

ON THE RATIONALIZATION OF PSYCHOLOGICAL ENTITLEMENT:

Introducing a Rationalized Entitlement Theory and Measure

by

RICHARD SCOTT REED

BA, University of Oregon, 2005  
MBA, University of Colorado, 2011

A thesis submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate School of the University of Colorado in partial fulfillment of the requirement of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

Leeds School of Business

Organizational Behavior and Information Systems Department

2024

Committee Members:

Russell Cropanzano

David Hekman

Christina Lacerenza

Sabrina Volpone

H. Phoenix Van Wagoner

Reed, Richard S. (Ph.D., Organizational Behavior)

On the Rationalization of Psychological Entitlement: Introducing a Rationalized Entitlement  
Theory and Measure

Thesis directed by Professor Russell Cropanzano

Effectively managing entitled employees continues to challenge managers, as it has for decades. Over three chapters, this dissertation creates a new avenue for managing entitlement at work by reconceptualizing the construct, operationalizing and validating a new measure, and using the new measure to experimentally test management tactics. The first chapter lays out a new, three-faceted Rationalized Entitlement Theory to better understand the structure of psychological entitlement. Considering entitlement as a mindset comprised of rationalized expectations, self-serving attributions, and perceptions of the self as a victim provides a more nuanced understanding of the underlying psychological mechanisms and their relationships to key workplace outcomes. The second chapter operationalizes this construct and validates the measure over multiple samples. The measure displays good psychometric reliability, as well as adequate convergent, discriminant, and incremental predictive validities. The third chapter uses the newly validated Rationalized Entitlement Measure to experimentally explore potential tactics for managing entitlement in the workplace. Entitlement is found to be a strong predictor of many workplace outcomes, with nuanced, often conflicting relationships between the subdimensions of entitlement and work outcomes. The results across these three chapters indicates entitlement is a nuanced, multidimensional construct and current entitlement research may benefit from paying more attention to the distinctive facets of entitlement.

I wish to express my sincere gratitude to my wife, Natalie, and our daughter, Alison, for their endless patience, support, and encouragement. I would also like to thank my advisor, Russell, for his friendship, guidance, and wisdom throughout this journey. I appreciate the helpful feedback of my committee, the emotional support of my friends, and the grounding energy of my entire family. Thank you all.

## Table of Contents

<b>CHAPTER 0 Overview of Studies.....</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>CHAPTER 1 Rationalized Entitlement Theory: A Theoretical Explanation of Psychological Entitlement .....</b>	<b>4</b>
Background .....	7
Brief History of Entitlement Research .....	7
Current Debates in Entitlement Scholarship .....	9
Distinguishing Entitlement from Related Constructs.....	12
Theoretical Model.....	14
Rationalization .....	17
Self-Serving Attributions .....	18
Perceived Victimization.....	20
General Discussion.....	22
Limitations and Future Directions.....	24
Conclusion.....	26
<b>CHAPTER 2 On the Dimensionality of Psychological Entitlement: Validation of the Rationalized Entitlement Measure .....</b>	<b>28</b>
Literature Review .....	29
Research Design.....	31
Hypotheses Development.....	32
Pre-study Sample: Initial Item Generation .....	34
Sample 1: Additional Item Generation and Initial Scale Reduction.....	35
Method .....	35
Sample 2: Final Item Reduction, Initial Factor Structure and Internal Consistencies.....	39
Method .....	39
Analysis and Results.....	41
Sample 3: Confirmation of Factor Structure, Internal Consistencies, and Model Fit as well as Initial Convergent, Discriminant, and Incremental Predictive Validities .....	42
Method .....	42
Analysis and Results.....	47
General Discussion.....	58
Implications.....	58
Limitations.....	59
Future Directions .....	61
Conclusion.....	63

