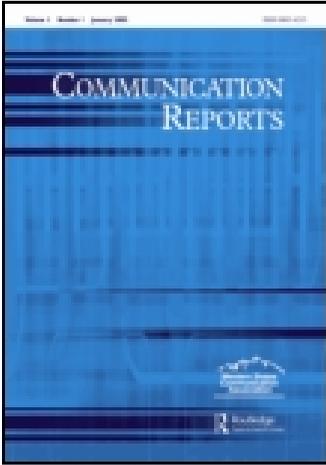


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Students' Imagined Interactions as Intrapersonal Explanations for Instructional Dissent

Alan K. Goodboy, San Bolkan, & Zachary W. Goldman

The purpose of this study was to examine how college students' intrapersonal communication experiences (i.e., imagined interactions) with disliked instructors contribute to their proclivity to communicate instructional dissent (i.e., expressive, rhetorical, vengeful). Student participants (N = 181) completed a self-report questionnaire measuring their use of imagined interactions with their worst instructor in the past academic year, along with reports of their course-related dissent. Results of a canonical correlation revealed that the frequency, valence, and rehearsal of students' imagined interactions with a low affect instructor are related to forms of instructional dissent.

Keywords: Affective Learning; Imagined Interactions; Instructional Dissent; Student Dissent

When college students are displeased with their classroom experiences, they frequently engage in instructional dissent (Goodboy, 2011a) which emerges “when students express their disagreements or complaints about class-related issues” (Goodboy, 2011b, p. 423). Research suggests that a variety of instructor messages and behaviors are likely to trigger instructional dissent from students including student favoritism, grading mistakes, unfair testing, unrealistic classroom policies, and student bullying, to name a few (Bolkan & Goodboy, 2013; Goodboy, 2011a, 2011b; Horan, Chory, & Goodboy, 2010; Martin, Goodboy, & Johnson, 2013).

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Goodboy (2011a) found that these triggering agents encourage students to dissent in three distinct ways: expressive dissent, rhetorical dissent, and vengeful dissent. First, expressive dissent occurs when students vent their frustrations about class to others to gain sympathy or empathy. Next, rhetorical dissent occurs when students voice their concerns directly to the instructor in hopes of rectifying a perceived problem. Finally, vengeful dissent occurs when students spread negative messages about an instructor to seek revenge and damage the instructor's reputation or career.

Research has clearly established that much of instructional dissent is the result of what ineffective instructors do (or fail to do) in class (Goodboy, 2011a, 2011b; Holmgren & Bolkan, 2014; Horan et al., 2010; LaBelle, Martin, & Weber, 2013; Martin et al., 2013; Vallade, Vela, & Martin, 2013) and that students attribute blame to their instructors as the cause for their dissent responses (Goodboy, 2011a; LaBelle & Martin, 2014). However, instructional dissent is influenced by a variety of student characteristics and predispositions as well (Goodboy, 2012). For example, students' personality traits (Buckner & Finn, 2013; Goodboy & Martin, 2013; Goodboy & Myers, 2012), conflict styles (Goodboy & Bolkan, 2013), academic beliefs (Bolkan & Goodboy, 2013; Goodboy & Frisby, 2014; LaBelle et al., 2013), and learning experiences (Goodboy, 2011b) all play an important role in how students dissent.

Although some students confront their instructors with their class-related problems (Horan et al., 2010), recent research suggests that most students decide to withhold rhetorical dissent and keep their complaints to themselves (Bolkan & Goodboy, 2013). One of the reasons students choose not to dissent to their instructors is because they fear retaliation or repercussions from the instructor (Bolkan & Goodboy, 2013) which may reflect a student's desire to avoid potential conflict. Other research supports this conclusion as students with an avoiding conflict style communicate less rhetorical dissent (Goodboy & Bolkan, 2013). Because many students decide whether to dissent to instructors (or not) after thinking and carefully weighing the consequences of their actions (Bolkan & Goodboy, 2013), it is likely that some use intrapersonal forms of communication to manage their negative affect toward the instructor and class (Goodboy, 2011b) when processing dissent triggering episodes. Specifically, Stacks and Andersen (1989) noted that cognition and affect "often function conjointly" (p. 278) in the intrapersonal communication process, and imagined interactions may represent a type of intrapersonal coping response students use when they feel the need to dissent (Berkos, Allen, Kearney, & Plax, 2001; Honeycutt, 2010).

