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Gathering further validity evidence for the academic entitlement questionnaire: Examining the relationship between noncompliance and academic entitlement

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Gathering Further Validity Evidence for the Academic Entitlement Questionnaire:
Examining the Relationship between Noncompliance and Academic Entitlement

Jason P. Kopp

A thesis submitted to the Graduate Faculty of

JAMES MADISON UNIVERSITY

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Abstract

A rigorous investigation of the psychometric properties of the Academic Entitlement Questionnaire (AEQ) was undertaken. Academic entitlement (AE) is defined as the expectation that one should receive positive academic outcomes (e.g., high grades), often independent of performance. AE had been theoretically linked with uncivil student behavior, but this relationship had not been evaluated empirically prior to this study. Responses on the AEQ were gathered from compliant and noncompliant students. Measurement invariance was established for the AEQ across these compliant and noncompliant samples. As predicted, the noncompliant sample was significantly higher in latent AE than the compliant sample. Relationships between AE scores and theoretically-relevant external variables (e.g., metacognitive regulation, help-seeking, agreeableness, conscientiousness) provided further validity evidence. Given the wealth of validity evidence for scores derived from the AEQ, this instrument could be used to assess the effectiveness of student programming to reduce AE. Additionally, the AEQ could be used to identify students high in AE, who could then be targeted for intervention. Moreover, this study suggests that AE is an important construct that should receive increased focus from researchers, educators, and administrators.

CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

“I can’t believe the professor expects us to do readings over Thanksgiving break!

I was planning a ski trip for months!”

“My professor gave me a B+. I worked really hard in class; so she should have bumped me up to an A.”

“I asked for an extension on that paper, and my professor told me that my grade would be penalized if I turned in an assignment late! Doesn’t he realize that we have lives outside of school?”

Statements similar to these are being made by students in colleges and universities across the country. Inherent in these statements is a sense of academic entitlement (AE) – defined as the expectation that one should receive positive academic outcomes (e.g., high grades), often independent of performance. Academically-entitled students often expect high grades without reciprocal performance (Achacoso, 2002), or expect the professor to rearrange the class structure or schedule to meet student needs (Greenberger, Lessard, Chen, & Farruggia, 2008). When academically entitled students feel that their demands are not met, they may become hostile (Dubovsky, 1986). This hostility can lead to a breakdown in student-faculty relations, hindering effective education (Hirschy & Braxton, 2004).

Unfortunately, AE seems to be on the rise. For instance, when Twenge and W. K. Campbell (2009) asked faculty and staff from various universities to send them their stories of entitled students, they were met with a flood of responses. One professor lamented the amount of time she had to spend arguing with various students over grade

disputes. The students would often recruit their parents to help argue their case as well. Another story about academic entitlement was shared by a financial aid officer, who cited students who were outwardly insulting when they did not receive their financial aid when expected. Often, these students were to blame for the delay, as they did not complete the necessary paperwork on time. Some professors reported that students were threatening, saying things such as “I’m not leaving your office until you change my grade to an A!” (Twenge & Campbell, W. K., 2009, p. 231). Although these anecdotes provide some evidence that AE is on the rise, measures of AE have been constructed only recently (Achacoso, 2002; Chowning & Campbell, N. J., 2009; Greenberger et al., 2008; Kopp, Zinn, Finney, S. J., & Jurich, 2011). As such, the construct has never been assessed longitudinally. Thus, a hypothesized increase in AE over time is speculative and based primarily on anecdotal evidence.

Although it is unclear whether AE is increasing, narcissism does seem to be increasing over time, which includes generalized entitlement as a component (Raskin & Terry, 1988). Narcissism scores in America (as measured by the Narcissism Personality Inventory, or NPI, Raskin & Terry, 1988) have been found to be steadily increasing over the years, rising by over 10% between 1982 and 2006 (Twenge, Konrath, Foster, Campbell, W. K., & Bushman, 2008). Twenge and W. K. Campbell (2009) asserted this increase in narcissism could be related to increases in both academic and general entitlement among the younger generation. They labeled this increase a “narcissism epidemic,” as the increase in narcissism scores seems to be culture-wide, affecting people of various races and socio-economic classes. It is important to note, though, that this increase has been disputed by other researchers (Trzesniewski, Donellan, & Robins,

2008). Both research teams utilized similar meta-analytic techniques with slightly different samples and inclusion criteria, so it is difficult to ascertain whether narcissism has been increasing over time.

The Roots of an Epidemic

If increases in AE, general entitlement, and narcissism indeed exist, they may be a product of shifting cultural norms. Students entering college today were born during the “self-esteem movement.” Branden (1969) hypothesized that self-esteem was one of the single most important variables in obtaining lifelong success. To empirically support this claim, he found self-esteem was correlated with a number of important psychological variables, such as general psychological health and happiness. Branden’s ideas concerning self-esteem became part of the national consciousness. If high self-esteem was related to success, it was the responsibility of parents to do whatever they could to increase their child’s self-esteem. This paradigm became a central tenet of parenting in the 1980’s and 1990’s. Children were awarded trophies for merely participating in athletic competitions, even if they lost. Many schools stopped publishing traditional “honor rolls,” or lists of students who had high achievement in class, for fear other students may feel badly about their own levels of achievement. This mindset is still prevalent today. For example, one school district recently began to publish “effort rolls” (along with traditional honor rolls), which lists students who appeared to put forth consistent effort, but failed to achieve high marks (Graham, 2010). In order to bolster self-esteem, parents and teachers have been giving increased rewards, recognition, and esteem for very little positive outcomes from children. Instead of leading to success, this system of unconditional rewards may have led to an increased level of entitlement among

this generation. Moses and Moses-Hrushovski (1990) hypothesized that meeting all of an individual's needs for relatively little reciprocal effort would result in an exaggerated sense of entitlement. It is possible that taking part in the "self-esteem movement" has caused parents to unintentionally raise increasingly entitled children.

Another possible explanation for rising entitlement in academics is the increasing attitude that "students are customers" of higher education. There are a number of possible reasons for this mindset. First, college costs have inflated tremendously in the past few decades (Wang, 2009). Given the steep price tag attached to a college education, this could lead to students feeling as if accommodations and favors are deserved. Second, some universities have intentionally adopted the "students as customers" paradigm, often catering to student needs in order to compete with other colleges and universities for enrollment (George, 2007). This paradigm can foster students feeling as if they deserve to have knowledge "delivered" to them, rather than having to work for it (Singleton-Jackson, Jackson, & Reinhardt, 2010). Thus, some educators have designed strategies to specifically counter the "students as customers" mindset and reduce AE (Franz, 1998; Lippmann, Bulanda, & Wagenaar, 2009). These strategies include enforcing deadlines, staying firm to grading policies, and warning students that their grade could be adjusted up or down if they attempt to negotiate for it to be changed (in order to limit "grade grubbing," or debating for a higher grade).

How Does The Entitled Student Behave in College? The Rise of Collegiate Incivility

One reason educators want to reduce AE is that it may manifest as student incivility. Uncivil student behaviors generally encompass behaviors that violate the social norms present in academics, such as "sending wireless messages [in lecture], arriving late

to class, leaving class early, and inappropriate use of laptop computers in class” (Chowning & Campbell, N. J., 2009, p. 982). Uncivil behaviors can be present outside the classroom, in the form of rude and demanding emails (Lippman et al., 2009). A survey of faculty on experiences with student incivility found that uncivil student behaviors were common, and ranged from relatively minor (e.g., not paying attention in class) to major confrontations with professors (e.g., angry yelling, threats) (Goodyear, Reynolds, & Gragg, 2010). Most of the major confrontations were in reaction to unfavorable evaluations from professors. These uncivil student behaviors can negatively affect the classroom climate. For example, student incivilities reduce classroom enthusiasm and commitment from other students in the classroom (Hirschy & Braxton, 2004).

Another instance of student incivility is noncompliance with university policies. The prior examples of incivility focus primarily on a student engaging in behaviors that are uncivil. However, a student can also be uncivil by failing to act. University administrations regularly require students to perform certain tasks in order to remain enrolled in the university. Administrators often require students to attend certain meetings, pay tuition on-time, and enroll in classes by a certain date. However, the entitled student believes that education should be delivered without having to give anything in return. The entitled student may see university policies as the university unjustly attempting to require something of the student. This attitude may cause the student to act in an uncivil manner by refusing to comply with university policies (e.g., not paying tuition on time, not registering for classes, etc.). This can cause additional

tension between students and administrators, as administrators struggle to elicit compliance from the wayward students.

Various researchers have theorized a link between student incivility and AE (Achacoso, 2002; Chowning & Campbell, N. J., 2009; Dubovsky, 1986). Interviews with various medical school faculty revealed that entitled students would often confront professors or the dean about a perceived slight or inconvenience (Dubovsky, 1986). Entitled students feel they deserve positive outcomes without needing to reciprocate; university faculty and staff exist to serve them. Thus, theoretically, entitled students feel they should have the freedom to act in uncivil ways (e.g., read the paper in class), if it suits them. Additionally, if the entitled student does not receive positive academic outcomes, he/she sees this as a failure on the part of the university faculty and administrators. Therefore, entitled students feel entitled to be confrontational to professors who “gave” them a bad grade, as they hold the professor, not themselves, accountable for the bad grade. This may explain why the most egregious instances of student incivility occurred after the student received unfavorable assessments (Goodyear et al., 2010). Accordingly, Achacoso (2002) theorized that generally or academically entitled individuals will assert themselves when they feel that they are receiving less than they deserve. Students who score higher in AE tend to rate vignettes describing inappropriate student behavior as more appropriate than less academically-entitled students (Chowning & Campbell, N. J., 2009). Although some researchers (Chowning & Campbell, N. J., 2009) have argued that student incivility is an *outcome* of high academic entitlement (suggesting a causal relationship), this has not been evaluated empirically.

The theoretical link between AE and incivility is not surprising, given that generalized entitlement has been found to relate to a host of variables associated with negative social interactions. Generalized entitlement is positively correlated with variables such as hostility, difficulty in relationships, aggression, intention to harm, and vengeance (Bishop & Lane, 2002; Campbell, W. K., Bonacci, Shelton, Exline, & Bushman, 2004; Exline, Baumeister, Bushman, Campbell, W. K., & Finkel, 2004; Raskin & Terry, 1988). Generalized entitlement has also been found to correlate with aggression, especially when the entitled person feels threatened (Campbell, W. K., et al., 2004; Major, 1994). Therefore, incivility is not uniquely related to AE. However, the “students as customers” aspect of AE may lead to unique forms of incivility, such as noncompliance with university policies.

Despite the theoretical research linking AE and student incivility, no studies have empirically assessed whether AE and uncivil student *behaviors* are related. It would be useful to assess whether AE and actual uncivil behaviors are empirically related, instead of examining proxy measures of incivility. Although Chowning and N. J. Campbell (2009) had students *rate* inappropriate student behavior, and correlated these ratings to scores on their measure of AE, they did not measure whether entitled students *engaged* in more inappropriate behaviors. Given student incivility has been theoretically linked to AE, it is important that measures of AE can predict instances of uncivil student behaviors.

The Measurement of AE

The interest in AE and student incivility has spawned a number of measures of AE (Achacoso, 2002; Chowning & Campbell, N. J., 2009; Greenberger et al., 2008;

Kopp et al., 2011). However, scores derived from many of these measures are lacking in validity evidence. In the following paragraphs, the measures will be briefly reviewed, and the weaknesses and strengths of each measure will be presented. Finally, the case for further study of one promising measure, the AE Questionnaire (AEQ; Kopp et al., 2011), will be presented.

The existing scales that purport to measure AE differ in both conceptual framework and validity evidence for their scores. The Achacoso Entitlement Scale (AES; Achacoso, 2002) consists of two subscales: Entitlement Beliefs and Entitlement Actions. These factors were not specified a priori, but instead were empirically uncovered via EFA techniques. Additionally, Achacoso (2002) did not attempt to write items to cover specific aspects of entitlement. The AE scale developed by Greenberger and colleagues (2008) was not based on a strong conceptual framework, few details were given regarding the item writing process, and no evidence regarding the structural validity of the measure was presented. The AE scale developed by Chowning and N. J. Campbell possesses numerous strong points, but may not adequately cover the breadth of AE. Additionally, the two subscales of the measure (Entitlement Beliefs and Entitlement Actions) may not be distinct.

Of the existing AE measures, scores derived from the eight-item Academic Entitlement Questionnaire (AEQ; Kopp et al., 2011) possess the strongest validity evidence that aligns with the three stages of Benson's (1998) strong program of construct validity. This program involves ensuring substantive (properly defining the theoretical domain, and writing items to directly represent that domain), structural (assessing the structure of the instrument, and ensuring the supported structure aligns with prior theory

and research), and external (testing theoretically-supported relationships with other constructs) aspects of validity. First, Kopp and colleagues (2011) defined AE as “the expectation that one should receive certain positive academic outcomes (e.g., high grades) in academic settings, often independent of performance” (Kopp et al., 2011, p. 106). The conceptualization championed by Kopp and colleagues (2011) emphasized external locus of control and students viewing themselves as customers. During the instrument development process, they established a strong theoretical background for their measure, mapping 26 items directly to their theoretical conceptualization. Specifically, they believed AE consisted of five aspects or facets: knowledge is a right (KR), others should provide education (OP), problems in learning are due external factors (PL), outcomes are deserved because the student pays tuition (DT), and students should have control over class policies (SC). Thus, they constructed items to represent each facet (see Appendix). Unlike Achacoso (2002), Kopp and colleagues (2011) believed uncivil student behaviors were an outcome of AE, not an aspect of the construct. As such, no items specifically referring to uncivil behavior were included.