<b>CHAPTER 3 On the Management of Entitlement: An Experimental Examination of Two Potential Management Tactics.....</b>	<b>64</b>
Study 1: Accountability Intervention .....	73
Review of Felt Accountability and Psychological Entitlement .....	73
Method .....	75
Analysis and Results .....	81
Study 2: Gratitude Intervention.....	92
Review of Gratitude and Psychological Entitlement.....	92
Method .....	94
Analysis and Results .....	97
Study 2 Discussion.....	104
General Discussion.....	106
Limitations and Future Directions.....	109
Conclusion.....	110
References .....	111
Appendices.....	134
Appendix A – List of items in the Rationalized Entitlement Measure, Time of Generation, and Their Respective Sources .....	134
Appendix B – Screenshot of Open Science Framework Preregistration.....	135
Appendix C – Accountability Vignettes used in Chapter 3, Study 1.....	136
Appendix D – Supplemental Analysis of Chapter 3: Study 1 Using Planned Contrast Codes to Compare Conditions Against the Control Group .....	139
Appendix E – Gratitude Writing Prompts used in Chapter 3, Study 2 .....	147

**LIST OF TABLES**

Table 2-1. Sample 2 Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Matrix.....	40
Table 2-2. Sample 2 Factor Loadings from a Principal-Component Factor Analysis.....	41
Table 2-3. Sample 3 Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Matrix.....	43
Table 2-4. Sample 3 Relative and Absolute Model Fit Statistics.....	50
Table 2-5. Sample 3 Regressions Demonstrating Discriminant Validity Amongst Dimensions.....	53
Table 2-6. Sample 3 Hierarchical Regressions Providing Evidence for Incremental Predictive Validity.....	57
Table 3-1. Study 1 Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Matrix.....	80
Table 3-2. Study 1 Job Satisfaction Regression with Entitlement and Accountability Condition Interaction.....	82
Table 3-3. Study 1 Job Satisfaction Regression with Entitlement Subdimensions and Accountability Condition Interaction.....	83
Table 3-4. Study 1 Turnover Intent Regression with Entitlement and Accountability Condition Interaction.....	84
Table 3-5. Study 1 Turnover Intent Regression with Entitlement Subdimensions and Accountability Condition Interaction.....	85
Table 3-6. Study 1 Perceived Overall Justice Regression with Entitlement and Accountability Condition Interaction.....	86
Table 3-7. Study 1 Perceived Overall Justice Regression with Entitlement Subdimensions and Accountability Condition Interaction.....	87
Table 3-8. Study 1 Effort Regression with Entitlement and Accountability Condition Interaction.....	88
Table 3-9. Study 1 Effort Regression with Entitlement Subdimensions and Accountability Condition Interaction.....	89
Table 3-10. Study 2 Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Matrix.....	95
Table 3-11. Study 2 Job Satisfaction Regression with Entitlement and Gratitude Interaction.....	98
Table 3-12. Study 2 Job Satisfaction Regression with Entitlement Subdimensions and Gratitude Interaction.....	99
Table 3-13. Study 2 Turnover Intent Regression with Entitlement and Gratitude Interaction.....	100
Table 3-14. Study 2 Turnover Intent Regression with Entitlement Subdimensions and Gratitude Interaction.....	101
Table 3-15. Study 2 Perceived Overall Justice Regression with Entitlement and Gratitude Interaction.....	102
Table 3-16. Study 2 Perceived Overall Justice Regression with Entitlement Subdimensions and Gratitude Interaction.....	103
Table 3-17. Study 2 Effort Regression with Entitlement and Gratitude Interaction.....	104
Table 3-18. Study 2 Effort Regression with Entitlement Subdimensions and Gratitude Interaction.....	105

**LIST OF FIGURES**

Figure 1-1. Proposed Model of Rationalized Entitlement..... 17  
Figure 2-1. Sample 2 Structure of REM with Internal Consistencies.....42  
Figure 2-2. Sample 3 Structure of REM with Internal Consistencies.....48

## CHAPTER 0

### Overview of Studies

Psychological entitlement has been called a “curse potentially affecting a wide range of individuals” (Campbell, Bonacci, Shelton, Exline, & Bushman, 2004:30), a “pressing managerial challenge” (Tomlinson, 2012:67), “particularly salient” (Fisk, 2010:102), and reaching levels that “border on bizarre” (Harvey & Dasborough, 2015:460). Entitled individuals are less likely to follow instructions (Zitek & Jordan, 2019), are more likely to respond to bad luck with anger (Zitek & Jordan, 2021), and more likely to perceive their supervisors as abusive (Harvey, Harris, Gillis, & Martinko, 2014). Entitled individuals are less satisfied with their jobs (Harvey & Martinko, 2009), more abusive towards their coworkers (Harvey & Harris, 2010), and a source of stress in the workplace (Hochwarter, Summers, Thompson, Perrewe, & Ferris, 2010). Entitled people are less likely to engage in organizational citizenship behavior, or OCB (Hochwarter, Meurs, Perrewe, Royle, & Matherly, 2007), and when they do engage in OCB it is more likely to be unethical, pro-organizational behavior that can put the organization’s reputation at risk (Yam, Klotz, He & Reynolds, 2017). These findings may be the tip of the iceberg, as many scholars have called entitlement an area in need of more scholarly attention (Harvey & Dasborough, 2015; Campbell et al., 2004; Jordan, Ramsay & Westerlaken, 2017).

