfaction Scale (Goodboy & Martin, 2006), in reference to their previous class. Confirmatory factor analyses were performed on all scales for validity purposes (Levine, 2005; Levine, Hullett, Turner, & Lapinski, 2006). As suggested by Kline (2005), we assessed model fit using the model chi square, the Steiger-Lind root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), the Bentler comparative fit index (CFI), and the standard root mean square residual (SRMR). Values larger than .10 for the RMSEA indicate a poor approximation of the model (Browne & Cudek, 1993), values of the CFI greater than .95 indicate reasonably good model fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999), and values of the SRMR smaller than .08 indicate a reasonably good model fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

The *Teacher Misbehavior Scale* is 28 items and measures a range of teacher misbehaviors derived from seminal work conducted by Kearney, Plax, and Burroughs (1991). This scale uses a 5-point Likert response format ranging from *never* (0) to *very often* (4). Previously, 3 factors have been identified in this scale: offensiveness, indolence, and incompetence. These factors comprise 21 of the 28 scale items. However, because we were interested in examining teacher misbehaviors in general (and not the independent contribution of the three misbehavior factors in specific), we combined all 28 scale items into a single measure. Previous reliability coefficients have been .90 and .87 for summed measures using these subscales (Kelsey et al., 2004; Zhang, 2007). However, in this study, results of a confirmatory factor analysis of all 28 items yielded a 1-factor solution. The one-factor model was fitted to the data with the maximum likelihood estimation (ML) method using LISREL 8.8. The model indicated a good fit. Values of selected fit indices are as follows: χ^2 (323) = 752.23, $p < .01$; $CFI = .95$; $SRMR = .06$; $RMSEA = .06$. The obtained Cronbach alpha was .90 ($M = 15.87$, $SD = 13.48$) for the summed scale.

The *Student Resistance Scale* is 19 items and asks participants to report on how likely they would be to resist complying with an instructor. Responses were solicited using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from (0) *extremely unlikely* to (4) *extremely likely*. This measure consists of 2 subscales that assess five teacher-owned and five student-owned resistance strategies, which were the only items included in this study. Previous reliability coefficients ranging from .66 to .82 have been reported for the subscales (Chory-Assad & Paulsel, 2004; Paulsel & Chory-Assad, 2004, 2005). The two-factor model was fitted to the data and indicated a good fit. Values of selected fit indices are as follows: χ^2 (30) = 83.30, $p < .01$; $CFI = .98$; $SRMR = .04$; $RMSEA = .07$. Cronbach alphas obtained in this study for each subscale were .78 for teacher-owned resistance ($M = 3.18$, $SD = 3.64$) and .83 for student-owned resistance ($M = 3.16$, $SD = 3.69$).

The *Class Participation Scale* is six items and asks participants to report on how often they participate during class. Five items were used in this study. One item was

omitted because it was a frequency count of participation in a given class. Responses were solicited using a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from (0) *never* to (4) *very often*. Previous reliability coefficients ranging from .68 to .84 have been reported for the summed six-item scale (Fassinger, 1995a, 1995b, 2000). The one-factor model was fitted to the data and indicated a good fit. Values of selected fit indices are as follows: χ^2 (3) $=3.95$, $p=.26$; $CFI=1.00$; $SRMR=.01$; $RMSEA=.03$. In this study, the obtained Cronbach alpha was .90 ($M=13.26$, $SD=4.80$) for the summed scale.

The *Revised Cognitive Learning Indicators Scale* is 7 items and asks participants to report on behaviors or activities associated with learning course content. Responses were solicited using a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from (0) *never* to (4) *very often*. Previous reliability coefficients ranging from .83 to .86 have been reported for the summed scale (Frymier, 2005; Frymier & Houser, 1999, 2000). The one-factor model was fitted to the data and indicated a good fit. Values of selected fit indices are as follows: χ^2 (9) $=15.24$, $p=.08$; $CFI=1.00$; $SRMR=.02$; $RMSEA=.05$. In this study, the obtained Cronbach alpha was .88 ($M=17.66$, $SD=6.70$) for the summed scale.

The *Affective Learning Scale* is 12 items and asks participants to report on their levels of affect for the course content, course instructor, and behaviors recommended in the course. Responses were solicited using three 7-point bipolar adjective sub-scales. Previous reliability coefficients ranging from .95 to .96 have been reported for the summed scale (Ellis, 2000, 2004; Goodboy & Myers, 2008). The one-factor model was fitted to the data and indicated a good fit. Values of selected fit indices are as follows: χ^2 (31) $=63.31$, $p<.01$; $CFI=1.00$; $SRMR=.02$; $RMSEA=.06$. In this study, the obtained Cronbach alpha was .95 ($M=63.74$, $SD=16.46$).