Next, Kopp and colleagues (2011) examined the dimensionality of the measure. A large sample was randomly split, to explore the factor structure using the first sample and test the championed structure using the second sample. A unidimensional model, a five-factor model (representing the five hypothesized facets), and a bifactor model were fit to the data. By examining the results of the three models, the researchers concluded the structure was essentially unidimensional, with some scale revision needed to improve fit. The 26-item pool was trimmed to an 8-item, one-factor measure, which included at least one item from each facet in order to maintain construct coverage. The one-factor model

fit the data well, with little residual covariance between items. These results generalized to the second sample. Reliability for both samples was adequate (.81 and .84 for the first and second samples, respectively).

Finally, Kopp and colleagues (2011) gathered evidence for external aspects of validity by testing theoretically-expected relationships between the AEQ and measures of other constructs. Specifically, as predicted, AEQ scores were positively correlated with psychological entitlement, external locus of control, and work avoidance, and negatively correlated with mastery-approach goal orientation and effort during a low-stakes assessment session. These relationships provided further evidence for the validity of the scores derived from the AEQ.

Despite the strong validity evidence collected by Kopp and colleagues (2011), research on this measure prior to the current study had only used two samples of incoming freshmen students from a mid-sized, southeastern university. It was unclear whether the measure would function equivalently with students with actual college classroom experience. In addition, further external validity evidence needed to be gathered in order to extend the nomological net of AE. Prior research suggested that study strategies (Achacoso, 2002; Campbell, W. K., et al., 2004), help-seeking strategies (Achacoso, 2002), and agreeableness and conscientiousness (Achacoso, 2002; Chowning & Campbell, N. J., 2009) should be related to AE. Observing relationships with these variables in the hypothesized directions would add to the external validity evidence of the AEQ. Finally, as with any measure of AE, the relationship between the AEQ and actual student behavior had not been studied. The current study attempted to address these gaps in the literature.

The Current Study: Further Evaluation of the AEQ

The current study was aimed at gathering additional validity evidence for the AEQ (Kopp et al., 2010). Specifically, the main focus of this study was the relationship between AE and non-compliance behavior.

Compliance and AE. At the author's mid-sized, southeastern university, mandatory university-wide assessment sessions are conducted. Students are assessed on a number of developmental and cognitive variables for institutional accountability mandates. Students at this university are assessed twice during their college careers: once as entering college students, and again after they have accumulated between 45 and 70 credit hours. Classes are canceled in order for students to attend the testing sessions. Despite mandatory attendance, every year there are a number of students who do not attend the testing session. A registration hold is placed on these non-compliant students' records, thus they are compelled to attend a make-up testing session to remove this hold. Anecdotally, proctors of these testing sessions often report the students in the makeup testing sessions exhibit higher levels of uncivil student behaviors (e.g., texting, talking, ignoring instructions) than students in the standard assessment sessions. Students often offer no or little excuse for missing the original scheduled testing session, so their nonattendance is often a blatant instance of student incivility and noncompliance with university requests.

In order to study the relationship between non-compliance and AE, measurement invariance of the AEQ was examined across two groups of students: those that complied with university requests to attend the testing session (compliant students) and those who did not comply and instead attended a makeup session in order remove the registration

hold from their record (noncompliant students). Measurement invariance was first established to confirm that differences in AEQ scores between the groups were indicative of differences in actual AE, and not differences in how the AEQ functioned across samples. In order to establish measurement invariance, it was important to first ascertain whether the one-factor model championed by Kopp and colleagues (2011) adequately fit the data of noncompliant students. The noncompliant students may be less willing to put forth adequate effort when completing the instrument. Thus, the one-factor model may inadequately fit the responses from the noncompliant students. In other words, the students' noncompliance with the initial testing could influence these students' responses to the AEQ during the make-up session. A. Brown and S. J. Finney (in press) similarly hypothesized that noncompliant students in a make-up assessment session may be more unwilling to comply with testing requests, resulting in invalid responses to instruments. However, this hypothesis was not supported; the researchers found measurement invariance of a reactance measure across compliant and noncompliant students. Similarly, Swerdzewski, Harmes, and S. J. Finney (2009) found that noncompliant students typically put forth sufficient effort on developmental measures, like the AEQ, but not cognitively-taxing measures, like a science test. As such, I predicted the noncompliant students would provide thoughtful and valid responses to the AEQ.

In addition to fitting the one-factor model to the data from both samples, the functioning of the AEQ items across noncompliant and compliant samples was assessed prior to computing mean differences on AE. Noncompliant students could possibly conceptualize items differently than compliant students, leading to different factor pattern coefficients. Also, there could be an upward or downward bias in scores for some items

for noncompliant students (differences in observed scores across groups unrelated to actual AE group differences). Although measurement invariance was supported across compliant and noncompliant students when measuring reactance (Brown, A., & Finney, S. J., in press) this may not hold true for AE. Therefore, it was difficult to predict whether measurement invariance for AEQ scores would be supported across the two groups.

If measurement invariance is supported across compliant and noncompliant students, the latent mean difference in AE can then be estimated. If entitlement leads to student incivility, theory suggests, AE should be higher for the non-compliant group (Achacoso, 2002; Chowning & Campbell, N. J., 2009; Dubovsky, 1986). Thus, the goal of this study was to empirically assess the relationship between AE and actual uncivil student behavior, addressing a gap in the literature.

External variables and AE. In addition to evaluating the link between AE and compliance, this study gathered additional external validity evidence for the AEQ. That is, in order to further extend the nomological net of AE, the relationships between the AEQ and several academic and personality variables were examined.

Chowning and N. J. Campbell (2009) suggested the academically entitled student should have poor study strategies. Entitled students adopt an external locus of control (Achacoso, 2002; Chowning & Campbell, N. J., 2009; Dubovsky, 1986; Kopp et al., 2011). This external locus of control can translate into the inability to independently implement effective study strategies (Chowning & Campbell, N. J., 2009). Moreover, a student who is used to receiving external guidance, such as study guides, may be ill-prepared to independently study and self-regulate his/her learning. Metacognitive regulation represents an individual's ability to adequately implement strategies that

organize and assess his/her own learning processes. Academically entitled students, who are dependent on educators to organize information and assess learning for them, should have underdeveloped metacognitive regulation skills. Consequently, I hypothesized that AEQ scores would be negatively related to metacognitive regulation.

If academically entitled students metacognitively self-regulate differently than other students, they may also engage in different help-seeking behaviors. Specifically, AE should relate in a predictable manner to instrumental and executive help-seeking. Instrumental help-seeking represents the extent to which an individual seeks help to promote mastery or command of the material. By contrast, executive help-seeking represents the extent to which an individual seeks help to complete an assignment in the easiest way, or to avoid work. Achacoso (2002) suggested that an academically entitled student would be less concerned with mastery, and more concerned with using professors to help them get a good grade. Accordingly, AEQ scores are negatively associated with mastery achievement goals, and positively associated with work avoidance (Kopp et al., 2011). Consistent with those findings and theory, I expected AE to be negatively associated with instrumental help-seeking (which is concerned with mastery) and positively associated with executive help-seeking (which is concerned with work avoidance).

AE should also be related to several key personality variables, such as agreeableness. Agreeableness represents one's degree of cooperativeness with other people. As noted above, incivility, rudeness, and being confrontational are hypothesized to be key outcomes of AE in several conceptualizations (Chowning & Campbell, N. J., 2009; Dubovsky, 1986; Kopp et al., 2011). Agreeableness, defined as cooperativeness

with others, is the opposite of being confrontational, rude, and uncivil. Moreover, general entitlement scores were found to be negatively associated with agreeableness (Campbell, W. K., et al., 2004). Additionally, agreeableness has been found to be negatively correlated with another measure of AE (Chowning & Campbell, N. J., 2009). Thus, I hypothesized that agreeableness would be negatively related to AE scores.

Finally, AE should be related to conscientiousness. Conscientiousness represents one's dependability and discipline. Multiple researchers (Achacoso, 2002; Chowning & Campbell, N. J., 2009; Kopp et al., 2011) either theorized or empirically confirmed that academically entitled students are more work avoidant. Someone who shirks work tends to lack discipline and is therefore not conscientious. Moreover, conscientiousness was moderately negatively correlated with another measure of AE (Chowning & Campbell, N. J., 2009). Accordingly, I also expected that conscientiousness would be negatively related to AEQ scores.

Hypotheses. Taking into account the evidence presented above, four broad hypotheses were tested in the current study.

1. A unidimensional model was theorized to underlie the scores from compliant and noncompliant college students halfway through their college careers, just as it did for compliant entering college students (Kopp et al., 2011).
2. The AEQ was hypothesized to function equivalently for both compliant and noncompliant students.
3. Noncompliant students should have a significantly higher latent mean of AE compared to compliant students (Achacoso, 2002; Chowning & Campbell, N. J., 2009; Dubovsky, 1986; Kopp et al., 2011).

4. Students scoring higher in AE should have poorer metacognitive regulation (Chowning & Campbell, N. J., 2009), be less likely to employ instrumental help-seeking strategies (Achacoso, 2002; Kopp et al., 2011), be more likely to employ executive help-seeking strategies (Achacoso, 2002; Kopp et al., 2011), be less agreeable (Campbell, W. K., et al., 2004; Chowning & Campbell, N. J., 2009; Dubovsky, 1986; Kopp et al., 2011), and be less conscientious (Achacoso, 2002; Chowning & Campbell, N. J., 2009; Kopp et al., 2011).

CHAPTER 2

Literature Review

The conceptualization of entitlement has evolved over time. In order to understand the development of the entitlement construct, this literature review will consist of three parts. The first part of the literature review will focus on entitlement as an aspect of narcissism. The second part will focus on the study of entitlement independent of narcissism. Finally, the third portion of the literature review will concentrate on entitlement in the specific context of an academic setting.

Entitlement as a Component of Narcissism

Entitlement was initially conceptualized as a component of narcissism. Narcissism had received a large amount of attention from clinical and psychoanalytic psychologists (Duruz, 1981; Freud, 1914/1957). Freud (1914/1957) focused on defining the clinical characteristics of the narcissism, including a) excessively high self-love, self-admiration, and self-aggrandizement; b) ego vulnerability, including the fear of loss of love and fear of failure; c) features of megalomania (i.e., delusions of grandeur), denial, and projection; d) motivation in terms of the need to be loved, including strivings for perfection; and e) a number of attitudes that characterize a person's relationships with others, including exhibitionism, lack of empathy, authority over others, intolerance of criticism, jealousy, and entitlement to special favors. Eventually, the focus on narcissism by clinicians warranted the designation of Narcissistic Personality Disorder (NPD) in the third edition of the American Psychological Association's *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders* (DSM-III; American Psychological Association, 1980). The

clinical definition of NPD drew heavily on Freud's (1914/1957) earlier work, and therefore contained an entitlement component.

Despite this interest in narcissism in clinical populations, few studies had been conducted to examine narcissistic attitudes among the general population. To address this gap, Raskin and Hall (1979) developed the Narcissistic Personality Inventory (NPI) to measure narcissism in non-clinical populations. The researchers culled a pool of 220 items into a 54-item instrument that demonstrated high internal consistency reliability (alphas ranged from .80 to .86). However, Raskin and Hall (1979) failed to assess the dimensionality of the newly-created instrument. PCA studies using orthogonal rotation, conducted by Emmons (1984, 1987), suggested that the scale consisted of four components: Exploitativeness/Entitlement, Leadership/Authority, Superiority/Arrogance, and Self-absorption/Self-admiration. EFA would have been more appropriate than PCA, given that narcissism is conceptualized as a latent construct (Benson & Nasser, 1998). That is, PCA fails to address measurement error, which produces biased results (Snook & Gorsuch, 1989). There are also issues with using orthogonal rotation, which forces the uncovered components to be uncorrelated, which may not reflect reality (see Preacher & MacCallum, 2003, for an overview of the problems associated with using PCA with orthogonal rotation). Raskin and Terry (1988) revisited the content and dimensionality of the NPI in light of the findings by Emmons (1984, 1987). Although the researchers agreed with Emmons (1984, 1987) that the narcissism construct was truly multidimensional, they argued that many of the components supported by Emmons (1984, 1987) were heterogeneous and lacked face validity. For example, the Exploitativeness/Entitlement component seemed to address both the feeling that one

deserves positive outcomes, as well as a willingness to resort to manipulative measures to gain rewards.

In order to remedy this, Raskin and Terry (1988) attempted to modify the 54-item measure to better represent “a higher order construct that describes diverse yet interdependent mental and behavioral phenomena” (p. 892). However, the researchers did not specify the “diverse yet interdependent mental and behavioral phenomena,” or dimensions, a priori. Moreover, the researchers removed seven items due to negative or near-zero correlations with the total score. This technique would have been appropriate if the researchers believed the narcissism construct was unidimensional, but is questionable given they theorized narcissism as a multidimensional construct. The researchers then conducted a PCA on responses to the remaining 47 items. The PCA converged to a seven-component solution. 7 of the 47 items had negative or near-zero relations with their respective components, so they were removed resulting in a 40-item measure. Based on the examination of the items that related strongest to each component, the researchers named the components Authority, Self-Sufficiency, Superiority, Exhibitionism, Exploitativeness, Vanity, and Entitlement. Little attempt was made to define these components. When examining the individual items that related strongest to the Entitlement component, there seem to be issues regarding face validity and some confounding with the other components. For example, the item, “I have a strong will to power,” had the highest relationship with the Entitlement component, but seems to better represent Authority. When examining the component loading matrix, this item related almost as highly to “Authority” (.36) as to “Entitlement” (.49). Given the items were not written with a clear theoretical structure of entitlement in mind, these issues of

misalignment between component names (e.g., entitlement) and item content is not surprising. Additionally, Raskin and Terry (1988) estimated reliability for the total score, instead of for the individual subscales. Reliability estimates associated with total scores assume scores from the scale are unidimensional, whereas Raskin and Terry (1988) clearly championed a multidimensional model of narcissism.