In an attempt to better understand the construct of entitlement, I explore the construct of psychological entitlement over three chapters. In Chapter 1, I propose a new theory of psychological entitlement, called rationalized entitlement theory, that conceptualizes trait entitlement as an intrapersonal mindset where one tends to rationalize unjustifiable expectations, hold self-serving attributions, and perceive oneself as a victim. In this dissertation, I argue that individuals who frequently demonstrate these three tendencies are entitled. Also in Chapter 1, I

briefly review prior research on psychological entitlement and some of the unsettled questions in the field of entitlement. I then describe rationalized entitlement theory, providing both theoretical and empirical evidence for each dimension. I finish Chapter 1 with a discussion of the contributions, limitations, and future directions of this entitlement research.

Chapter 2 validates a new measure of psychological entitlement that captures the nuance of rationalized entitlement theory, as described in Chapter 1. The development of the Rationalized Entitlement Measures (REM) was guided by Hinkin's (1998) recommendations for scale development. Across multiple samples, the REM demonstrates good reliability as well as adequate internal, convergent, discriminant, and incremental predictive validities. After detailing the process of item generation, I discuss the process of initial scale reduction by combining results from a pre-study Q-sort task using ten subject matter experts and a dedicated sample of 189 online participants. One hundred forty-seven entitlement items were subjected to scale reduction using exploratory factor analysis, correlational analysis and internal consistency tests. In Sample 2, final item reduction was conducted following a similar process, resulting in the final rationalized entitlement measure, consisting of 11 items across 3 dimensions. Initial factor structure and internal consistencies are also conducted using Sample 2 and found to be sufficient. Sample 3 was gathered as an independent sample to confirm model fit and assess the convergent, discriminant and incremental predictive validity of the measure. The rationalized entitlement measure is found to be valid across all assessments.

Chapter 3 applies the newly validated rationalized entitlement measure (REM) to test the potential efficacy of two managerial tactics for handling entitled employees. Specifically, the impact of increased and decreased accountability and gratitude on entitlement outcomes at work are studied with two parallel online experiments. In Study 1, participants are randomly assigned

to one of three groups. Each group reads a vignette describing a new task they are assigned at work. One group is made to feel highly accountable for their performance, one group is made to feel low accountability, and one group (the control) is not made to feel anything in particular. The level of entitlement as measured by the new rationalized entitlement measure, and the effects of the interaction of the participant's entitlement and the condition they are assigned to are analyzed. Entitlement is found to interact with accountability to predict justice perception. More interesting, exploratory analysis reveals that, despite being positively correlated with one another, the dimensions of entitlement have idiosyncratic effects from one another that are often in conflict with each other. Study 2 uses a similar three-group experimental design as Study 1, with participants in the first condition engaging in writing tasks intending to increase feelings of gratitude, participants in the second group engage in opposite writing tasks, intending to decrease feelings of gratitude, and the last group engage in writing tasks that are not intended to induce any change in gratitude. The experimental manipulation failed; however exploratory analysis again reveals a similarly nuanced pattern of results as Study 1. Overall, this indicates that entitlement is multidimensional and current entitlement research may be limiting itself by aggregating the diverging effects of entitlement's facets.

In summary, this dissertation provides a novel theoretical understanding of psychological entitlement, operationalizes that theory, and applies the new measure to explore workplace outcomes for entitled employees. Hopefully with these tools in hand, we can begin to address the "curse potentially affecting a wide range of individuals" (Campbell, et al., 2004:30), psychological entitlement.