The *Student Motivation Scale* is five items and asks participants to report on their levels of state motivation toward a specific course and instructor. Responses were solicited using a 7-point bipolar adjective scale. Previous reliability coefficients ranging from .89 to .93 have been reported for the summed scale (Myers & Zhong, 2004; Richmond, 1990; Weber, Martin, & Cayanus, 2005). The one-factor model was fitted to the data and indicated a good fit. Values of selected fit indices are as follows: χ^2 (4) $=4.54$, $p=.33$; $CFI=1.00$; $SRMR=.01$; $RMSEA=.02$. In this study, the obtained Cronbach alpha was .93 ($M=22.81$, $SD=8.47$) for the summed scale.

The *Student Communication Satisfaction Scale* is 10 items and is a global assessment of student satisfaction resulting from communication encounters with an instructor. It uses a 7-point Likert-type response format ranging from (1) *strongly disagree* to (7) *strongly agree*. Previous reliability coefficients have been .98 (Goodboy & Martin, 2006) and .97 (Goodboy & Martin, 2007). The one-factor model was fitted to the data and indicated a good fit. Values of selected fit indices are as follows: χ^2 (24) $=54.40$, $p<.01$; $CFI=1.00$; $SRMR=.02$; $RMSEA=.07$. In this study, the obtained Cronbach alpha was .97 ($M=50.09$, $SD=16.22$).

Data Analysis

Prior to data analysis, a Pearson correlation matrix was computed among all variables (see Table 1).
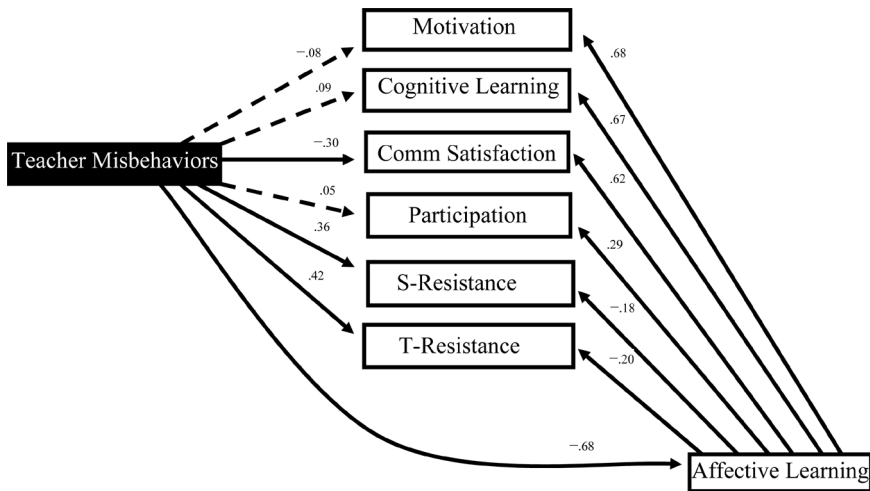
Table 1   Correlations Between Variables

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Teacher Misbehavior	—						
2. Teacher-Owned Resistance	.56[†]	—					
3. Student-Owned Resistance	.49[†]	.58[†]	—				
4. Student Participation	−.15[*]	−.02	−.09	—			
5. Cognitive Learning	−.36[†]	−.22[†]	−.27[†]	−.42[†]	—		
6. Affective Learning	−.68[†]	−.49[†]	−.43[†]	.26[†]	.61[†]	—	
7. State Motivation	−.64[†]	−.36[†]	−.33[†]	.29[†]	.55[†]	−.74[†]	—
8. Communication Satisfaction	−.73[†]	−.49[†]	−.44[†]	.27[†]	.54[†]	.83[†]	.70[†]

[*]$p < .01.$ [†]$p < .001.$

A path model, using composite variables of each of the measures, was constructed for the proposed theoretical model. Research indicates that it is reasonable to regard a path model with composites as similar to a path model with latent variables (McDonald, 1996). The hypothesized model was estimated with maximum likelihood estimation (ML) using LISREL 8.8 (Joreskog & Sorbom, 2006). We assessed model fit using the model chi square, RMSEA, CFI, and SRMR (Kline, 2005).

Results

The purpose of the path analysis was to examine the influence of teacher misbehaviors on student communication behavior and learning outcomes. Our hypothesized

Figure 1   Path Model Reflecting the Influence of Teacher Misbehaviors on Learning Outcomes. *Note.* Standardized parameter estimates are shown. For a detailed analysis of all the parameter estimates please see Table 2. Dashed lines indicate nonsignificant relations.