Despite these issues, Raskin and Terry (1988) found the six-item Entitlement subscale to be positively correlated with hostility, ambitiousness, independence, and power-seeking, and negatively related to self-control and tolerance. Although these correlations were exploratory in nature (i.e., not specified a priori based on theory, and then tested), the pattern of correlations seems consistent with contemporary conceptualizations of the nomological net of entitlement. Later studies utilizing the NPI Entitlement subscale found entitlement to be positively correlated with vengeance and unwillingness to forgive (Exline et al., 2004), aggression (Reidy, Zeichner, Foster, & Martinez, 2008), and interpersonal conflict (Moeller, Crocker, & Bushman, 2009). Although there were some flaws in the method used to create the scale, the NPI Entitlement subscale was the first measure that attempted to represent the entitlement construct.

Entitlement as an Independent Construct

As research into entitlement progressed, entitlement as a construct independent from, yet related to, narcissism became a primary interest. When discussing entitlement, the concept of *deservingness* is often mentioned, so it is important to briefly address the similarities and differences between the two concepts. While investigating social justice theory, Lerner (1980) described both deservingness and entitlement, and saw the two as

related. Deservingness, according to Lerner (1980), is based on the idea that an individual receives outcomes to which s/he is entitled. However, what someone is “entitled” to is conceptualized drastically differently by various cultures and individuals. Moses and Moses-Hrushovski (1990) theorized that people could have varying levels of entitlement that affect what they believe they deserve: *normal entitlement*, *repressed entitlement*, and *exaggerated entitlement*. *Normal entitlement* is characterized by acceptable levels of entitlement. That is, your feelings of deservingness correspond to what you actually deserve. *Repressed entitlement* is characterized by a low level of entitlement (i.e., you feel that you deserve less than you actually deserve), and *exaggerated entitlement* is characterized by an excessively high level of entitlement. Moses and Moses-Hrushovski (1990) were careful to point out that these labels are culturally-bound. That is, a person’s level of entitlement could be considered “exaggerated” in one culture and “repressed” in another. Lerner (1981) suggested that people are naturally predisposed to have an exaggerated sense of entitlement. This causes us, as children, to try and get as many rewards and as much resources as possible. Eventually, though, the level of an individual’s entitlement is shaped by their environment. Individuals that are routinely deprived of the things that they want or need will develop a repressed sense of entitlement. By contrast, someone who has all of their desires met without giving much in return will retain a childlike exaggerated sense of entitlement. Under this model, culture-wide increases in entitlement levels could be rooted in individuals being coddled, or given rewards without having to give much effort.

Whereas the above theories conceptualized entitlement and deservingness as closely linked, Feather (2003) distinguished between the two constructs. Feather (2003)

noted that *deservingness* inherently involves value judgments. That is, what is “deserved” depends on the value you place on an action and its consequences. If you designate an action as “good,” and a “good” result comes from it, you would say that the result was “deserved.” For example, if a student studied for many hours for an exam, and received a good grade on that exam, that result would be considered “deserved.” By contrast, if you designate an action as “bad,” and a “good” result comes from it, you would say the result was “not deserved.” If that same student did not study at all for an exam, yet received a good grade anyway, the grade would be considered “undeserved.” Entitlement, on the other hand, involves unspoken societal norms and expectations. One could say that someone is entitled to their inheritance, but they may not deserve it. In order for someone to “deserve” a good outcome, a good action must come before it. This “good” action is not necessary for someone to be “entitled” to a good outcome; often, we see someone as entitled to their rights, even though they did nothing to “deserve” them. Accordingly, Feather (2003) saw deservingness as an inherently active process, whereas entitlement was a more passive process.

At the same time social justice theorists were examining entitlement and deservingness, Bishop and Lane (2000, 2002) were investigating the roots of entitlement as they related to psychoanalytic theory. Bishop and Lane (2000) postulated that an absent father could lead to an increase in entitlement attitudes. This would be especially true if the mother over-values and over-invests in the child. The child would then be hurt and vulnerable by the father’s absence, but also feel special because of the mother’s over-nurturance. This could lead to an inflated, yet fragile, self-esteem. To account for their perceived deprivation in childhood, entitled individuals constantly expect others to cater

to their wishes. This hidden anger and vulnerability can cause entitlement attitudes to be comorbid with a host of other psychological problems that could reach dangerous levels if left unchecked.

The portrait of entitlement painted by the social justice researchers seems at odds with that presented by Bishop and Lane (2000, 2002). Whereas social justice researchers conceptualize entitlement as an outcome of being coddled, Bishop and Lane (2000) hypothesize that entitlement is an outcome of perceived deprivation in childhood. The two disparate conceptualizations of entitlement may correspond to the two subtypes of narcissism: *grandiose* and *vulnerable* (Ziegler-Hill, Clark, & Pickard, 2008). Grandiose narcissists inherently view themselves as superior. These narcissists most likely have entitlement attitudes that most closely correspond to those described by the social justice theorists. These narcissists have been given all they desire in life, so they believe they are entitled to the best. By contrast, vulnerable narcissists have high self-esteem, but become hurt and defensive when this self-esteem is threatened. The entitled beliefs held by these narcissists most closely correspond to those described by Bishop and Lane (2000, 2002). These narcissists feel the world has wronged them in some way, and they should receive positive outcomes as compensation. Both cases of narcissism include entitlement beliefs, and it is possible that different sources of entitlement are present for different individuals.

Measuring Generalized Entitlement: The Psychological Entitlement Scale

Citing flaws with the NPI Entitlement subscale, W. K. Campbell and colleagues (2004) set out to design a measure that better represented the construct of generalized entitlement. In addition to the face validity issues mentioned above, the researchers also cited the poor reliability of the NPI Entitlement subscale (alpha of .49 in their study). W.

K. Campbell and colleagues (2004) defined entitlement as “a stable and pervasive sense that one deserves more and is entitled to more than others” (p. 31). They aimed to form a general measure that would be stable across diverse settings. Contrary to the arguments furthered by Feather (2003), W. K. Campbell and colleagues (2004) did not distinguish between deservingness and entitlement, as they felt the behavioral outcomes were similar. Whether someone feels “entitled” to positive outcomes or they feel that they “deserve” positive outcomes, their behavior is much the same. However, there is little empirical work to support this conclusion. Entitlement as it is described by W. K. Campbell and colleagues (2004) could be a form of extremely exaggerated deservingness, comparable to the exaggerated entitlement described by Moses and Moses-Hrushovski (1990). That is, an individual may feel entitled to certain rewards based off of very little or no effort. However, the measure designed by W. K. Campbell and colleagues (2004) fails to make any causal attributions in their items. One such item, “Great things should come to me,” does not specify *why* good things should come to the person. A person could agree with this item because the person worked extremely hard for those great things (making the results “deserved”), or the person could agree with this item and had done nothing (reflecting high entitlement). Accordingly, normal or repressed entitlement in the Moses and Moses-Hrushovski (1990) model could be considered “highly entitled” under the definition by W. K. Campbell and colleagues (2004). That is, the level of entitlement held by the individual could be justified by the amount of work she/he had engaged in. Under the model proposed by W. K. Campbell and colleagues (2004), simply feeling as if you deserve certain positive outcomes more than others makes you “entitled,” regardless of *why* you feel that way.

Using this definition of entitlement, W. K. Campbell and colleagues (2004) wrote 57 items to cover the breadth of the entitlement construct. The researchers conceptualized entitlement as a unidimensional construct reflecting a heightened sense of deservingness and entitlement, as they did not differentiate between the two terms. A sample of 262 college students completed the 57 items. Items with low item-total correlations were removed, resulting in a total of 9 items. An example retained item was, "I honestly feel I'm just more deserving than others." A PCA conducted on responses to the 9 items revealed a one-component solution, with adequate reliability ($\alpha = .85$). Scores on the nine-item Psychological Entitlement Scale (PES) relate to a number of relevant variables. The PES has been found to be highly positively correlated with the overall NPI and the NPI Entitlement subscale, moderately positively correlated with self-sufficiency, vanity, exploitativeness, superiority, exhibitionism, and authority, and weakly positively correlated with self-esteem (Campbell, W. K., et al., 2004). When given the opportunity, people who scored high in generalized entitlement tended to take more candy from children. Entitled individuals also scored higher on measures of greed, and lower on measures of empathy, respect, and loyalty (Campbell, W. K., et al., 2004).

Using a separate sample, the NPI entitlement subscale and the nine-item PES were administered. Using CFA, a one-factor model was fit to the NPI Entitlement items and the PES items, in addition to oblique and orthogonal two-factor models. The oblique two-factor solution fit significantly better than the one-factor solution, suggesting that the PES is distinct from, yet correlated with, the NPI Entitlement subscale ($r = .50$). When examining the item content and the procedure for scale development for both the PES and NPI Entitlement subscale, the empirical distinction between the measures is not

surprising. The PES was designed to represent the unidimensional construct of general entitlement with high internal consistency. By contrast, the NPI Entitlement subscale was the result of PCA performed on items covering the broader domain of narcissism. As a result, the PES items have more face validity than the NPI Entitlement items. An example item from the PES, “People like me deserve an extra break now and then,” relates directly to feelings of deserving positive outcomes. By contrast, it is questionable whether the NPI Entitlement item, “If I ruled the world, it would be a better place,” represents entitlement attitudes. In sum, the PES has greater face validity and internal consistency than the NPI Entitlement subscale.

Additional studies have been conducted to examine the correlates of generalized entitlement. Davis, Wester, and King (2008) found that the PES was a significant predictor of research misconduct among academic professionals, even after controlling for the effects of narcissism. Another study examined if differential relationships existed between the NPI Entitlement Subscale and PES with respect to various psychological variables (Pryor, Miller, & Gaughan, 2008). They found the pattern of correlations between the two scales was markedly similar, but the NPI Entitlement subscale related to a higher degree to disagreeableness, coldness, negative affect, and schizoid and borderline personality disorders. These findings suggested that the NPI Entitlement Subscale may capture a more pathological variant of entitlement than does the PES.

Context-General vs. Context-Specific Entitlement

W. K. Campbell and colleagues (2004) suggested that entitlement is a personality variable that is stable across time and situations. However, we believe that context-specific measures of entitlement are needed. The appropriateness of context-specific vs.

general measures has been examined for a number of constructs, such as goal orientation (Baranick, Barron, & Finney, S. J., 2010; Horvath, Scheu, & DeShon, 2004) and self-efficacy (Pajares & Miller, 1995). In addition, researchers have examined whether context-specific or general measures were superior for particular purposes, such as employee selection (Ashton, 1998; Ones & Viswesvaran, 1996). When moving from general to context-specific measures, there is a bandwidth-fidelity tradeoff (described by Cronbach, 1960; Cronbach & Gleser, 1965). General measures capture more bandwidth, in that they capture aspects that apply in a variety of contexts and settings. However, fidelity is compromised as bandwidth is increased. Context-specific measures tend to possess a high degree of fidelity by predicting context-specific outcomes better than general measures. If researchers desire to predict outcomes in specific settings from entitlement measures, the development of context-specific measures of entitlement may be needed.

For example, imagine the specific context of collegiate education. An “academically entitled” student may not be generally entitled: “Students who behave in an entitled fashion in their academic coursework may not display this behavior with their peers, family, or health professionals, and they may not internalize more general entitlement statements as applying to them” (Chowning & Campbell, N. J., 2009, p. 983). Why is this? Context-specific forms of entitlement may be rooted in different beliefs than generalized entitlement. Consider the different basis for generalized entitlement vs. AE. Students may feel academically entitled because they feel they are paying for a service. Many universities and colleges are marketing to students like any other business markets to prospective customers (Wright, 2008). Some in higher education believe this

customer-like approach to recruit students carries over into students' academics and interactions with professors (Franz, 1998; George, 2007). Although students are paying money to attend a university, many students and faculty are at-odds over what that money buys. Many faculty may consider tuition as payment for *access* to an education, whereas many students may consider tuition as payment for *receiving* education. In other words, some students may expect to receive an education without putting any effort into the process. Previous research has found that many students adopt this "students as customers" paradigm and feel that professors ultimately exist to bestow knowledge onto students with a minimum of exertion on the student's part (Singleton-Jackson, Jackson, & Reinhardt, 2010). Students with a higher degree of a "students as customers" perception also score higher on the NPI Entitlement subscale, and are more likely to complain (Finney, T. G., & Finney, R. Z., 2010). Thus, the academic context has specific characteristics that may result in individuals reporting different levels of academic vs. generalized entitlement. If this is the case, it is important to distinguish academic from generalized entitlement.