Imagined Interactions

Imagined interactions (IIs) refer to a type of daydreaming (Honeycutt, 2003) in which "individuals imagine themselves in anticipated or recalled interaction with others" (Honeycutt & Ford, 2001, p. 316). Imagined interactions reflect a process of social cognition in the form of intrapersonal communication (Honeycutt, 2010) in which individuals conjure verbal or visual imagery in mentally rehearsed hypothetical conversations (Zagacki, Edwards, & Honeycutt, 1992). As Rosenblatt and

Meyer (1986) explained, “These interactions may be fragmentary or extended, may ramble, stay on track, or recurrently go over the same matter” (p. 319). Imagined interactions tend to involve more self-talk versus other-talk, occur more frequently before actual interactions than after conversations, tend to be about more personal than impersonal topics (Honeycutt, Zagacki, & Edwards, 1990), and are equally pleasant and unpleasant (Edwards, Honeycutt, & Zagacki, 1988).

Imagined interactions have a variety of characteristics and serve numerous functions (Bodie, Honeycutt, & Vickery, 2013). The characteristics of IIs include frequency (i.e., how often they occur), proactivity (i.e., the extent to which they occur before anticipated encounters), retroactivity (i.e., the extent to which they occur after an encounter), variety (i.e., how they occur across a variety of topics and people), discrepancy (i.e., IIs that play out differently than actual conversations), self-dominance (i.e., the extent to which they involve self-talk), valence (i.e., the degree of pleasantness), and specificity (i.e., the details of the imagery during IIs; Honeycutt & Ford, 2001). Moreover, the functions of IIs are self-understanding (i.e., to better understand oneself), rehearsal (i.e., to mentally plan out what to say), catharsis (i.e., to relieve tension or uncertainty), compensation (i.e., to serve in place of a real conversation), relational maintenance (i.e., to keep a relationship alive), and conflict management (i.e., to address conflict). The functions and uses of IIs are predicted by individual differences such as the five factor model of personality (Honeycutt, Pence, & Gearhart, 2012–2013), covert narcissism (Honeycutt, Pence, & Gearhart, 2013), attachment (Honeycutt, 1998–1999), argumentativeness and verbal aggressiveness (Bolkan & Goodboy, 2011), Machiavellianism (Allen, 1990), locus of control (Honeycutt, Edwards, & Zagacki, 1989–1990), communication apprehension (Bolkan & Goodboy, 2011; Honeycutt, Choi, & DeBerry, 2009), taking conflict personally (Wallenfelsz & Hample, 2010), and Myers-Briggs personality preferences (Honeycutt & Keaton, 2012–2013). In addition, the use of IIs are associated with relational features such as uncertainty (Van Keulegom & Wright, 2013), anxiety (Allen & Honeycutt, 1997), emotional responses (Honeycutt et al., 1989–1990; Honeycutt, Nasser, Banner, Mapp, & DuPont, 2008), loneliness (Honeycutt et al., 1990), marital ideology (Honeycutt, 1998–1999), relational quality (Honeycutt, 2008–2009), talk in marriage (Honeycutt & Wiemann, 1999), and intrapersonal communication satisfaction (Honeycutt & McCann, 2008).