Table 2   Maximum Likelihood Parameter Estimates

Parameter	Unstandardized	SE	Standardized
Direct Effects			
Teacher Misbehaviors → Motivation	−.05	.03	−.08
Teacher Misbehaviors → Cognitive Learning	.04	.03	.09
Teacher Misbehaviors → Satisfaction	−.37*	.05	−.30
Teacher Misbehaviors → Participation	.02	.03	.05
Teacher Misbehaviors → Student Resistance	.10*	.02	.36
Teacher Misbehaviors → Teacher Resistance	.11*	.02	.42
Teacher Misbehaviors → Affective Learning	−.83*	.05	−.68
Affective Learning → Motivation	.35*	.03	.68
Affective Learning → Cognitive Learning	.27*	.02	.67
Affective Learning → Satisfaction	.61*	.04	.62
Affective Learning → Participation	.08*	.02	.29
Affective Learning → Student Resistance	−.04*	.01	−.18
Affective Learning → Teacher Resistance	−.04*	.01	−.20
Indirect Effects			
Teacher Misbehaviors → Motivation	−.29*	.03	−.46
Teacher Misbehaviors → Cognitive Learning	−.23*	.02	−.45
Teacher Misbehaviors → Satisfaction	−.51*	.04	−.42
Teacher Misbehaviors → Participation	−.07*	.02	−.19
Teacher Misbehaviors → Student Resistance	.03*	.01	.12
Teacher Misbehaviors → Teacher Resistance	.04*	.01	.14
Total Effects			
Teacher Misbehaviors → Motivation	−.34*	.03	−.54
Teacher Misbehaviors → Cognitive Learning	−.18*	.02	−.37
Teacher Misbehaviors → Satisfaction	−.87*	.04	−.73
Teacher Misbehaviors → Participation	−.05**	.02	−.15
Teacher Misbehaviors → Student Resistance	.13*	.01	.49
Teacher Misbehaviors → Teacher Resistance	.15*	.01	.56
Variances and covariances			
Teacher Misbehaviors	181.60*	13.91	1.00
D Motivation	32.73*	2.51	.46
D Cognitive Learning	27.68*	2.12	.62
D Satisfaction	69.02*	5.29	.26
D Participation	21.55*	1.65	.93
D Student Resistance	10.14*	.78	.75
D Teacher Resistance	8.82*	.68	.67
D Affective Learning	146.79*	11.24	.54
D Teacher Resistance ↔ Student Resistance	3.83*	.55	.29
D Participation ↔ Cognitive Learning	7.83*	1.38	.24
D Cognitive Learning ↔ Motivation	4.48*	1.56	.08

Note. Standardized estimates for disturbance variances are proportions of unexplained variance.
*$p < .01$. **$p < .05$.

model predicted that teacher misbehaviors would both directly and indirectly (via affective learning) influence the communication and learning outcomes. The initial model indicated a poor fit: χ^2 (15) = 155.83, $p < .01$; $RMSEA = .17$; $CFI = .94$; $SRMR = .07$. After allowing three theoretically appropriate error variances to covary (motivation and cognitive learning; cognitive learning and participation; teacher resistance and student resistance) the model was again fitted to the data (see Figure 1). The model indicated a reasonably good fit. Values of selected fit indices are as follows: χ^2 (12) = 41.89, $p < .01$; $RMSEA = .09$; $CFI = .99$; $SRMR = .03$.

In general, our hypothesis that teacher misbehaviors have a direct and indirect impact on the student communication and learning outcomes was supported. An analysis of all parameter estimates is available in Table 2. Three direct relationships between teacher misbehaviors and outcomes were nonsignificant. The direct effect of teacher misbehaviors on the outcome variables yielded nonsignificant relationships with state motivation, cognitive learning, and participation. However, all of the indirect effects of teacher misbehavior on the outcome variables (via affective learning) were significant (for details see Table 2).

These results suggest that the impact of teacher misbehaviors on participation, cognitive learning, and motivation is fully mediated by affective learning. However, the impact of teacher misbehaviors on student-owned resistance, teacher-owned resistance, and communication satisfaction is partially mediated by affective learning. The total effects of teacher misbehaviors on the outcomes was significant for all of the variables at the $p < .01$ level except for the effect of teacher misbehaviors on participation, which is significant at the $p < .05$ level. The unstandardized and standardized total effects of teacher misbehaviors on the learning outcomes are available in Table 2.

The proportion of variance explained by teacher misbehaviors for each of the outcome variables is as follows: state motivation ($R^2 = .54$), cognitive learning ($R^2 = .38$), communication satisfaction ($R^2 = .74$), participation ($R^2 = .07$), student-owned resistance ($R^2 = .25$), teacher-owned resistance ($R^2 = .33$), and affective learning ($R^2 = .46$).

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to examine a theoretical model of teacher misbehaviors with student resistance, student participation, and traditional learning outcomes. Overall, results imply that teacher misbehaviors compromise student affective learning. When affective learning is compromised, students may communicate in undesirable manners and learn less. These findings may be due to several reasons.