Defining Entitlement in the Specific Context of Education

AE is conceptually distinct from generalized entitlement in a number of ways. As one of the first studies of entitlement in academics, Dubovsky (1986) examined entitlement attitudes among medical students. He defined entitlement as "a sense of being entitled to attention, care taking, love, success, income, or other benefits without having to give anything in return" (p. 1672). Using faculty and student interviews, Dubovsky (1986) identified five core features that he believed characterized AE attitudes. The first is "the notion that knowledge is a 'right' that should be delivered with a minimum of

exertion and discomfort on the part of the ‘consumer’” (p. 1672). This involves students seeing themselves as customers, and their professors being obliged to deliver knowledge with the least amount of effort exerted on the part of the student. Second, there is a reliance on external guidance. According to this principle, students should not have to participate in self-guided learning. Rather, it is the professor’s responsibility to structure education in such a way that is most conducive to learning. Third, if the student fails to learn, it is the instructor’s or the system’s fault, rather than the student’s responsibility. Fourth, the entitled student feels “that everyone should receive equal recognition or reward, regardless of individual effort or ability” (p. 1673). Finally, entitled students are comfortable with open hostilities towards professors and administrators when they feel that their needs are not being met. Dubovsky (1986) felt that increasing AE could have dire consequences for the medical field, producing lower-quality physicians and fostering a climate of ever-lowering standards. Whereas the core features of entitlement remain intact in Dubovsky’s (1986) conceptualization (i.e., feeling entitled to positive outcomes), there seem to be a number of features of AE that are unique. Thus, AE is a concept that is rooted in generalized entitlement, but is context specific. Specifically, AE is *the expectation that one should receive certain positive academic outcomes (e.g., high grades) in academic settings, often independent of performance* (Kopp et al., 2011).

Benton (2006) asserted that AE is increasing due to educators relaxing standards, often rewarding high grades for minimal effort. For example, student test scores on international assessment instruments have remained relatively constant over time, but grades have increased tremendously (Twenge & Campbell, W. K., 2008). Benton (2006) hypothesized that this grade inflation may be caused by educators feeling pressure from

both employers and parents to yield to student requests. Professors often report that parents will complain if they give a student low marks (Twenge & Campbell, W. K., 2009). Further, course evaluations are used in many institutions as a measure of faculty effectiveness in the classroom. These measures are often tied directly to tenure decisions. As course evaluations are strongly tied to the ease of a class (Greenwald & Gillmore, 1997), there are career incentives for educators to provide high marks independent of performance. Thus, although some have pointed out that inflating grades for career incentives is unethical (Redding, 1998), the choice for many educators is between ethical behavior and gainful employment. Indeed, over 20% of faculty reported making courses easier in order to improve popularity, and over 30% of faculty reported that this behavior was ethical in at least “rare circumstances” (Tabachnick, Keith-Spiegel, & Pope, 1991). This grade inflation has caused students to view high grades as the default, rather than a deserved outcome for outstanding achievement. In other words, students feel entitled to the high marks, although they are also avoidant of any work necessary to achieve those marks.

If this theory of AE is correct, then students should feel entitled to higher grades for less work. Accordingly, Zinn and colleagues (2011) found wide discrepancies between students and professors on the level of effort respondents thought deserving of an “A”. Thus, an academically entitled student might feel as if three hours of work on a paper should result in an “A” (the student’s expectation), whereas a professor might view that amount of effort as minimal or irrelevant, grading the paper instead on accuracy and completeness. Most students expect an “A” or “B” for average work (Landrum, 1999). This disconnect can lead to conflicts between professors and students.

This conflict can often take the form of student incivility. Chowning and N. J. Campbell (2009) present a picture of uncivil student behaviors:

Uncivil student behaviors during lecture include reading a newspaper, talking, answering mobile phones, sending wireless messages, arriving late to class, leaving class early, and inappropriate use of laptop computers in class. Uncivil student behaviors also are evidenced in student-instructor interactions, such as e-mails, calls, and face-to-face conversations that are demanding, too informal, or presumptuous. (p. 982)

These behaviors fit the “students as customers” paradigm. If the student is the customer, why should he or she have to conform to classroom protocols? Further, if the professor fails to deliver a satisfactory product, the “customer” should be allowed to complain, correct? Unfortunately, it seems as if the “students as customers” perspective is increasing, along with uncivil student behaviors (Amada, 1999; Boice, 1996; Meyers, 2003; Tiberius & Flak, 1999; Tom, 1998).

In sum, there are a number of studies that document professors perceiving a rise in interrelated “students as customers” attitudes, other entitled attitudes, and uncivil behaviors. Whereas one can speculate, we do not actually *know* whether AE is increasing or not. Many of these reports by professors may simply be reflective of a generation gap. Professors may view the young people of today as entitled, but the professors themselves could have been equally entitled in their youth. Our inability to empirically test the assertion that “AE is increasing” is due to the fact that measures of AE have only recently been developed (Achacoso, 2002; Chowning & Campbell, N. J., 2009; Greenberger, et

al., 2008; Kopp, et al., 2011). If we want to investigate this phenomenon further, it is imperative that we identify a quality measure of AE.

Evaluating the Existing Measures of AE

In the past decade, there have been multiple attempts to create measures of AE (Achacoso, 2002; Chowning & Campbell, N. J., 2009; Greenberger, et al., 2008; Kopp, et al., 2011). Although all of these measures are helpful in understanding AE, many of the measures are lacking in some area of construct validity evidence. As a standard for establishing strong construct validity evidence, Benson (1998) detailed a process involving three stages: a *substantive* stage, a *structural* stage, and an *external* stage. The *substantive* stage involves clearly defining the construct to be measured, both theoretically and empirically. The theoretical domain includes specifying the breadth of the construct, the various dimensions of the construct, and relationships that the construct has with other constructs and behaviors. The empirical domain is more specific; it specifies what observed variables will be used to represent the construct. In the *structural* stage, researchers examine how the observed variables relate to one another, typically using factor analysis and reliability estimates. Finally, the *external* stage consists of examining relationships between the construct of interest and other constructs, to assess if these relationships align with theoretical expectations established in the *substantive* stage. That is, expectations regarding how the measure of interest relates to other measures should be strongly grounded in theory and prior research, and then tested empirically. Outlined below are the characteristics of the four existing measures of AE, along with an evaluation of how these characteristics align with Benson's (1998) construct validity process.

Achacoso (2002) Academic Entitlement Scale (AES). The *Academic Entitlement Scale (AES)* was the first measure of AE, developed by Achacoso (2002). Achacoso (2002) defined entitlement generally as “the relationship between a person and an outcome that an individual assumes should occur” (p. viii), and AE as entitlement applied specifically to educational settings. Achacoso (2002) felt that external locus of control was an important aspect of AE. When the entitled student does not receive the positive outcome they are expecting, they blame others for failing them, rather than themselves. For example, when a non-entitled student fails a test, she/he may think “I should have studied harder.” By contrast, the entitled student may think “The professor should have taught more clearly.” This is similar to the third component of the Dubovsky (1986) framework, in that entitled students feel that the professors are to blame for their failures.

In developing the AES, a pool of 50 items was written based on interviews with instructors, asking them to give examples of entitled student behaviors. An additional 25 items were added based on focus-groups with students, resulting in a 75-item pool. Although Achacoso (2002) presented a review of the research on entitlement, the link between this research and item writing was unclear. For example, it is unclear if a particular factor structure was expected (i.e., one factor versus multiple-factor model). Moreover, little information was presented regarding whether the items were written to cover the breadth of AE, or just particular dimensions or aspects of AE. Benson (1998) emphasized that “the empirical domain is a reflection of the theoretical domain” (Benson, 1998, p. 12). That is, items should map directly onto dimensions of the construct outlined in the *substantive* stage. Despite a review of the literature, the usage of this review to

inform the creation of items is unclear. A great deal of text was devoted to examining the research surrounding entitlement and deservingness, but the link between this research and the eventual AES items was unclear. These issues indicate that the *substantive* stage of the Benson (1998) strong program of construct validity was inadequately addressed.

There were also several methodological concerns regarding the *structural* stage of the validity process. After administering the 75-item pool to a sample of business students, Achacoso (2002) conducted an EFA on their responses using a Promax rotation. This led to two factors being retained. Achacoso (2002) then removed items with factor pattern coefficients less than .50, resulting in a 15-item, two-factor scale. Achacoso (2002) described these factors as “Entitlement Beliefs” (10 items) and “Entitlement Actions” (5 items). These factors were not specified a priori. Rather, the author allowed the factors to be uncovered empirically. Achacoso (2002) then used CFA to test this two-factor structure using the same sample. This procedure is inappropriate, as EFA capitalizes on chance variation due to sampling error. CFA is intended to test the models uncovered via EFA using an independent sample, to assure that the uncovered structure generalizes across samples (Raykov & Widaman, 1995). Therefore, conducting an EFA prior to the CFA using the same sample defeats the purpose of CFA. Further, the author did not test any competing factor structures.

Achacoso (2002) used the results from these analyses to inform additional scale revision. Two items were modified to reduce cross-loading on different subscales, and six additional items were added in order to better measure the two subscales. This new 21-item scale was then administered to an independent sample. CFA was conducted to test the two-factor model uncovered for the previous version of the measure. No competing

factor structures were tested. Achacoso (2002) used the CFA results to inform additional scale revision, resulting in a new 12-item, two-factor scale. Achacoso (2002) obtained the following fit values for the final two-factor model: normed fit index (NFI)=.89, the nonnormed fit index (NNFI)=.90, and the comparative fit index (CFI)= .92. Hu and Bentler (1995, 1998) recommended not using the NFI due to insensitivity of the index to model misspecification. Moreover, Hu and Bentler (1999) recommended cutoffs of .95 or higher for the NNFI and CFI; however, the use of cutoffs are only appropriate with a priori models, not models that are post hoc modified as was done here. Further, localized areas of misfit were not assessed (covariance residuals). Finally, this final structure was not tested using an independent sample. Thus, the structure could represent idiosyncrasies in the data, rather than the actual underlying dimensionality of the construct. Thus, Achacoso (2002) failed to adequately assess the structure of the scores.

Achacoso (2002) attempted to address the *external* stage of the validity process. In order to provide evidence that the construct is being represented by the instrument, Benson (1998) recommends that theoretically-based hypothesized directional relationships be stated before analyses are conducted. Achacoso (2002) made theoretically-based predictions for a number of variables, but several relationships were not hypothesized a priori. The AES (Achacoso, 2002) was related to a number of variables, including self-regulation and causal attributions. Achacoso (2002) predicted a positive relationship between both AE subscales and exaggerated deservingness, which the data supported. The author predicted a relationship with self-regulation, but failed to indicate its direction. Further, the pattern of relationships between AE and self-regulation does not align with the conceptualization of AE given by Achacoso (2002). For example,

students who scored high on the Entitlement Actions subscale were more likely to engage in various self-regulation strategies. Because entitlement is theoretically related to external locus of control and work avoidance, the entitled student should be *less* likely to self-regulate. Unfortunately, little attempt was made to explain these relationships, much less tie the results back to the AE construct in order to expand its nomological net. The issues outlined above render the quality of the AES questionable at best.

Greenberger, Lessard, Chen, & Farruggia (2008) Academic Entitlement

(AE) Scale. Greenberger and colleagues (2008) developed a 15-item Academic Entitlement (AE) Scale to assess entitlement in higher education. They adopted the definition of generalized entitlement put forth by W. K. Campbell and colleagues (2004) as “a pervasive sense that one deserves more and is entitled to more than others” (p. 31). According to Greenberger and colleagues (2008), AE is entitlement specific to educational settings. They speculated that AE is contributed to by poor work ethic and a low degree of concern for how individual behavior impacts others. Greenberger and colleagues (2008) speculated that AE could be the product of parents having high performance expectations for their children. These parents could repeatedly tell students that they are “special” and “better than others,” leading to greater expectations for their own accomplishments. AE, then, could be a coping mechanism when students fail to reach those expectations. The entitled student feels entitled to special treatment, so when that special treatment is not readily given, the student can blame their failures on not being given proper allowances by professors or administrators.

Very little information regarding scale development was provided by Greenberger and colleagues (2008), thus it is difficult to assess the attention paid to the substantive

stage of the validity process (i.e., there was little discussion of theoretical underpinnings and no discussion of expected scale structure). The total scale score possessed adequate reliability ($\alpha = .87$), but the structure of the scale has not been investigated, thus the computation of this reliability index was premature. Greenberger and colleagues (2008) hypothesized that AE would be related to a number of external variables. These hypotheses were largely confirmed –AE was positively correlated with the PES and the NPI (Raskin & Terry, 1988), and negatively correlated with work orientation and social commitment. High parental academic expectations and encouraging competitiveness were significantly, but weakly, positively correlated with AE. As noted above, these researchers hypothesized that high parental performance expectations were a root cause of entitlement beliefs, however none of the parental expectation variables correlated with entitlement more than $r = .24$. This presents a major challenge to the framework suggested by Greenberger and colleagues (2008). Academic dishonesty was also weakly associated with AE. Finally, AE was negatively correlated with achievement anxiety and extrinsic motivation. Although the AE scale correlates predictably with a number of external variables, effect sizes were small, and there is a lack of evidence supporting the other two stages of the validity process (Benson, 1998), so inferences made from this AE scale are suspect.

Chowning and N. J. Campbell (2009) Academic Entitlement (AE) Scale.

Chowning and N. J. Campbell (2009) recently presented a series of studies creating and investigating a new measure of AE, the *Academic Entitlement (AE) Scale*. Like the Achacoso (2002) scale, Chowning and N. J. Campbell (2009) reviewed the research literature on entitlement. However, they made no mention of the prior two scales

(Achacoso, 2002; Greenberger et al., 2008), thus their conceptualization of AE did not make use of this prior work. Chowning and N. J. Campbell's (2009) conceptualization of AE was rooted primarily in two concepts: student incivility and external locus of control. The researchers theorized that AE, or the "tendency to possess an expectation of academic success without taking personal responsibility for achieving that success" (p. 982) could result in collegiate incivility. This could include talking on a cell phone during class, being consistently late to class, and other generally disrespectful behaviors. Like other researchers (Achacoso, 2002; Dubovsky, 1986), Chowning and N. J. Campbell (2009) conceptualized external locus of control as an integral part of AE. The entitled student may become aggressive and uncivil towards professors if they receive grades below expectations, as they blame others (e.g., professors) for their failings. This external locus of control can, in turn, lead to poor work ethic and academic outcomes.