Imagined interactions have been studied across a variety of relationships including college roommates (Honeycutt & Patterson, 1997), parent/child relationships (Allen, Edwards, Hayhoe, & Leach, 2007), married couples (Honeycutt & Keaton, 2012–2013; Honeycutt & Wiemann, 1999), small groups (Turner, Crisp, & Lambert, 2007) and consumer/business relationships (Bolkan & Goodboy, 2011). However, important to our purposes is the fact that IIs play an important role in the college classroom as well. In particular, research suggests that college students use IIs to cope with and process unwanted interactions with their instructors. For example, Berkos, Allen, Kearney, and Plax (2001) revealed that college students use IIs to process instructor misbehaviors, and that they use IIs as a substitute for confronting misbehaving instructors. Moreover, Berkos (2012–2013) discovered that students who use

IIs before e-mailing an instructor are more likely to use prosocial compliance-gaining strategies and less likely to make verbal demands in an e-mail. Because instructional dissent is considered a response to potential instructor–student conflict (Goodboy & Bolkan, 2013), and because IIs are most commonly used to process and rehearse perceived conflict (Allen & Berkos, 2005–2006; Honeycutt, 2003–2004; Zagacki et al., 1992), it is our contention that IIs are used by students who have a desire to communicate instructional dissent.

Crucially, the characteristics of IIs are important to consider in dissent expression. For instance, as it pertains to frequency and pleasantness, researchers have found that these characteristics of IIs are related to positive relational outcomes (Honeycutt & Wiemann, 1999). Specifically, the authors found that individuals who have positive and frequent imagined interactions are more likely to enjoy serious discussions and are likely to believe that their relationships are more egalitarian than individuals who do not. Moreover, Honeycutt and Wiemann (1999) found that the sharing of interpersonal influence was associated with relational satisfaction and positively valenced IIs as well. Considering that two types of dissent (i.e., expressive and vengeful dissent) communicate little desire to engage in relational maintenance (Bodie et al., 2013), and given that students with unsatisfactory relationships with their instructors tend not to dissent in constructive ways (Bolkan & Goodboy, 2013), we expected that the frequency and negative valence of IIs will predict these two dissent types. Particularly, we expected that students would engage in more antisocial (i.e., vengeful) and selfish (i.e., expressive) forms of dissent when they have frequent/negative valenced IIs about their instructor. Therefore, the first hypothesis is offered:

H1: II characteristics (i.e., frequency and negative valence) will predict students' expressive and vengeful dissent responses with low affect instructors.

However, given the relationship between frequent and positive IIs and both perceptions of relational power and relational satisfaction, we believed that if students have frequent/positive valenced IIs about their instructors, they should be more likely to approach these individuals with class-related concerns (Honeycutt & Wiemann, 1999). Therefore, the second hypothesis is offered:

H2: II characteristics (i.e., frequency and positive valence) will predict students' rhetorical dissent responses with low affect instructors.

Likewise, since instructor misbehaviors are a leading cause of student dissent (Goodboy, 2011a, 2011b; Vallade et al., 2013), and because many students use IIs as a substitute for direct communication when misbehaviors are present (Berkos et al., 2001), it is likely that students who have a desire to dissent use IIs as a coping mechanism to accompany actual dissent. To examine this idea, the following research question is offered:

RQ: To what extent do the functions of IIs (i.e., rehearsal, self-awareness, catharsis) predict students' instructional dissent responses (i.e., expressive, rhetorical, vengeful) with low affect instructors?

Method

Participants

Participants were 181 undergraduate students (107 men, 70 women, 4 participants did not report their sex) whose ages ranged from 18 to 35 years ($M=21.24$, $SD=2.13$). Participants were recruited from a large Northeastern university. One hundred four students reported on a class with a male instructor and 77 students reported on a class with a female instructor. Approximately 48% ($N=87$) of the sample reported on a college course required for their major. Class sizes varied with 67 students (37.0%) reporting on a class consisting of 30 students or less, 38 students (21.0%) reporting on a class with 31 to 100 students, 48 students (26.5%) reporting on a class with 101 to 200 students, and 28 students (15.5%) reporting on a large lecture class with over 200 students enrolled.

Procedures and Instrumentation

After obtaining IRB approval, participants completed a questionnaire using methods proposed by Richmond, McCroskey, Kearney, and Plax (1987) that asks students to report on their “worst” instructor in the past academic year. This method was used to ensure that students reported on a low affect instructor in order to maximize potential instructional dissent episodes resulting from student dissatisfaction. The questionnaire included measures of students’ imagined interactions, instructional dissent, affective learning toward the instructor, and demographic items.