## CHAPTER 1

### **Rationalized Entitlement Theory: A Theoretical Explanation of Psychological Entitlement**

What do we deserve? This fundamental question has been the focus of many scholarly debates for thousands of years (Aristotle, 350 B.C.E./1925; Rawls, 1973; Nozick, 1974). Justice scholars have attempted to identify a set of rules that determine the extent to which an outcome is fair, or in other words, an outcome that is deserved (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998; Adams, 1963; Leventhal, 1980; Thibaut & Walker, 1975; Bies & Moag, 1986). What happens when an individual believes he or she deserves more than what can be considered just? This mindset is easily identified in today's society (Twenge & Campbell, 2009; Twenge & Foster, 2010). It is called "psychological entitlement," and has been a growing focus of academics, as well as the popular press, for decades (Lerner, 1987; Campbell, Bonacci, Shelton, Exline, & Bushman, 2004; Grubbs & Exline; 2016).

There have been many workplace outcomes linked with entitlement, and while some can be considered positive such as increased creativity (Zitek & Vincent, 2015; Liu & Zhou, 2020), increased self-efficacy in negotiations (Neville & Fisk, 2019), and increased tendency to reprimand norm violators (Stambou, van Kleff, & Homan, 2019), most outcomes are substantially negative. Entitlement has been linked to increased conflict with supervisors (Harvey, Harris, Gillis, & Martinko, 2014), abusiveness towards coworkers (Hochwarter, Meurs, Perrewe, Todd Royle, & Matherly, 2007), interpersonal and organizational deviance (Yam, Klotz, He, & Reynolds, 2017), unethical pro-organizational behavior (Lee, Schwarz, Newman, & Legood, 2019), responding to bad luck with anger (Zitek & Jordan, 2021), and being less likely to follow instructions (Zitek & Jordan, 2019), among many other undesirable outcomes. Given the plethora of evidence that entitlement is a "pressing managerial challenge" (Tomlinson,

2012:67), as well as the passionate attention it has recently received in academic and popular press, it is surprising that tactics for effectively managing entitled employees are still scarce (Harvey & Dasborough, 2015). One possible explanation for this lacuna is an incomplete understanding of entitlement as a psychological phenomenon.

One can hardly blame the research on entitlement for having gaps given the vast diversity of backgrounds its scholars come from. Clinical psychologists have tended to focus on the more pathological side of entitlement, for example by defining entitlement as a facet of narcissism (Emmons, 1984; Raskin & Terry, 1988). Social psychologists have focused more on the normative interplay between entitled individuals and others (Lerner, 1987; Grubbs & Exline, 2016). Management scholars focus more on the effects of entitlement in the workplace (Harvey, Harris, Gillis, & Martinko, 2014; Hochwarter, et al., 2007), whereas education scholars focus on entitlement in the classroom (Kopp, Zinn, Finney & Jurich, 2011; Chowning & Campbell, 2009). These differences in traditions and assumptions are compounded by the fact that entitlement is a very applied phenomenon with substantial real-world impact, which has created a tendency for entitlement scholars to defer robust theorizing of entitlement in favor of focusing on more pragmatic, empirical examination. Despite calls for more research and in-depth theorizing (Harvey & Dasborough, 2015; Jordan, Ramsay, & Westerlaken, 2017) there has yet to be one overarching theory of psychological entitlement capable of explaining the range of entitlement findings so far.

To compound these challenges, entitlement is a relatively unique construct in that it can be conceptualized both at the individual level, as trait entitlement (Campbell et al., 2004) or it can be conceptualized within a group context, such as work-situated entitlement does (O'Leary-Kelly, Rosen, & Hochwarter, 2017). Conceptualizing entitlement as being contextually

embedded, as is done for work-situated entitlement or academic entitlement, moves the focus of entitlement from within the individual and instead places entitlement as a construct within a larger group, operationalized as the misalignment of expectations within a group (O’Leary-Kelly et al., 2017). One of the principal benefits of considering entitlement this way is that it allows for the possibility that the misaligned expectations stem from biases of the group, as opposed to biases of the individual being labeled as entitled. Trait entitlement conceptualizes the problem differently. Rather than as a relationship between people and groups, the trait approach assumes, sometimes implicitly, that the individual’s mindset is the source of the conflict. Within the trait entitlement approach, entitlement is an individual differences upon which some people are higher, and others are lower. In at least one theoretical sense, the trait approach is more fundamental because work-situated entitlement relies on individual trait entitlement as an antecedent. To that end, to understand work-situated entitlement, we must first understand the construct of trait entitlement. The goal of this manuscript will be to put forth a theory of entitlement capable of explaining what trait entitlement is within the individual, and thereby create logical starting points for how to manage entitlement in the workplace.