Given this theoretical framework, Chowning and N. J. Campbell (2009) attempted to write items to represent AE. Items, written by their lab (i.e., faculty and graduate students), attempted to capture the essence of the entitled student. Thirty-one items were selected from a larger pool in order to represent two components – responsibility and expectations. Although Chowning and N. J. Campbell (2009) attempted to address the *substantive* stage of the validity process by reviewing the literature, we feel as if the breadth of the AE construct was inadequately represented and the theoretical dimensions not linked with the empirical domain (the items). In addition, some items appeared to represent constructs related to, but distinct from AE. For example, "I am not motivated to put a lot of effort into group work, because another group member will end up doing it" appears to represent the construct of Work Avoidance (Meece, Blumenfeld, & Hoyle,

1988). “Most professors do not really know what they are talking about” appears to represent perceived quality of instruction. Moreover, several items refer to contexts (e.g., group work) that some students may not have experienced, limiting their utility.

Similar to the Achacoso (2002) scale, there were also some fundamental issues with the *AE* scale regarding the *structural* stage. The initial pool of 31 items was analyzed using a principal components analysis (PCA) with quartimax rotation. An EFA would have been more appropriate. The researchers utilized the PCA results to produce a 15-item scale with items associated with two components: an Externalized Responsibility factor (e.g., “For group assignments, it is acceptable to take a back seat and let others do most of the work if I am busy.”) and an Entitled Expectations factor (e.g., “My professors are obligated to help me prepare for exams.”). The Externalized Responsibility factor focused on placing the responsibility for education on others, rather than with the entitled student himself. The Entitled Expectations factor focused on the classroom and grading policies, with the entitled students expecting special allowances to be made for them. These two components are consistent with the two general themes used to guide item writing. However, the theoretical distinction between the two factors seems artificial. In a sense, externalized responsibility *also* involves entitled expectations – the expectation that others will take responsibility for the entitled student’s education. That is, Entitled Expectations seems to subsume Externalized Responsibility. Also, the Entitled Expectations factor consisted of only five items and displayed substandard reliability (ranging from $\alpha = .62$ to $.69$). Chowning and N. J. Campbell (2009) then conducted a separate PCA and CFA on a second sample. The PCA analyses resulted in the same factor structure as the first sample. The CFA specifying the two-factor model yielded fit

indices of GFI = .938, CFI = .897, and RMSEA = .064. This was significant improvement over the fit of a one-factor model. Given the lack of examination of localized model-data fit, the use of insensitive fit indices (e.g., GFI), and the less than adequate value of the CFI (.897), the adequacy of model-data fit is in question. These structural issues should be addressed before the AE scale is utilized in practice.

Despite the issues relevant to the structural stage of the validity process, the researchers undertook the *external* stage of the validity process. As predicted, Externalized Responsibility was negatively related to conscientiousness and agreeableness, and positively related to state-trait grandiosity. Externalized Responsibility was also found to be correlated with, but distinct from, the entitlement subscale of the NPI (Raskin & Terry, 1988). This suggests that AE is distinct from generalized entitlement. However, the Entitled Expectations subscale was only weakly or not related to the majority of the external variables. This may be due to the low reliability attenuating the relationships between the variables. Moreover, hypotheses for the Entitled Expectations subscale were never stated. Both subscales were related to the likelihood of rating vignettes of inappropriate student behavior as appropriate, relating the scale back to its basis in *collegiate incivility*. The subscales remained strong predictors after controlling for PES scores, suggesting that a context-specific AE scale is more predictive of academic behavior than a general entitlement measure.

Although Chowning and N. J. Campbell (2009) provided strong validity evidence for the Externalized Responsibility subscale, the low reliability of the Entitled Expectations subscale and lack of clearly stated hypotheses prevented external validity evidence from being properly assessed. The external stage should be re-examined after

the structure and hence the scoring of the items is better understood. Overall, the scale is promising, but more work is needed before it is used in practice.

Kopp, Zinn, Finney, S. J., and Jurich (2011) Academic Entitlement

Questionnaire (AEQ). Utilizing prior research, Kopp and colleagues (2011) undertook the development of the AEQ. The researchers attempted to follow the Benson (1998) program for establishing strong construct validity evidence. Like prior researchers examining AE (Achacoso, 2002; Chowning & Campbell, N. J., 2009), Kopp and colleagues (2011) strongly linked their conceptualization of AE to external locus of control and work avoidance. They wrote items to represent five facets of AE:

- 1) *KR*: “[K]nowledge is a right that should be delivered with a minimum of exertion and discomfort on the part of the ‘consumer’” (Dubovsky, 1986, p. 1672; see also Campbell, W. K., et al., 2004; Chowning & Campbell, N. J., 2009; Finney, T. G., & Finney, R. Z., 2010).
- 2) *OP*: “[O]thers will provide all of the education that will be necessary” (Dubovsky, 1986, p. 1672; see also Chowning & Campbell, N. J., 2009).
- 3) *PL*: “[P]roblems in learning are due to the inadequacies of the teacher, the course, or the system, rather than to the student’s own shortcomings” (Dubovsky, 1986, p. 1673; see also Chowning & Campbell, N. J., 2009).
- 4) *DT*: Certain outcomes are deserved because the student pays tuition (Finney, T. G., & Finney, R. Z., 2010; Hersh & Merrow, 2005; Singleton-Jackson, et al., 2010).
- 5) *SC*: Students should have control over class policies (Achacoso, 2002).

Kopp and colleagues (2011) wanted to address some of the problems in the conceptualizations presented by previous researchers. The researchers deliberately ignored entitled actions, as presented by Achacoso (2002), as they claimed that it would be confounded with a number of other variables, such as aggressiveness or assertiveness. Moreover, Kopp and colleagues (2011) argued that uncivil actions were an outcome of entitlement beliefs, following Chowning and N. J. Campbell's (2009) conceptualization, rather than an aspect of AE. Kopp and colleagues (2011) attempted to further break down the two facets (Externalized Responsibility and Entitlement Beliefs) presented by Chowning and N. J. Campbell (2009). The first, fourth, and fifth facets correspond to types of entitled beliefs, and the second and third facets correspond to types of externalized responsibility. Kopp and colleagues (2011) claimed that this conceptualization better captured the breadth of the AE structure.

After establishing the theoretical base for the AEQ, Kopp and colleagues (2011) wrote 42 items to cover the breadth of the five hypothesized facets of AE. After evaluating the item pool for face validity and utility, the researchers chose 26 items to evaluate empirically. The scale was administered to a large sample of college freshmen. The sample was then randomly split, which allowed the structure to be explored using one sample and tested using the other. Using CFA, Kopp and colleagues (2011) tested a one-factor, five-factor, and bifactor model using the first sample. Given large covariance residuals present in both the one-factor and five-factor models, the results from a bifactor model were examined. In a bifactor model, each item is allowed to relate to a specific facet factor (e.g., the factors from the five-factor model) and to a general factor (Chen, West, & Sousa, 2006). Given the larger standardized factor pattern coefficients associated

with the general vs. the specific factors, Kopp and colleagues (2011) determined the scale was essentially unidimensional, with “bloated specifics” (e.g., redundant wording) causing the covariance residuals in the unidimensional model (Reise, Morizot, & Hays, 2007). Utilizing the results from these analyses, Kopp and colleagues (2011) reduced the scale to eight items. A unidimensional model fit this eight-item scale well, with no large covariance residuals. Additionally, the model fit the second sample equally well. The reliability for both samples was also adequate, as indexed by coefficient omega (McDonald, 1999), at .81 for the first sample, and .84 for the second sample.

Having established strong *structural* validity evidence, Kopp and colleagues (2011) attempted to gather external validity evidence. Given that entitlement was hypothesized to be related to external locus of control (Achacoso, 2002; Campbell, W. K., et al., 2004; Chowning & Campbell, N. J., 2009; Greenberger et al., 2008), the researchers predicted that external locus of control would be positively related to, but distinct from, AE. Additionally, Kopp and colleagues (2011) hypothesized that AE was positively related to, but distinct from, general entitlement. Finally, prior conceptualizations of entitlement emphasized work avoidance, and a preference for extrinsic over intrinsic rewards for effort (Achacoso, 2002; Campbell, W. K., et al., 2004; Chowning & Campbell, N. J., 2009; Greenberger et al., 2008). Given this evidence, the researchers predicted that AEQ scores would be positively related to the work-avoidance subscale of the Achievement Goal Questionnaire (Finney, S. J., Pieper, & Barron, 2004; Pieper, 2003), and negatively related to the mastery-approach subscale. Further, they predicted a negative relationship between AE and effort put forth over the course of a

low-stakes testing session. These predictions were confirmed empirically, adding to the validity evidence of the AEQ.

Which measure of AE is best? Of the four current measures of AE (Achacoso, 2002; Chowning & Campbell, N. J., 2009; Greenberger et al., 2008; Kopp et al., 2011), the AEQ (Kopp et al., 2011) possesses the most complete validity evidence for its scores. The Achacoso (2002) AE scale possessed issues throughout the validity process. The scale developed by Greenberger and colleagues (2008) is missing key validity evidence, particularly regarding substantive and structural validity. Finally, the Chowning and N. J. Campbell (2009) scale seems to lack breadth, and the structure of the scale should be reassessed to align better with the research literature. Kopp and colleagues (2011) effectively established the theoretical foundation for the scale, mapped the empirical domain to the research literature, established the structure of the scale, and began the process of gathering external validity evidence. For these reasons, the AEQ was chosen for further evaluation.

CHAPTER 3

Method

Participants and Procedure

Data for the current study were collected at a mid-sized, southeastern public university. Compliance and noncompliance were operationalized by whether or not someone attended a mandatory university-wide testing-session. In order for the university to assess educational effectiveness (Spellings, 2006), all students are required to complete a set of assessments twice in their academic careers – once before they begin classes as first-year students, and once after they have accumulated between 45 and 70 credit hours. Classes are cancelled for both of these “Assessment Days.” These two Assessment Days are approximately three hours long and consist of a battery of affective, developmental, and cognitive measures. For the most part, students are administered the same measures during both the first and second Assessment Days, thus facilitating conclusions regarding student growth over time (i.e., value-added). There are no consequences for performance for the individual student (i.e., the test is low-stakes for the student). However, students are required to complete these assessments in order to register for classes for the next semester.

Compliant sample. The data used in this study to examine the relationship between AE and compliance were collected from sophomores and juniors assigned to complete their second Assessment Day in the spring of 2008. A total of 3622 students complied with university policy to attend the testing session. Of that total, 381 completed the AEQ (the AEQ was administered in a subset of the testing rooms). One multivariate outlier was identified using Mahalanobis distance. This individual seemed to respond

randomly, justifying removal. The final sample of 380 compliant students was comprised of 66.6% women, 81.8% Caucasian students, 3.4% Asian students, 3.2% Hispanic students, 2.6% Black students, 1.1% Pacific Islander students, 0.5% American Indian Students, and 7.4% of students who did not specify their ethnic background, and had an average age of 20.1.

Noncompliant sample. As mentioned above, students were required to attend these university-wide assessment sessions and classes were canceled to facilitate attendance. Fliers were posted around campus, students are notified via email, and the date is clearly marked on academic calendars. However, many students did not attend the mandatory testing. If a student is absent from the scheduled Assessment Day, the student must attend a “make-up session” in order to register for next semester classes. Assessment specialists who facilitate Assessment Day note that very few noncompliant students (less than 1%) give legitimate excuses for missing their assigned assessment session. Thus, non-attendance can be viewed as a blatant instance of noncompliance with university policy, which is an instance of student incivility.

AEQ responses were collected from all 366 noncompliant students participating in the university makeup assessment sessions. One multivariate outlier was identified using Mahalanobis distance. This individual seemed to respond randomly, justifying removal. The final sample of 365 noncompliant students was comprised of 49.5% women, 79.5% Caucasian students, 5.7% Asian students, 3.6% Hispanic students, 4.9% Black students, and 6.3% of students who did not specify their ethnic background, and had an average age of 20.6. It should be noted that the concentration of women was lower for the noncompliant sample than the compliant sample.

External Measures Sample. A subset of the students in the compliant sample ($N = 350$ vs. the total $N = 380$) also completed the external measures used in our study (see below for description of each measure). The demographic characteristics for this subset were nearly identical to the full compliant sample.

Measures

Academic Entitlement Questionnaire (AEQ; Kopp et al., 2011). The AEQ is an eight-item self-report measure of AE (see Appendix). Previous research supported a unidimensional structure, with coefficient omega estimates of .81 and .84 for two student samples (Kopp et al., 2011). Participants were asked to respond to the items using a Likert response scale of 1 (“Strongly Disagree”) to 7 (“Strongly Agree”).

Metacognitive Awareness Inventory (MAI; Schraw & Dennison, 1994). The MAI is a 52-item measure designed to assess metacognitive awareness, or the ability to monitor and assess one’s learning. Participants are asked to respond to a series of statements using a scale from 1 (“Always False”) to 5 (“Always True”). A series of factor analyses suggested a two-factor solution fit the data well (Schraw & Dennison, 1994). As such, the MAI consists of two subscales: Knowledge of Cognition and Regulation of Cognition. Knowledge of cognition involves being aware of one’s own skill set, as well as good metacognitive strategies to promote learning. Regulation of cognition involves implementing and monitoring strategies, or actually executing them. Schraw and Dennison (1994) found coefficient alpha to equal .88 for both of the subscales individually, suggesting adequate reliability. Only the 35-item Regulation of Cognition subscale was used in this study. That is, although Knowledge of Cognition is an

important component of metacognition, interest lies in assessing whether entitled students actually *implement* study strategies.