Instructional dissent was operationalized using the *Instructional Dissent Scale* (IDS; Goodboy, 2011b), which is 22 items and asks students to report on how often they express their disagreements or complaints about class-related issues by using expressive dissent (10 items), rhetorical dissent (6 items), and vengeful dissent (6 items). Responses were solicited using a 5-point Likert-type response format ranging from (0) *never* to (4) *very often*. In this study, obtained Cronbach alphas were .91 for expressive dissent ($M=2.63$, $SD=.89$), .92 for rhetorical dissent ($M=1.47$, $SD=1.11$), and .90 for vengeful dissent ($M=.91$, $SD=1.05$).

Imagined interactions were operationalized by using items from the *Survey of Imagined Interactions* (SII; Honeycutt, 2010) and *Students’ Imagined Interactions with Teachers Scale* (Berkos et al., 2001). All II responses were solicited on a 7-point Likert response format ranging from (1) *strongly disagree* to (7) *strongly agree*. The SII was adapted slightly to reflect IIs about a specific instructor instead of a global assessment of IIs. Two subscales were used to measure the *frequency* (4 items) in which students used IIs, and the *valence* (4 items) of IIs with a target instructor (higher scores indicate a positive valence). In this study, obtained Cronbach alphas were .86 ($M=3.62$, $SD=1.51$) and .74 ($M=2.90$, $SD=1.15$) respectively. The Berkos et al. (2001) scale was used to measure three functions of students’ IIs with an instructor including *rehearsal* (9 items), *self-awareness* (9 items), and *catharsis* (9 items). In this study, obtained Cronbach alphas were .91 ($M=4.33$, $SD=1.40$), .87 ($M=4.04$, $SD=1.17$), and .85 ($M=4.24$, $SD=1.16$) respectively.

Affective learning was operationalized by using the Construct 7: Attitude Toward Instructor subscale from Mottet and Richmond's (1998) *Revised Affective Learning Measure*. This measure was used to ensure that students were reporting on low affect instructors who were likely to provoke dissent. This subscale is 4 items and asks students to report on how favorable they view a target instructor. Responses were solicited using a 7-point semantic differential response format using the following anchors: good/bad, worthless/valuable, fair/unfair, and positive/negative. The obtained Cronbach alpha for this subscale was .72 ($M = 3.26$, $SD = 1.18$). Individual item means ranged from 2.84 ($SD = 1.56$) to 3.65 ($SD = 1.54$) on a 7-point scale. The composite item mean of 3.26 was significantly lower ($t(178) = -8.35$, $p < .001$; mean difference = $-.74$) than a theoretical mean of 4.0. These results indicate that students did, in fact, report on low affect instructors.

Results

Prior to exploring the hypothesis and research question, a first order correlation matrix was computed for the variables. Because affective learning is related inversely to student reports of dissent (Goodboy, 2011b), partial correlations were calculated for the variables of interest by controlling for student affect for the instructor. This was done to control for any confounding effects stemming from students' varying reports in negative affect intensity because students' feelings about an instructor are a cause of dissent to begin with (Bolkan & Goodboy, 2013; Goodboy, 2011a, 2011b). In this study, student affect for the instructor was correlated significantly with the frequency ($r = -.22$, $p < .01$) and valence ($r = .44$, $p < .001$) functions of IIs, the rehearsal characteristic of IIs ($r = -.18$, $p < .05$), along with expressive ($r = -.31$, $p < .001$) and vengeful dissent types ($r = -.27$, $p < .001$). Therefore, affect toward the instructor served as an appropriate covariate. Results of partial correlations are available in Table 1.