In this chapter I propose rationalized entitlement theory. Rationalized entitlement theory (RET) is a new way of conceptualizing trait entitlement as a mindset where one tends to rationalize unjustifiable expectations, hold self-serving attributions, and perceive oneself as a victim. When these three factors co-occur frequently, the resulting behavior is often perceived as entitled. For the remainder of this chapter, I will review the history of entitlement theory and its measurement, highlight some of the current debates in entitlement research, and distinguish entitlement from some of its related constructs. I will then detail rationalized entitlement theory and present evidence to support it and its factors. The end of the chapter will include a discussion

of the contributions and limitations of this theory as well as future directions for entitlement research.

## **Background**

### **Brief History of Entitlement Research**

In its original conceptualization, entitlement was viewed as being the partner of deservingness, where what one deserves is determined by one's actions, and what one is entitled to is determined by virtue of who one is (Naumann, Minsky, & Sturman, 2002). For example, I deserve my paycheck because of the work I complete for my organization, but I am entitled to my right to vote for U.S. president as an adult citizen of the United States. If I do nothing, I still retain my right to vote because of who I am, but if I do nothing then I have no claim for payment from my organization. Entitlement in fields such as economics and law are known for distinguishing between what one deserves and what one is entitled to. A legal entitlement is defined as something owed that cannot be taken away without due process (Black's Law Dictionary, 1990).

In contrast, entitlement in management research and its related fields (e.g., psychology, sociology, philosophy, education, etc.) typically focuses on an internal sense of entitlement, which tends to blend what we deserve and what we are entitled to into one general sense of what we are owed (Naumann et al., 2002). To avoid confusion with legal or economic entitlements, this sense of entitlement has been termed psychological entitlement, and been defined in various ways (for a review of definitions used for psychological entitlement, see Jordan, et al., 2017). It is worth noting that, while potentially important from a well-being perspective, few people today associate entitlement with individuals demonstrating reduced expectations. Psychological

entitlement becomes problematic when it becomes excessive (Fisk, 2010). In popular use, entitlement is understood to be a belief that one deserves more than is objectively justifiable.

The idea of studying individual differences around a person's expectations of what they deserve has a rich history in psychology. Equity theory (Adams, 1965) was one stream of research that delineated people along a spectrum from "benevolent" individuals who were more tolerant of receiving less than they give, generally, to "entitled" individuals who were less tolerant of receiving less than they give. While still in use today, this theory is limited somewhat by its focus on outcomes without regard for process or interpersonal treatment, allowing other frameworks to become more popular in their relevant fields (Folger, 1986). Early entitlement scholars were also focused mostly on expectations of outcomes, such as Derber's (1978) study of career expectations among college graduates. As a well-validated scale measuring entitlement specifically would not be developed until 2004, many of the early entitlement research was theoretical (Lerner, 1987; Nozick, 1974; Major, 1994) with limited ability to be tested in situ.

One exception to this was within the narcissism literature, where entitlement was often conceptualized as a facet of narcissism (Emmons, 1984; Raskin & Terry, 1988). This spurred significant interest in the concept of entitlement, but unfortunately the entitlement subscale of the Narcissistic Personality Inventory (NPI) has consistently been plagued by low internal consistency (Brown, Budzek, Tamborski, 2009; Ackerman, Witt, Donnellan, Trzesniewski, Robins & Kashy, 2011). Partially to resolve this issue, Campbell and colleagues (2004) developed the Psychological Entitlement Scale (PES), which has demonstrated excellent psychometric properties across multiple studies. The PES, while highly successful from a pragmatic perspective, does not attempt to provide a theoretical explanation for what entitlement is, leaving it susceptible to the possibility of lacking content sufficiency. Despite this limitation,

it is still widely used in management research and is currently considered by many to be the standard measure of entitlement.