Big Five Inventory (John & Srivastava, 1999). The Big Five inventory is a 44-item measure designed to assess overall personality. Participants were asked to respond to a series of statements using a scale from 1 (“Disagree Strongly”) to 5 (“Agree Strongly”). Previous research has supported a five-factor structure and adequate reliability (John & Srivastava, 1999). Although the Big Five Inventory consists of five subscales (Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Neuroticism, and Openness to Experience), for the current study, only Agreeableness and Conscientiousness subscales were examined.

Student Help-Seeking (Karabenick, 2003). Karabenick (2003) constructed a 13-item help-seeking scale to assess students’ methods and motivations for help-seeking. Jones (2009) adapted the measure to assess help-seeking over a course of a semester, rather than in a specific classroom. Jones (2009) used CFA to support five components of help seeking: instrumental, executive, threat, avoidance, and formal vs. informal. Moreover, two versions of the measure were created: one that refers to past behavior and another that refers to future planned behavior. Examinees were asked to complete both versions of Jones’ measure by responding to a series of statements using a scale from 1 (“Not at all true of me”) to 7 (“Completely true of me”). For the current study, the past-oriented and future-oriented Instrumental and Executive help-seeking subscales were examined.

Data Analysis

Structural Means Modeling. The estimation of the latent mean difference in AE across the two student groups (compliant and noncompliant) consisted of five steps. First, the fit of the empirically-supported one-factor model (Kopp et al., 2011) was assessed using both the compliant and noncompliant samples. Second, although examining model-data fit for each sample independently establishes configural invariance, estimating a combined-sample configural model has several advantages. A combined-sample model allows the researcher to examine the combined misfit associated with both samples. That is, it provides the fit of a baseline model that is then compared to the fit of the metric invariance model. The metric invariant model was estimated by constraining the unstandardized pattern coefficients to be equal across groups. If there was a significant and practical decline in fit between the configural and metric models, this would signal a lack metric invariance, indicating the items do not have equivalent saliency to the latent AE factor across samples. The scalar invariant model was estimated by constraining the intercepts to be equal across groups. If there was a significant decline in fit between the metric and scalar models, this would signal a lack of scalar invariance, indicating that differences in observed AE scores across samples may not be indicative of latent differences in AE. If configural, metric, and scalar invariance are supported, the latent mean difference between the two groups can then be computed.

CHAPTER 4

Results

Data analyses were conducted in five stages. First, the data were screened for univariate and multivariate normality. In addition, descriptive statistics and bivariate correlations were examined prior to conducting any structural equation modeling. Second, measurement invariance (configural, metric, and scalar) was examined for the compliant and noncompliant samples. Third, the latent mean difference between the compliant and noncompliant samples was estimated using structured means modeling. Fourth, the aforementioned external variables were correlated with AE to test theoretically-based hypotheses. Finally, additional ancillary analyses were conducted to explore the relationship between AE and ability.

Data Screening

Prior to conducting the structural equation modeling analyses, the data were screened for univariate and multivariate nonnormality. Depending on the severity, nonnormality can significantly bias standard errors and fit indices (Finney, S. J., & DiStefano, 2006). If this is the case, a correction should be applied. Absolute values greater than 2 for skewness and greater than 7 for kurtosis were considered indicative of non-normality (Finney, S. J., & DiStefano, 2006; West, Finch, & Curran, 1995). The data appeared to be univariate normal (see Table 1). To assess multivariate normality, the macro provided by DeCarlo (1997) was used to compute Mardia's normalized kurtosis coefficient. There is no universal cutoff value for this coefficient (Finney, S. J., & DiStefano, 2006), but it has been suggested that utilizing maximum likelihood (ML) estimation with data having a standardized Mardia's value greater than three could result

in biased significance tests (Bentler & Wu, 2002; Ullman, 2006). Mardia's coefficients for both samples suggested the data deviated from multivariate normality (Compliant sample = 15.11, Noncompliant sample = 15.27). To account for this nonnormality, models were estimated using unadjusted ML estimation, as well as using the Satorra-Bentler (S-B) adjustments to χ^2 values, fit indices, and standard errors (Satorra & Bentler, 1994). However, the unadjusted ML results did not differ substantially from the S-B adjusted values and all substantive conclusions remained the same across estimators. Thus, unadjusted ML results are reported, as they are simpler and more conducive to comparing nested models. Covariance matrices were derived for each sample using PRELIS 2.72, and LISREL 8.72 was used to estimate the various models (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 2005).

Measurement Invariance

Assessing model-data fit and specifying models. Multiple indicators of fit were used to evaluate the overall and relative fit of each model. To compare the overall fit of these models, χ^2 , comparative fit index (CFI), and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) values were used. A significant χ^2 indicates absolute model-data misfit, but this test can be sensitive to sample size. More importantly, the χ^2 provides a dichotomous decision regarding fit, whereas the current study is focused more on the approximate fit of models. To examine approximate fit, CFI and RMSEA values were also reported, which were both recommended by Hu and Bentler (1998). As rough guidelines, the values of the fit indices were compared to the cutoffs suggested by Hu and Bentler (1999): CFI > .95 and RMSEA < .06.

Local misfit was also assessed by examining standardized covariance residuals. The standardized covariance residual values indicate how well the relationship between items is being reproduced by the model. These values are the standardized difference between the actual and model-implied covariance between the items. Thus, a positive standardized covariance residual value indicates that the model is underestimating the relationship between an item pair, and a negative value indicates that the model is overestimating the relationship. For the scalar model, local misfit was also assessed by examining standardized mean residuals. This was necessary, as this model constrains the item intercepts to be equal across groups. Thus, the standardized mean residuals provide a standardized measure of the discrepancy between the actual and model-implied item means. Both standardized covariance and mean residuals are on a z-score metric. Unfortunately, standardized residuals are rarely reported, so there are no clear cutoffs that indicate misfit. For this study, values above four were flagged as being indicative of local misfit.

Relative fit was assessed for nested invariance models using both $\Delta\chi^2$ values and ΔCFI values. Relative fit was not assessed for the configural model, as no plausible alternative models to the one-factor model exist. The $\Delta\chi^2$ significance test is an exact test of the additional misfit associated with constraining a model. Approximate relative fit can be assessed by examining changes in fit indices between two nested models (Quintana & Maxwell, 1999; Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998). Cheung and Rensvold (2002) suggested $\Delta\text{CFI} > .01$ indicates a significant decline in fit for the simpler, constrained model relative to the more complex, unconstrained model. As the $\Delta\chi^2$ values and ΔCFI values can result in different substantive conclusions (French & Finch, 2006), changes in

standardized covariance and mean residuals were also examined. If the residuals associated with the constrained model were much larger than those associated with the unconstrained model, this was an indicator that the more complex model was needed to model the data.

In order to estimate the various models, the metric of the factor must be established. This was done by constraining the unstandardized pattern coefficient between the latent variable and Item 1 to one. This constrains the factor variance to be on the same metric as Item 1. The metric invariance of Item 1 was ensured via the method proposed by Rensvold and Cheung (2001); the unstandardized pattern coefficient for Item 1 was freely estimated and then constrained to be equal across the two groups, using each of the other items as referent indicators. Model fit did not decrease statistically or practically when the constrained models were compared to the freely estimated models, indicating metric invariance for Item 1 across groups.

The configural, metric, and scalar invariant models were tested for overall and relative fit. The fit of the configural model (constraining each group's data to be explained by a one-factor model) was compared to the fit of the more-constrained metric model (constraining unstandardized pattern coefficients from the one-factor model to be equal across groups). The metric model was, in turn, compared to the additionally-constrained scalar model (constraining the item intercepts in addition to the pattern coefficients to be equal across groups).

Configural invariance. A one-factor model was estimated separately for the two student samples (see Table 2). The model fit the compliant sample data reasonably well ($\chi^2 = 31.54$, $df = 20$, $p = .04$, CFI = 0.99, RMSEA = 0.04), with no standardized

covariance residuals above four. Similarly, the one-factor model fit the noncompliant sample data adequately. The χ^2 and RMSEA values suggested some misfit ($\chi^2 = 61.21$, $df = 20$, $p < .01$, CFI = 0.98, RMSEA = 0.08); however, when examining local fit, there were no standardized covariance residuals above four. Consequently, the fit of the one-factor model appeared to be adequate for both samples. That is, the interrelationships between the scores on the eight items of the AEQ were adequately modeled by a one-factor model for both samples.

Next, fit indices from a combined-sample configural model were estimated in order to serve as a baseline for the metric invariant model (see Table 3). As expected from examining the factor models separately, the combined-sample configural model fit the data well ($\chi^2 = 92.75$, $df = 40$, $p < .01$, CFI = 0.98, RMSEA = 0.06). Parameter estimates from this model are provided in Figure 1. Across both samples, the items functioned fairly well. R^2 values ranged from .25 to .53 for the compliant sample, and from .22 to .64 for the noncompliant sample, indicating between a quarter and a half the variance in each of the items was accounted for by the latent AE factor. Moreover, coefficient omega reliability estimates were .83 and .84 for the compliant and noncompliant samples, respectively. Because the configural model fit the data well, metric invariance, or the equivalence of unstandardized factor pattern coefficients, was examined.

Metric invariance. The metric-invariant model fit the data well overall ($\chi^2 = 113.56$, $df = 47$, $p < .01$, CFI = 0.98, RMSEA = 0.06). Although the $\Delta\chi^2$ value indicated a violation of metric invariance, the ΔCFI value was negligible ($\Delta\chi^2 = 20.81$, $\Delta df = 7$, $p <$

.01, $\Delta\text{CFI} = .00$).¹ Most importantly, the metric invariant model did not have any standardized covariance residuals above five. Thus, it was inferred that the metric-invariant model fit the data adequately. This indicates that the items had equivalent pattern coefficients across the two student groups, and thus equal saliency to the AE factor across groups. As the metric invariance assumption was upheld, scalar invariance, or the equivalence of item intercepts, was assessed.

Scalar invariance. The scalar-invariant model fit the data well overall ($\chi^2 = 123.39$, $df = 54$, $p < .01$, $\text{CFI} = 0.98$, $\text{RMSEA} = 0.06$). The model did not fit significantly worse than the metric invariant model ($\Delta\chi^2 = 9.83$, $\Delta df = 7$, $p = .20$, $\Delta\text{CFI} = .00$). Moreover, the standardized mean residuals were all less than three. Thus, the item intercepts were equivalent across the two student groups. Given both item intercepts and item slopes were equivalent across groups, a significant difference in latent means would indicate an actual mean difference in AE level between the two groups. This latent mean difference can be estimated using structured means modeling.

¹ To thoroughly assess metric invariance, invariance of each item was assessed individually by comparing the configural model to models where each item was constrained to have equivalent factor pattern coefficients across samples. Items 2 ($\Delta\chi^2 = 4.63$, $df = 1$, $p = .03$) and 7 ($\Delta\chi^2 = 5.30$, $df = 1$, $p = .02$) were found to have significant differences in factor pattern coefficients. Item 2 did not have large differences in the unstandardized factor loadings between the two samples (1.07, .98). Also, the model constraining Item 2 to be metric invariant across samples did not have a large increase in any standardized covariance residuals compared to the configural model. The largest standardized residual (between Items 1 and 2) increased from 3.53 to 3.55. Item 7 had larger differences in the unstandardized factor loadings between the constrained and unconstrained models (.83, 1.22). Additionally, the model constraining Item 7 to be metric invariant across samples had a larger increase of the standardized covariance residual between Items 1 and 2 (3.53 to 4.30), but no other sizable increases in standardized covariance residuals occurred. A re-estimation of the scalar model, allowing Item 7 to have freely varying factor loadings and intercepts across groups, resulted in the same substantive conclusions and similar latent mean difference ($\kappa = .28$) as the fully invariant model. Therefore, I concluded that metric invariance supported for the purposes of this study.

Structural Means Modeling

Given the equivalence of form and factor-item relationships across groups (both slope and intercept), the latent mean difference on AE across the two student groups could be examined. In order to estimate the latent mean difference, the latent mean of the compliant group was fixed to zero. The latent mean difference was then estimated by freely estimating the latent mean for the noncompliant sample. The latent mean difference between the groups was statistically significant and positive ($\kappa = .29, p < .01$) indicating the noncompliant students were significantly higher on AE than compliant students (see Table 4). Hancock (2001) described a latent effect size estimate, analogous to Cohen's d , which places the latent mean difference on a standardized metric.² This latent effect size (.36) suggested a small to moderate effect. Specifically, the noncompliant sample was .36 standard deviations higher in latent AE than the compliant sample. As expected, this effect size was greater than the effect size computed from the observed composite AEQ scores ($d = .33$). This discrepancy in effect sizes is due to the latent AE variable not including random measurement error, unlike the observed composite AEQ scores. This discrepancy is small, however, because AE is measured reliably in both samples ($\omega = .83$ and $.84$); thus, the factor model is not correcting for large amounts of measurement error. This is crucially important for individuals that want to utilize composite AEQ scores in practice or research; latent variable techniques do not need to be employed to model AE with sufficient accuracy.

In sum, the AEQ appears to have similar measurement properties across compliant and noncompliant students. Fortunately, the noncompliance demonstrated by

² This effect size is computed by dividing the latent mean difference by the pooled latent variances.

not attending the initial assessment session did not seem to extend to putting forth less effort in answering the AEQ items. If this was the case, the noncompliant sample would likely have biased responses, and measurement invariance would not have been established across the two samples. As predicted, noncompliant students were significantly higher on AE than compliant students, both statistically and practically, providing important validity evidence via a relationship between AEQ scores and actual student behavior.