Table 1 Partial Correlations Controlling for Affective Learning

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<i>Imagined Interactions</i>							
1. Frequency of IIs	—						
2. Valence of IIs	.02 (.09)	—					
3. Rehearsal	.61 (.68) [^]	.04 (.10)	—				
4. Self-Awareness	.53 (.61) [^]	.15 (.24) [*]	.72 (.81) [^]	—			
5. Catharsis	.42 (.49) [^]	.01 (.06)	.55 (.63) [^]	.63 (.73) [^]	—		
<i>Instructional Dissent</i>							
6. Expressive	.29 (.31) [^]	-.19 (-.18) ^{**}	.23 (.24) ^{**}	.13 (.13)	.10 (.09)	—	
7. Rhetorical	.30 (.36) [^]	.09 (.10)	.18 (.21) ^{**}	.12 (.14)	.04 (.06)	.34 (.39) [^]	—
8. Vengeful	.21 (.22) ^{**}	.08 (.18)	.02 (.00)	.00 (-.01)	.02 (.00)	.26 (.26) [^]	.53 (.61) [^]

Note. Partial correlations control for affective learning toward instructor and are flagged with * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, [^] $p < .001$. Disattenuated partial correlations are in parentheses.

Hypotheses 1 and 2 predicted that II characteristics (i.e., frequency and valence) would predict students' instructional dissent responses (i.e., expressive, rhetorical, vengeful) with low affect instructors, and the research question inquired about the role of II functions (i.e., rehearsal, self-awareness, catharsis) in this process. To examine these relationships, a canonical correlation was computed with the five IIs variables serving as predictors of the three dissent types. Only structure coefficients above .45 were interpreted (Sherry & Henson, 2005). Collectively, the full model across all functions was statistically significant, Wilks's $\lambda = .69$; $F(15, 475.22) = 4.54, p < .001$. With $1 - \lambda$ yielding the full model effect size, the full model explained 31% of the variance shared between the variable sets. Dimension reduction analysis showed that the full model (functions 1 to 3) was significant (see above), and functions 2 to 3 were also statistically significant ($F(8, 346) = 3.12, p = .002$). Function 3, which was the only function tested in isolation, did not explain a statistically significant amount of shared variance in the variable sets, ($F(3, 174) = 1.87, p = .14$). Results of the first two functions, including structure coefficients, squared structure coefficients, communality coefficients, and redundancy coefficients, are available in Table 2.

The first function ($R_c = .453, R_c^2 = .206$) revealed that when students had frequent, negatively valenced, and rehearsed IIs about their low affect instructor, they communicated more expressive dissent, and to a lesser extent, vengeful dissent. The second function ($R_c = .320, R_c^2 = .102$), which accounts for variance remaining after the first function has been extracted (Thompson, 1984), revealed that when students had

Table 2 Canonical Solution for Characteristics and Functions of IIs Predicting Instructional Dissent for Functions 1 and 2

Variables	Function 1		Function 2		h^2
	r_s	r_s^2 (%)	r_s	r_s^2 (%)	
Set 1: Imagined Interactions					
Frequency	.793	62.88	.542	29.38	92.26
Valence	-.646	41.73	.725	52.56	94.29
Rehearsal	.567	32.15	.214	4.58	36.73
Self-Awareness	.317	10.04	.176	3.10	13.14
Catharsis	.314	9.85	-.068	.46	10.31
Redundancy Coefficient	(.313)		(.180)		
Set 2: Instructional Dissent					
Expressive	.985	97.02	-.046	.21	97.23
Rhetorical	.311	9.67	.943	88.92	98.59
Vengeful	.473	22.37	.453	20.52	42.89
Redundancy Coefficient	(.089)		(.037)		

Note. Wilks's $\lambda = .69$; $F(15, 475.22) = 4.54, p < .001$. r_s = structure coefficient; r_s^2 = squared structure coefficient; h^2 = communality coefficient. Structure coefficients (r_s) greater than .45 are in bold. Communality coefficients (h^2) greater than 45% are in bold.

frequent, but positively valenced IIs about their low affect instructor, they communicated rhetorical dissent, and to a lesser extent, vengeful dissent.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to examine the role of students' imagined interactions in the instructional dissent process. Overall, the results suggest that the frequency and valence of students' imagined interactions with their low affect instructors matter the most, and the rehearsal function plays a less important role. That is, students who have frequently rehearsed IIs that are negative prefer to engage in expressive dissent, but in contrast, students who have frequent IIs that are positive prefer to engage in rhetorical dissent. Regardless of the valence, students reported that with low affect instructors, they engaged in vengeful dissent to a small degree. These results lend full support for hypothesis 1 and partial support for hypothesis 2.