First, teacher misbehaviors had a direct and indirect effect on both teacher-owned and student-owned resistance. Considering that teacher misbehaviors decimate student affect (Banfield et al., 2006), it is not surprising that students resist compliance attempts of misbehaving teachers. Supaporn (2000) discovered that student misbehavior/incivility toward a teacher occurs when students do not find class enjoyable (i.e., less affect). Moreover, student incivility is rooted in at least one of three psychological factors: (a) a need for release due to frustration over unresolved issues, (b) a need to

express power, and (c) a need to obtain something of value (Feldmann, 2001). It is possible that student resistance is an outcome due to frustration with teachers who (a) do not know what they are doing (i.e., incompetence), (b) are lazy (i.e., indolence), and (c) insult students (i.e., offensiveness). Additionally, teachers who employ such misbehaviors may create a negative classroom climate. As Weishew and Peng (1993) noted, negative classroom climates lead to student misbehavior (i.e., verbal conflict with a teacher). Finally, misbehaving teachers are perceived as nonimmediate (Kelsey et al., 2004; Thweatt & McCroskey, 1996). Kearney et al. (1988) discovered that students resist teachers who are nonimmediate. Consistent with the assumptions proposed by Mottet et al. (2006), students may exert their own power in the classroom by resisting teachers who abuse power by misbehaving in the classroom. Results from Kearney et al. (1988) support this contention as antisocial use of teacher power leads to more student resistance.

Second, teacher misbehaviors produced an indirect effect on student participation. Similar to the findings regarding student resistance, teacher misbehaviors may create an unsupportive classroom environment that discourages student participation. Student participation is promoted largely though student perceptions of instructor supportiveness and approachability (Daly, et al., 1994; Fassinger, 1995b, 2000). Furthermore, students do not perceive misbehaving teachers as immediate (Thweatt & McCroskey, 1996), which is an important teaching behavior that fosters student participation (Auster & MacRone, 1994; Menzel & Carrell, 1999). Considering that participation is volitional, students have power to participate or not and can choose not to participate when instructors misuse their power by misbehaving. Although results suggest that teacher misbehaviors are not directly linked to participation, data suggest that if teacher misbehaviors compromise student affect, students will choose not to participate. It is possible that the negative classroom climate produced by misbehaviors stifles students' willingness to participate in class. As Fassinger (1995a) discovered, students perceive confidence as the most important trait for participation. Consequently, students who dislike a teacher may also lack appropriate confidence to offer comments, questions, or suggestions in a hostile learning environment.

Third, teacher misbehaviors had a direct and indirect effect on communication satisfaction, but only indirect effects on state motivation and cognitive learning. These results imply that students are directly dissatisfied with the communication encounters of misbehaving instructors. However, student motivation and cognitive learning are not directly jeopardized. Rather, state motivation and cognitive learning are affected only when student affect is reduced. These results highlight the importance of creating student affect in the college classroom. Schrodt et al. (2008) suggested that although instructor coercive power use was not directly related to learner empowerment, it was directly related to teacher evaluations. Similarly, if students perceive misbehaviors as punishing, they may evaluate teachers unfavorably, but actual learning is unaffected. However, when negative student emotions and feelings toward the instructor are created, student learning and motivation are then endangered. As previous research suggests (Rodriguez et al., 1996), affective learning is a critical mediating variable.

There are several limitations in this study. First, participants provided self-reports of their attitudes and behaviors and their perceptions of their teachers that may not be entirely indicative of actual behavior in the classroom. This study did not use observation of actual behaviors in the classroom. Second, the data must be interpreted with caution given the correlational nature. Structural equation modeling implies a causality that may or may not be accurate given the method of data collection. Third, data were collected in two different points during two different semesters. Some of the data were collected the last week of class while other data were collected with several weeks left of class. Student impressions of teachers can change over several weeks.

Future research should focus on two efforts. Researchers should examine the effects of teacher misbehaviors on student communication behavior using experimental observations. Additionally, actual recall should be measured as an outcome variable instead of self-reports of student learning to determine if actual memory is affected by teacher misbehaviors. It is possible that teacher misbehaviors only reduce student affect but not actual recall. This contention has been raised in studies examining teacher immediacy (Hess, Smythe, & Communication 451, 2001) and should be investigated considering that student perceptions of teacher immediacy and misbehaviors are interdependent (Thweatt & McCroskey, 1996).

Collectively, the findings suggest that teacher misbehaviors are associated with unfavorable student communication behavior and further support the contention that such behaviors impede instruction and student learning. Teachers would be wise to monitor their behavior in the classroom to avoid potential misbehaviors. Furthermore, teachers should be especially cognizant of maintaining student affect. Although isolated misbehavior incidents may not decrease student affect, repeated incidents may reduce student affect and result in student dissatisfaction and attempts to control power in the classroom. Moreover, the ultimate goal of instruction—fostering learning—may be devalued.

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