### **Current Debates in Entitlement Scholarship**

While the PES has succeeded in providing a consistent measure that has resulted in many interesting empirical findings, it has done little to resolve the theoretical debates that remain regarding entitlement. For instance, scholars continue to debate whether entitlement is best conceptualized as a single dimension, two dimensions, or having three dimensions. The original assumption that entitlement is unidimensional most likely stemmed from the fact that the prior literature on entitlement in the personality psychology field thought of entitlement as a facet of narcissism. The most common measure of narcissism at the time, the narcissistic personality inventory (NPI), actually combined entitlement with an individual's unique level of exploitiveness to create a single subdimension of narcissism. The PES was constructed and tested under the assumption that entitlement was unidimensional. While not exactly atheoretical, the goal of that research, as is common with clinical personality research, was more pragmatic. In that goal, it has been a successful catalyst for improving our understanding and measurement of psychological entitlement. More recently, scholars have questioned the assumption that entitlement is a single factor. To explore whether entitled individuals are all the same, or if there are different dimensions of entitlement, a series of model-based cluster analyses of the PES were conducted using the five-factor model of personality as the clustering variables and participants scoring one or more standard deviations above the mean as the grouping condition (Crowe, LoPilato, Campbell, & Miller, 2016). Results from that paper indicate there are two distinct groups of entitled individuals. Both groups demonstrate typical characteristics of entitlement, such as being more antagonistic and narcissistic. However, one group was more emotionally

stable, characterized by high self-esteem, and another group was more emotionally vulnerable, characterized by high levels of neuroticism and perceptions of childhood abuse. This pattern of results was replicated in a separate paper involving two online samples (Hart, Tortoriello, & Richardson, 2020). Given that two statistically distinct groups emerged that both demonstrated characteristic aspects of entitlement but also demonstrated unique nomological networks, it would logically follow that there are at least two dimensions of entitlement, perhaps more. In fact, multiple scholars have attempted to create measures of entitlement with two or three dimensions, with varying degrees of success, such as the Academic Entitlement Scale (Achacoso, 2002), the Academic Entitlement Questionnaire (Kopp, Zinn, Finney, & Jurich, 2011), the Measure of Employee Entitlement (Westerlaken, Jordan, & Ramsay, 2016), and the Obligation and Entitlement Scale (Brummel & Parker, 2015). Researchers continue to actively investigate the factor structure of entitlement today, and a definitive conclusion has yet to be made.

In addition to debating the most appropriate factor structure to use for entitlement, scholars also debate whether entitlement is a stable personality trait (Campbell et al., 2004) or a temporary state that can be influenced by one's environmental situation (Tomlinson, 2012). Since some of the earliest empirical work on entitlement stemmed from work done on narcissistic personality disorder, there has been an implicit assumption that entitlement is a stable personality trait. To support their claim that entitlement is best thought of as a trait, Campbell and colleagues (2004) conducted test-retest reliability correlations over 1- and 2-month time periods and found strong correlations. The 1-month test-retest correlation for the PES was  $r=0.72$ ,  $p<0.0001$ , and 2-month correlation was  $r=0.70$ ,  $p<0.0001$  (Campbell et al., 2004 study 3). More recently, however, multiple entitlement scholars have induced entitlement with

laboratory manipulations, drawing the conclusion that feelings of entitlement are malleable enough to be intentionally activated in a replicable way (Zitek & Vincent, 2015; Redford & Ratliff, 2018; Stamkou, van Kleef, & Homan, 2019). Perhaps a more fruitful way to frame this debate would be to focus less on whether entitlement is a trait or state and focus more on how stable entitlement is in an individual. Uncovering what influences the formation, maintenance, and dismantling of psychological entitlement could be very insightful regarding entitlement interventions.

Finally, another current debate in entitlement is what the relationship is between entitlement in one context and entitlement in other contexts. Is an entitled mindset truly global across all domains, as has been argued previously (Campbell et al., 2004)? What activates entitled beliefs, and are they the same triggers at work as they are at home and everywhere else the entitled individual goes? While this was the predominant framework in the early 2000's, a review of the past 20 years of entitlement research shows a different reality. There continues to be entitlement research done within the traditional paradigms of psychology, particularly personality, clinical and social psychology. However, there are also research on entitlement being done in such disciplines as business management, education, religion, and romantic relationships. The proliferation of entitlement into more and more domain specific disciplines calls into question whether the triggers, and possibly even manifestations, of entitlement are constant across all contexts.