External Validity Evidence

In order to gather additional validity evidence for scores derived from the AEQ, scores from the AEQ were correlated with a number of theoretically-relevant external variables using the compliant sample. The relationships between AEQ scores and external measures were modeled at the latent level, by specifying single-indicator latent variables for the external measures. These single-indicator latent variables account for the unreliability in observed scores, and thus produce a “purer” estimate of the relationship between AE and these external variables (Brown, 2006). The single-indicator latent variables were estimated by first summing the items for each external variable to create composite scores. The unstandardized measurement error variance associated with each of the composites was calculated by $(1 - r_{xx}) * (Var_x)$, where r_{xx} is equal to the reliability of the external variable scores (Cronbach’s coefficient alpha, in this case) and Var_x is the total variance of the external variable. The error variance parameters for the composite indicators were fixed to these values, and the path from the latent factor to the composite indicator was fixed to one. The AE latent factor was estimated by fitting the

unidimensional model to the eight items. The relationships between the single-indicator latent variables and the AE latent variable were then estimated.

The pattern of relationships between AE and the external variables aligned with theoretical predictions (see Table 5). As expected, AE was negatively related to metacognitive regulation (latent $r = -.29$), indicating the academically entitled students are less able to regulate their own learning processes. Similarly, as hypothesized, AE was positively associated with both past (latent $r = .35$) and future (latent $r = .57$) executive help-seeking patterns, and negatively associated with both past (latent $r = -.15$) and future (latent $r = -.29$) instrumental help-seeking. This indicates a pattern of help-seeking whereby the academically entitled student seeks help merely to finish an assignment more quickly and easily, rather than seeking help to master the material. This is consistent with the “students as customers” paradigm, where academically entitled students do not believe they should have to work in order to gain knowledge. Also as predicted, AE was negatively related to agreeableness (latent $r = -.22$) and conscientiousness (latent $r = -.27$). W. K. Campbell and colleagues (2004) found that general entitlement was negatively related to agreeableness, but not related to conscientiousness. The negative relationship between AE and conscientiousness was expected given AE is more strongly linked to work avoidance than general entitlement (Kopp et al., 2011). We expected academically entitled students would be more unreliable, or less conscientious, as they tend to shirk work. Overall, the pattern of relationships provided additional validity evidence for scores from the eight-item AEQ.

Ancillary Analyses

In addition to the analyses presented above, I conducted a number of ancillary analyses. These analyses were *not* conducted to collect validity evidence for the AEQ. Rather, these analyses were conducted simply to expose additional correlates of AE. First, the relationship between the AEQ factor and gender was examined. Mean differences on AE between genders were assessed both overall and within each student sample (compliant and noncompliant; Table 6). A total of 372 out of the original 380 students in the compliant sample provided their gender, as well as 358 out of the original 365 students in the noncompliant sample. Within-sample, men were not significantly higher than women on composite or latent AE. However, men were significantly higher than women on AE when aggregating across samples. This information indicates that there is not a relationship between gender and AE once compliance behavior is taken into account.

The relationship between the AEQ factor and GPA, SAT Math, and SAT Verbal were examined at both the observed and latent level (Table 7). A subset of 292 students from the compliant group had complete data on these variables. AE was significantly negatively related to GPA for the composite AEQ ($r = -.17, p = .004$) and latent AE factor ($r = -.18, p = .002$) level, as well as SAT Verbal scores ($r = -.21, p < .001$; $r = -.22, p < .001$). AE was not significantly related to SAT Math scores ($r = -.11, p = .055$; $r = -.11, p = .055$). These results suggest that entitled students may be of significantly lower ability than non-entitled students. It should be noted, however, that these effect sizes were modest (r^2 values between .01 and .05), and that these results should be replicated before drawing strong conclusions.

CHAPTER 5

Discussion

This study expanded the research on AE and the AEQ in a number of important ways. First, measurement invariance was established across two groups that differed in uncivil behavior. This suggests the AEQ has utility for measuring AE for both behaviorally compliant and noncompliant students. Second, AE was significantly related to noncompliance with university policies. This provides a clear, behavioral link between student incivility and AE. The AEQ is the only measure of AE thus far to correlate with actual uncivil student *behaviors*, which provides further validity evidence that AEQ scores represent AE as it has been theoretically defined (e.g., Chowning & Campbell, N. J., 2009). Moreover, this study further extended the nomological net of AE; AEQ scores were found to correlate with a number of theoretically-relevant variables in a predicted manner. Finally, additional exploratory analyses revealed interesting relationships between AEQ scores and ability. This relationship should be explored with additional samples. A discussion of each of these findings and their implications for researchers and educators is presented below.

Measurement Invariance

Configural, metric, and scalar invariance were established across compliant and noncompliant student samples. Although measurement invariance was supported, dispelling the general concern that noncompliant students would respond inaccurately, it is still unknown whether the subset of individuals incredibly high in AE were responding accurately to the assessment. That is, individuals *inordinately* high in AE, in *both* samples, may not be putting forth the effort to accurately respond to the instrument (e.g.,

they may respond randomly). This would cause estimates of AE levels to be biased downward, as the most academically-entitled students were not providing responses that would yield a high score on the AEQ. Unfortunately, these individuals are unidentifiable by most techniques.

Future research should focus on establishing measurement invariance across additional groups. All of the research to-date using the AEQ has only been conducted at one university. Further, the student body where this research was conducted was predominantly female, Caucasian, and affluent. Finally, AEQ data has only been collected during “Assessment Days,” which are not common at other universities. Thus, measurement invariance and mean differences in AE should be examined at other universities. It is possible that research conducted with other, more demographically diverse student bodies would show disparate findings to this study. For example, different academic cultures may cause students to conceptualize AE differently, leading to a violation of measurement invariance between those students and students used in this study. Further, it is unknown whether the AEQ will function equivalently for different types of college students (e.g., graduate students, community college students). This should be evaluated empirically before comparisons are made between these groups.

The measurement invariance findings from this study, combined with findings by Kopp and colleagues (2011), suggest that AEQ scores could potentially be compared across cohorts. That is, this study utilized upperclassmen and supported the one-factor model uncovered by Kopp and colleagues (2011), who utilized a freshman sample. However, configural invariance could hold between freshmen and upperclassmen, but metric and scalar invariance could still be violated. Additional cohort invariance studies

should be conducted to test this empirically. Longitudinal invariance studies should also be conducted before AEQ scores are examined across time. If longitudinal variance is established across a student's college career, future research can estimate the growth pattern of AE across time. Further, researchers may then be able to identify predictors of AE growth over time, which could be a crucial step in constructing interventions to reduce AE.

Latent Mean Difference

As expected, students in the noncompliant group were significantly higher in AE than students in the compliant group. Thus, this study provided the first empirical link between AE and uncivil student behaviors. It should be noted, however, that the effect (1/3 of a standard deviation) was relatively modest. This effect corresponds to about 3% of the variance being shared between compliance status and AE. Thus, there are likely a number of other variables that explain noncompliance with university policy. For example, Brown and Finney (in press) found that reactance was also related to compliance behavior, but it is unknown whether reactance is related to AE. Future research should compare the utility of the AEQ for predicting university noncompliance versus other developmental or cognitive measures.

It is also important to acknowledge that the mean entitlement scores for both compliant and noncompliant students were relatively low (Table 4). That is, both means were below the midpoint for the scale. This suggests that the majority of the students in both the compliant and noncompliant samples are not extraordinarily entitled, as they largely disagree with the items on the scale. Further research should determine if there is

a level of AE that is especially problematic, and possibly focus interventions on those students.

A potential limitation to this study is our operationalization of noncompliance. Our “noncompliant” sample consisted of students who did not attend a scheduled assessment session, and instead had to attend a makeup session. There are a number of reasons that an individual may miss a scheduled assessment session besides noncompliance (e.g., forgetfulness). Thus, the observed relationship between AE and compliance behavior may be biased by these other variables. The labels of “noncompliant” and “compliant” applied to the samples are specific to this study, and I do not intend to suggest that they represent a personality trait of “compliance”. Instead, this is meant to represent one type of uncivil student behavior. Other researchers may choose to operationalize noncompliance differently, and I encourage future research in this area. For example, future research could examine the relationship between AE and referrals to judicial affairs for uncivil conduct. Despite this limitation, this study still provided a crucial link between AE and undesirable student behavior.

External Variables

The relationships found between AE and other external variables further extended the nomological net of AE and bolstered the validity evidence for scores derived from the AEQ. As predicted, academically entitled students were less able to metacognitively regulate. This aligns with the view that students high in AE rely on external guidance for learning, and thus do not fully develop effective independent learning strategies. It follows that the entitled student is more likely to seek help to simply get the answer or finish the assignment quicker, and is less likely to seek help to master course materials.

Thus, the strong latent correlation between AEQ scores and future executive help-seeking (.57) is to be expected. Entitled students expect knowledge to be delivered to them with a minimum of exertion or effort on their part. The professors exist to serve them, as they are the customers of the university. As such, if they want professors to simply give them the answers to assignments (executive help-seeking), why should they not expect it? As is easily seen, the line of logic followed by the highly entitled student is likely to result in conflicts with professors and is unlikely to result in any actual learning. It is also logical, then, that academically entitled students were less agreeable. The academically entitled student is less able to get along with others, but the direction of causation for this relationship is uncertain. Being less agreeable may make one expect more from others, or a third variable could mediate the relationship. It is unlikely that AE causes lower agreeableness, though, as the Big Five personality traits have been found to be stable, core aspects of personality (John & Srivastava, 1999). The academically entitled student is low on conscientiousness, and is therefore less dependable and less likely to be able to keep to timelines. This may be related to the relationship between AE and external locus of control. Entitled students do not feel as if they control their own destinies, so it is unlikely that they will strive to meet others expectations.

Ancillary Analyses

The exploratory analyses that were conducted highlight interesting relationships that should be the focus of future study. In a combined sample of compliant and noncompliant students, men were significantly higher in AE than women. However, this difference disappeared after accounting for compliance behavior, thus the relationship between gender and AE appears to be spurious.

Interestingly, AE was significantly related to GPA and SAT Verbal scores. This may suggest that entitled students are also less able students. The direction of causality is not clear in this case. Does being entitled result in students not working as hard, thereby leading to reduced improvements in verbal aptitude and lower GPAs? Or does being of low ability result in students adopting an external locus of control, thereby leading to higher entitlement? Or is there a third variable causing a spurious relationship? In addition, the nonsignificant relationship with SAT Math scores further conflates the picture. Future research should examine these findings in greater depth.

Implications and Conclusions

Taken together, this study provides strong additional evidence that AEQ scores represent AE for college students. Given the pattern of relationships found in this study and the research conducted by Kopp and colleagues (2011), AE could cause major problems for university administrators and professors. That is, AE has been associated with a host of maladaptive traits. Entitled students are less able to regulate their own learning, and are more likely to try to complete assignments in the easiest way possible, rather than pursuing mastery. Further, entitled students are less conscientious, suggesting they may have problems completing assignments fully and on-time. If a professor chooses to confront entitled students on their undependability, entitled students are less agreeable, and are more likely to be confrontational towards professors. Most importantly, AE was empirically linked to noncompliance with university policies. As a result, university administrators and professors may spend an inordinate amount of time and resources coping with students high in AE. For example, the makeup assessment

sessions administered for noncompliant students require additional funds and staff time, which can drain important university resources.

If a causal relationship between AE and these maladaptive outcomes exists, university administrators should endeavor to reduce academic entitlement. Twenge and W. K. Campbell (2009) suggested that inducing gratitude in students may be an effective way to reduce entitlement. Volunteer programs may engender gratitude in students, by exposing the students to those less fortunate, which, in turn, may lower AE. However, university administrators should not simply implement programs and hope that they lower AE for their students. Rather, empirical research should be conducted to determine which types of programs effectively reduce AE. Assessment of programs cannot be accomplished without a measure of AE that produces scores that are reliable and have a wealth of validity evidence. Based on the current study and the study conducted by Kopp and colleagues (2011), the AEQ is a prime candidate for assessing these programs. The community service program at my university is beginning to use the AEQ to assess whether their program effectively reduces AE. Additionally, the AEQ is being used to assess the effectiveness of judicial affairs programming at our university.

In addition to assessing program effectiveness, AEQ scores could be used to identify individuals high in AE and specifically target those individuals for intervention. Measurement invariance was established across compliant and noncompliant student samples, so the AEQ can be used to identify high AE individuals who are both compliant and noncompliant with university policies. Students may take the AEQ as entering freshman, and those that score high on the measure could then be targeted with additional resources to lower their levels of AE. The short length of the AEQ allows it to be easily

integrated into existing university assessment, as it takes little time to administer.

Through program and student assessment, the examination and measurement of AE utilizing the AEQ holds great promise for improving university programming and further understanding the college student experience.