The interpretations of these findings have pedagogical value. Although our findings account for a modest amount of variance, they suggest that when students envision negatively valenced IIs, they do not approach their instructors with their concerns and instead communicate their disagreements to outside parties in an attempt to vent their class-related frustrations. This imagined negativity might stem from students' lack of confidence that even approaching an instructor with a concern will accomplish anything. Research on why students withhold rhetorical dissent from their instructors supports this conclusion. Bolkan and Goodboy (2013) discovered that many students prefer to avoid dissenting directly to an instructor because they do not think that it is worth the effort or that complaining would fix their problems. Bolkan and Goodboy also found that when students withhold rhetorical dissent, they typically prefer to communicate expressive dissent as an alternative response. Therefore, the extant research on dissent may explain why students who have negatively valenced IIs end up not communicating their dissatisfaction in person—they may perceive that an actual conversation with their instructor will unfold in an unproductive manner. If this is the case, unlike positively valenced IIs, which may indicate that students are hopeful regarding their interactions with instructors, students who experience negative IIs may not dissent rhetorically because they essentially “think themselves out of it.” And, instead of dissenting in ways that might address their perceived problem, they may act in ways that address their negative feelings by expressing their discontent to friends, family members, or classmates to garner empathy or support.

On the contrary, after explaining variance from function 1, results suggested that students who had frequent and positively valenced IIs were likely to communicate rhetorical dissent directly to the instructor. It may be that students' anticipated positive interactions in their thoughts helped encourage direct conversations with their instructors to remedy their class-related concerns. Though these students may have viewed their instructor as transgressing in the classroom, they may also believe that their instructor might rectify their problems and therefore may be more likely to speak with him/her. This result makes sense considering students expect fair and satisfying responses from their instructors when they rhetorically dissent (Holmgren

& Bolkan, 2014), and positively valenced IIs might play out mentally with a fair anticipated response. Other researchers would agree with this conclusion as well. For example, Mottet, Martin, and Myers (2004) found that students will communicate concerns to an instructor to perform better in the course as long as they view the instructor as approachable. In summary, the valence of IIs may be a reflection of students' anticipated outcomes regarding conversations with their instructors and, as a result, may dictate whether or not students complain directly to their instructors or communicate their displeasure to other parties instead in a less constructive manner.

The collective results of these intrapersonal findings also have practical implications for instructors. First, because results of this study suggest that low affect instructors spur imagined interactions with students, and that these interactions co-occur with dissent, instructors who want to deter students from having negative IIs about them should focus on fostering affective learning in the classroom. This may be done by utilizing effective instructional behaviors such as immediacy, humor, clarity, and confirmation (Kramer & Pier, 1999). Second, although instructors will occasionally enact behaviors that damage students' affective learning (Kearney, Plax, Hays, & Ivey, 1991), being pleasant and welcoming to students after making mistakes may help students form positively valenced IIs that address their concerns and allow them to forgive the instructor's transgression (Vallade et al., 2013). Likewise, Bolkan and Goodboy (2013) suggest that instructors who openly welcome corrective feedback in the form of rhetorical dissent may motivate their students to come to them with their classroom problems. The results of this study suggest that students who have positive IIs will be more likely to approach their instructors which may result in a constructive solution for the student and the opportunity for instructors to change teaching practices for the better (Bolkan & Goodboy, 2013). Third, regardless of the valence or rehearsal, students who have frequent IIs about their low affect instructor report that they will engage in vengeful dissent to some degree. Thus, it may be important for instructors to realize that when students attempt to get their instructors in trouble with their careers they are not necessarily reacting with little thought. Instead, they have probably thought this decision out and imagined the consequences/outcomes of vengeful dissent attempts. Though this may not be good news for offending instructors, these results are informative because they suggest that vengeful dissent may not be an impulsive reaction to student anger and may instead reflect a more deliberate and planned student reaction toward instructors who fail to foster affective learning.