Appendix A

Original Academic Entitlement Questionnaire (AEQ) Facets and Items (26 items)

- A. “[K]nowledge is a right that should be delivered with a minimum of exertion and discomfort on the part of the ‘consumer’” (Dubovsky, 1986).**
- AEQ-1** 1. If I don’t do well on a test, the professor should make tests easier or curve grades.*
- AEQ-2** 3. Professors should only lecture on material covered in the textbook and assigned readings.*
15. Professors should not expect me to complete work or study for tests over school breaks (e.g., Thanksgiving, Spring Break).
25. I focus on learning what is necessary to satisfy the requirements, but no more.
- B. “[O]thers will provide all of the education that is necessary” (Dubovsky, 1986).**
5. Professors must be entertaining for me to learn.
- AEQ-4** 11. If I am struggling in a class, the professor should approach me and offer to help.*
18. If a professor does not cover material in class, I should not be expected to learn it.
- AEQ-8** 19. It is the professor’s responsibility to make it easy for me to succeed.*
20. Professors should provide their lecture notes online.
22. Professors should provide study guides.
- C. “[P]roblems in learning are due to the inadequacies of the teacher, the course, or the system, rather than to the student’s own shortcomings” (Dubovsky, 1986).**
2. The professor is responsible for how well I do in class.
10. My grades are more affected by how much a professor likes me than the amount or quality of work I do.
- AEQ-5** 12. If I cannot learn the material for a class from lecture alone, then it is the professor’s fault when I fail the test.*
- AEQ-7** 14. I am a product of my environment. Therefore, if I do poorly in class, it is not my fault.*
16. Because it is the professor’s job to help me learn, if I do not do well, it is the professor’s fault.
24. I’ve done poorly on exams because they weren’t geared to my test-taking style.
- D. Students should have control over class policies.**
7. If I have a family vacation scheduled, I should be able to make up work that I miss.
8. I should be able to turn in assignments late without a penalty.
- AEQ-6** 13. I should be given the opportunity to make up a test, regardless of the reason for the absence.*
17. I should have input into how my classes are taught.
21. Because students are the ones who take classes, they know best what good teaching is.
23. I’m paying for my classes, so I should be able to skip class without a grade penalty.

26. If I have more than one test on the same day, I should have the opportunity to move one of them.

E. Certain outcomes are deserved because the student pays tuition.

4. Because I pay tuition, I expect to pass the class and get credit.

6. Because my tuition pays professors' salaries, professors should accommodate my wishes.

AEQ-3 9. Because I pay tuition, I deserve passing grades.*

Note. Items that were retained in the 8-item, one-factor model championed by Kopp and colleagues (2010) are denoted with an asterisk (*). The item number for the current study is presented before the retained items.

Appendix B

Tables

Table 1.

Correlation Matrices and Descriptive Statistics for AE Scores for Compliant and Noncompliant Samples

Item	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Noncompliant			
									<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Skew	Kurtosis
1	-	0.39	0.47	0.15	0.39	0.31	0.34	0.41	4.04	1.49	0.095	-0.580
2	0.44	-	0.40	0.19	0.35	0.32	0.30	0.33	3.42	1.62	0.423	-0.533
3	0.42	0.43	-	0.33	0.61	0.49	0.61	0.54	2.74	1.44	0.778	0.238
4	0.29	0.26	0.35	-	0.42	0.40	0.34	0.29	3.76	1.59	0.178	-0.802
5	0.41	0.38	0.50	0.35	-	0.46	0.62	0.52	2.72	1.34	0.926	0.740
6	0.33	0.28	0.40	0.36	0.37	-	0.51	0.39	3.25	1.59	0.537	-0.266
7	0.33	0.35	0.47	0.34	0.52	0.38	-	0.42	2.52	1.31	1.050	1.216
8	0.44	0.38	0.55	0.34	0.48	0.39	0.45	-	3.10	1.42	0.437	-0.232
Compliant												
<i>M</i>	3.83	3.24	2.42	3.49	2.39	2.70	2.18	2.77				
<i>SD</i>	1.40	1.57	1.27	1.63	1.19	1.42	1.05	1.31				
Skew	-0.085	0.643	0.914	0.261	0.859	0.833	1.111	0.693				
Kurtosis	-0.717	-0.244	0.689	-0.894	0.352	0.308	1.803	0.068				

Note. Compliant sample $n = 380$. Noncompliant sample $n = 365$. Values above the diagonal represent the correlation matrix for the noncompliant sample; values below the diagonal represent the correlation matrix for the compliant sample. All correlation values were significant at the $p < .001$ level.

Table 2

Fit Indices for the Unidimensional AE Model for Compliant and Noncompliant Samples

Group	χ^2	<i>df</i>	CFI	RMSEA
Compliant (<i>n</i> = 380)	31.54*	20	0.99	0.04
Noncompliant (<i>n</i> = 265)	61.21**	20	0.98	0.08

Note. CFI = Comparative Fit Index; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of

Approximation. Standardized covariance residuals did not exceed 4 for either sample.

* $p < .05$.

** $p < .01$.

Table 3

Tests of Invariance of AE Scores Across Compliant and Noncompliant Samples

Model	χ^2	<i>df</i>	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	CFI	ΔCFI	RMSEA
Configural	92.75*	40			0.98		0.06
Metric	113.56*	47	20.81*	7	0.98	0.00	0.06
Scalar	123.39*	54	9.83	7	0.98	0.00	0.06

Note. CFI= Comparative Fit Index; RMSEA= Root Mean Square Error of

Approximation.

* $p < .01$.

Table 4
Mean Differences of Observed and Latent AE Scores across Compliant and Noncompliant Samples

Latent Estimates	Estimate
Latent mean difference	0.29*
Latent mean difference effect size	0.36
Observed Estimates	Estimate
Observed mean difference	0.32*
Compliant sample observed mean	2.88
Noncompliant sample observed mean	3.19
Observed mean difference effect size	0.33

Note. Compliant sample $n = 380$. Noncompliant sample $n = 365$. Unstandardized estimates (latent and observed mean differences, observed means) range from 1 to 7.

* $p < .05$

Table 5.

Correlations, Factor Correlations, and Descriptive Statistics between AEQ Scores and External Variables (N = 350)

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. AEQ	.83	-.29**	-.22**	-.27**	.35**	.57**	-.15*	-.29**
2. MAI Regulation	-.24**	.93	.37**	.58**	-.32**	-.35**	.47**	.60**
3. Agreeableness	-.17**	.32**	.80	.59**	-.32**	-.42**	.33**	.43**
4. Conscientiousness	-.22**	.51**	.48**	.84	-.40**	-.46**	.45**	.54**
5. Executive HS - Past	.27**	-.27**	-.25**	-.32**	.74	.94**	-.28**	-.36**
6. Executive HS - Future	.40**	-.27**	-.30**	-.33**	.64**	.62	-.17*	-.29**
7. Instrumental HS - Past	-.11*	.42**	.27**	.37**	-.22**	-.12*	.84	.92**
8. Instrumental HS - Future	-.22**	.51**	.35**	.44**	-.27**	-.20**	.75**	.79
Mean	23.71	128.93	35.45	33.04	12.05	12.23	29.01	31.37
Standard Deviation	7.63	16.77	5.27	5.84	4.26	3.57	6.84	5.40

Note. Correlations between observed scores are listed on the bottom half of the table, and correlations between latent factors are listed on the top half. Alpha values are listed on the diagonal. AEQ = Academic Entitlement Questionnaire; MAI-Regulation = Metacognitive Awareness Inventory – Regulation Subscale; Agreeableness = Big Five – Agreeableness; Conscientiousness = Big Five – Conscientiousness; Executive HS - Past = Executive Help-Seeking – Past-Oriented; Executive HS - Future = Executive Help-Seeking – Future-Oriented; Instrumental HS - Past = Instrumental Help-Seeking – Past-Oriented; Instrumental HS - Future = Instrumental Help-Seeking – Future-Oriented.

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 6

AE Gender Differences

Group	Male AE		Female AE		Composite AEQ		Latent AE	
	<i>M</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Compliant (<i>n</i> = 372)	23.81	119	22.66	253	-1.39	.16	-1.31	.19
Noncompliant (<i>n</i> = 358)	26.29	177	24.86	181	-1.67	.10	-1.70	.09
Total (<i>n</i> = 730)	25.29	296	23.58	434	-2.90	< .01	3.83	< .01

Table 7.
Correlations (Factor Correlations) between AEQ Scores, External Variables, and Ability Variables (N = 292)

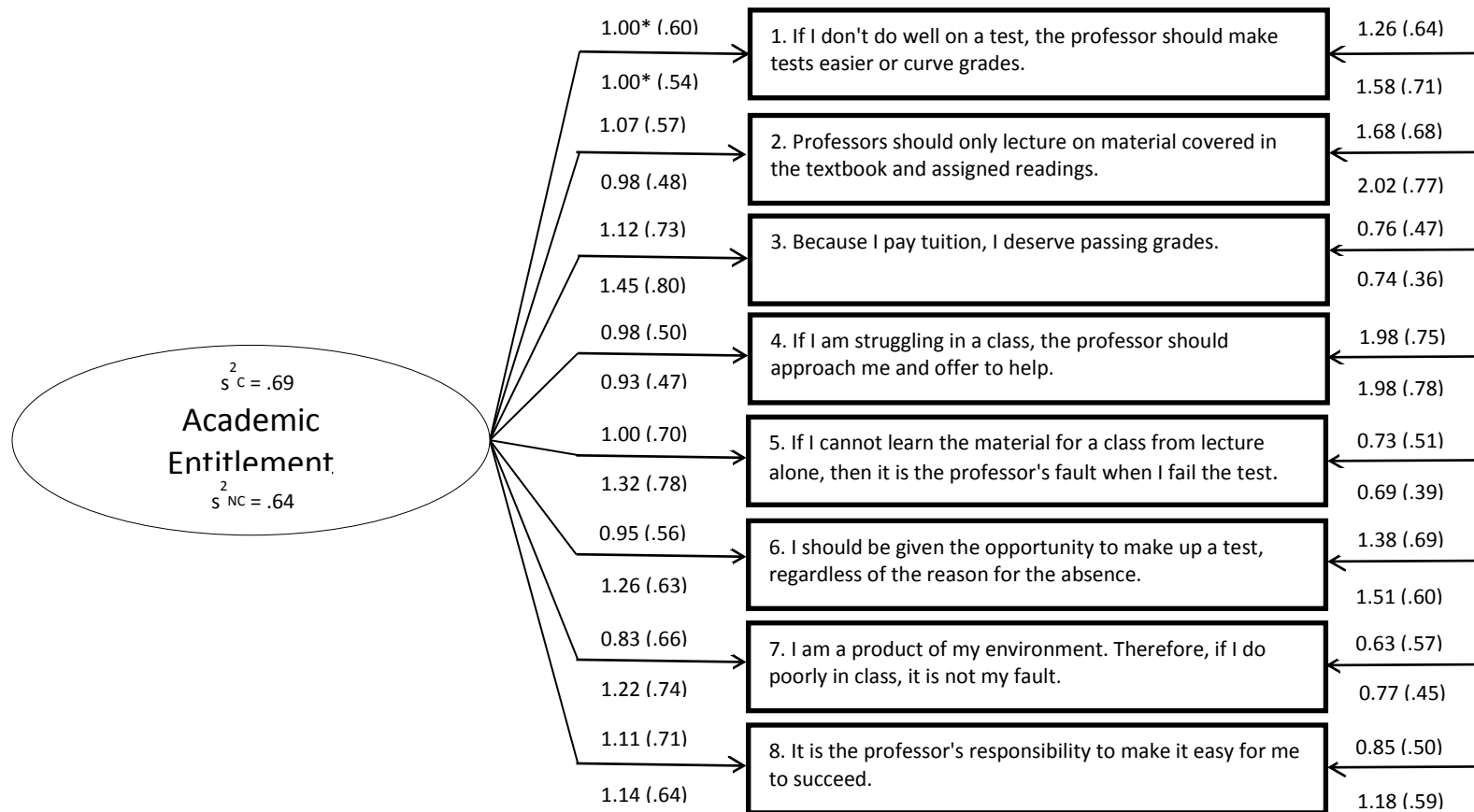
Variable	GPA		SAT-M		SAT-V	
1. AEQ	-.17**	(-.18**)	-.11	(-.11)	-.21**	(-.22**)
2. MAI Regulation	.12*	(.13*)	-.06	(-.06)	-.07	(-.08)
3. Agreeableness	-.01	(-.02)	-.04	(-.04)	-.06	(-.06)
4. Conscientiousness	.22**	(.24**)	-.12*	(-.13*)	-.11	(-.12*)
5. Exe HS - Past	-.09	(-.10)	.01	(.01)	-.07	(-.09)
6. Exe HS - Future	-.11	(-.14*)	.05	(.06)	-.05	(-.07)
7. Instr HS - Past	.09	(.10)	-.07	(-.08)	-.07	(-.08)
8. Instr HS - Future	.06	(.07)	-.11	(-.12*)	-.06	(-.07)
9. GPA	-					
10. SAT-M	.32**		-			
11. SAT-V	.36**		.45**		-	
Mean	3.03		569.93		560.82	
Standard Deviation	0.54		65.18		70.25	

Note. AEQ = Academic Entitlement Questionnaire; MAI-Regulation = Metacognitive Awareness Inventory – Regulation Subscale; Agreeableness = Big Five – Agreeableness; Conscientiousness = Big Five – Conscientiousness; Exe HS - Past = Executive Help-Seeking – Past-Oriented; Exe HS - Future = Executive Help-Seeking – Future-Oriented; Instr HS - Past = Instrumental Help-Seeking – Past-Oriented; Instr HS - Future = Instrumental Help-Seeking – Future-Oriented; GPA = Undergraduate Grade Point Average; SAT-M = SAT Math Score; SAT-V = SAT Verbal Score.

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Appendix C

Figure 1. Parameter estimates associated with the one-factor configural model. Values above the arrows are parameter estimates for the compliant sample ($n = 380$), and values below the arrows are parameter estimates for the noncompliant sample ($n = 365$). Standardized estimates are presented in parentheses. The path from the AE factor to Item 1 was fixed to 1.00 for both samples. All estimated unstandardized pattern coefficients were statistically significant ($p < .05$). Latent variances are reported within the oval, with the compliant sample on top.



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