As with any research the current study had several limitations. One limitation is that students only reported on low affect instructors by referencing their worst instructor in the past academic year. This methodological decision was used in order to maximize reports of IIs and subsequent dissent responses. It is possible that effective instructors, who are likely to trigger minimal dissent from their teaching (Goodboy, 2011b; LaBelle et al., 2013), provide students with little desire to have IIs about their instructors because their academic needs are being fulfilled. Therefore, future researchers should carefully discern the types of data collection methods used for collecting instructional dissent data. That is, in this study students (a) reported on their worst instructors, but in other research, students have (b) reported on their

instructor from the class immediately before data collection to obtain a variability in instructors (e.g., Goodboy, 2011b; Goodboy & Myers, 2012), (c) have been provided with definitions of instructional dissent and have referenced an instructor that met the definition (e.g., Holmgren & Bolkan, 2014; LaBelle et al., 2013), or (d) provided open-ended responses to dissent-related questioning (e.g., Bolkan & Goodboy, 2013; Goodboy, 2011a). Instructional dissent researchers should be guided by their research questions or hypotheses when determining which data collection method best suits their purposes.

Another limitation was that we did not measure the full range of II characteristics and functions; yet, these measures may need improvement according to data in this study.¹ A third limitation is that causality cannot be inferred from the data; although we predicted that IIs predict dissent, it is possible that dissent episodes trigger IIs too. Future researchers may consider the role that culture plays in IIs and the dissent process considering that Americans are the most self-dominant in IIs (McCann & Honeycutt, 2006). Moreover, future research might consider how IIs function in the small group context with class assignments because individuals have third-party imagined interactions about others, not just themselves (Porter, 2010–2011). Finally, much like research on interpersonal conflict, research on instructional dissent should provide more comprehensive models showcasing distal and proximal factors that influence dissent messages and outcomes.

In summary, this project confirms that students have IIs about low affect instructors and that features of those IIs dictate the type of dissent that students' respond with. Moreover, it is important for instructors to realize that many students have imagined conversations with them and that the valence of these self-talks either encourages or discourages students to communicate with them directly to rectify their problems. Moreover, these IIs also encourage students to retaliate with instructors by spreading negative publicity when affective learning is low. For these reasons, instructors should be careful to avoid triggering agents of dissent in the first place (Goodboy, 2011a), and they should attempt to maintain students' affective learning which acts as a buffer against unproductive dissent (Goodboy, 2011b).

Note

- [1] For validity purposes, all measures were subjected to confirmatory factor analyses (CFAs) using maximum likelihood estimation (ML). Model fit was assessed using the minimum fit function chi square, CFI, SRMR, and RMSEA (Kline, 2011). The CFA results for each measure are as follows: (1) Survey of Imagined Interactions: Frequency and Valence subscales (2 factors: $\chi^2 = 55.85$, $df = 13$, $p < .01$, $RMSEA = .13$, $CFI = .93$, $SRMR = .11$); Students' Imagined Interactions with Teachers Scale (3 factors: $\chi^2 = 1011.97$, $df = 321$, $p < .001$, $RMSEA = .12$, $CFI = .93$, $SRMR = .09$); Instructional Dissent Scale (3 factors: $\chi^2 = 517.11$, $df = 206$, $p < .01$, $RMSEA = .09$, $CFI = .95$, $SRMR = .08$); Revised Affective Learning Measure: Construct 7 subscale (1 factor: $\chi^2 = 5.92$, $df = 2$, $p = .05$, $RMSEA = .11$, $CFI = .98$, $SRMR = .04$). Considering the fit statistics for the Survey of Imagined Interactions and the Students' Imagined Interactions with Teachers Scale, future researchers should consider how to improve the measurement of IIs.

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