While the field of entitlement debates these issues within itself, it is also important to recognize there are other constructs outside of entitlement that appear to be very similar. These constructs share enough similarities with entitlement that they warrant a discussion of how entitlement is a distinct construct. While this has been done in other papers with constructs such

as narcissism (Rose & Anastasio, 2014) and equity sensitivity (Jordan, et al., 2017), there are other constructs that also deserve attention, such as job (dis)satisfaction and American exceptionalism, which will be discussed below.

### **Distinguishing Entitlement from Related Constructs**

While entitlement overlaps conceptual space with many other constructs, it also distinguishes itself from these related constructs in some meaningful way. For example, the relationship between narcissism and entitlement has long been discussed (Campbell et al., 2004; Rose & Anastasio, 2014). While both are psychological conditions biasing outcomes in one's favor, there are several differences as well, such as the extraneous dimensions of narcissists (e.g., vanity, exhibitionism, desire for authority, etc.) and the focus of entitlement being external, but the focus of narcissism is not (Rose & Anastasio, 2014). The focus of this section will be on two constructs that have not been discussed in the context of conceptually overlapping with entitlement but should be.

#### ***Job (Dis)satisfaction***

Job satisfaction is a common construct in management research and concerns the extent to which people feel happy and fulfilled with their job. The absence of job satisfaction, or job dissatisfaction, would indicate an employee feels unhappy at work, which might lead to behavior such as counterproductive work behavior. The biases involved with psychological entitlement also lend themselves to feeling unhappy at work, leading to behavior such as CWBs. It would make sense that job satisfaction and psychological entitlement would share some overlap, given their relationships with unhappiness. That being said, there are multiple differences between job dissatisfaction and psychological entitlement. First, entitlement is theorized as an antecedent of job dissatisfaction. In other words, entitlement can lead to job dissatisfaction, but there is no

evidence that job dissatisfaction causes entitlement. Job satisfaction is influenced by such factors as job characteristics and leadership style, as well as individual values and expectations. Second, entitlement is theorized as being more stable across time than job satisfaction. Where an employee's level of satisfaction with their job can change instantly when they receive a promotion, an employee's level of entitlement would be less likely to change instantaneously. Finally, while the focus of this paper is on entitlement in the workplace, the construct of entitlement is theorized to extend well beyond the office. An entitled employee is also likely to be an entitled student or entitled spouse.

### *American Exceptionalism*

Another interesting construct that shares nomological space with entitlement is the idea of American Exceptionalism (Lipset, 1996). American Exceptionalism refers to the general belief that the United States of America has a unique destiny and possesses singular qualities that set it apart from others in a superior way (Kammen, 1993). This idea is used to explain why America is unique and even used to rationalize why America can behave differently than any other country (Lipset, 1996). Entitled individuals also tend to see themselves as unique or not subject to the rules of others. It can be argued that American Exceptionalism and psychological entitlement both involve cognitive biases and can be used to rationalized socially unacceptable behavior. Distinguishing between these two constructs is complicated by the fact the American Exceptionalism lacks a single definition that is agreed upon by a majority of scholars (Lipset, 1996). One notable distinction is that American Exceptionalism exists at the national level, whereas psychological entitlement exists at the individual level. An individual does not display American Exceptionalism, a group of people do. A clearer boundary between these two

constructs will emerge as more clarity develops around the definitions of American Exceptionalism as well as for psychological entitlement.

### **Theoretical Model**

The importance of psychological entitlement to many outcomes both in and out of the workplace necessitates a new theory of psychological entitlement that can 1) incorporate existing research, 2) be operationalized to explain observable phenomenon, 3) test intervention or management tactics that could minimize maladaptive qualities of entitlement and/or maximize any beneficial outcomes of entitlement, and 4) further the scientific understanding of cognitive biases affecting human decision making. Any new theory of psychological entitlement should be judged by its ability to accomplish these four goals. Rationalized entitlement theory achieves this by capturing the full content domain of entitlement while minimizing any overlap it has with other existing constructs.

To parsimoniously capture the full content domain of psychological entitlement, I focused on what psychological conditions must be true for an individual to exhibit entitled behavior. In doing so, I made sure to capture all relevant dimensions, but also to not retain any dimension that, in its absence, would not eliminate entitled behavior. For examples of dimensions that are related to entitlement, but is not necessary for its existence, one can look to the other facets of narcissism. People who exhibit entitled behavior are also often vain, as those two dimensions of narcissism are positively correlated, but a person can lack vanity and still act entitled. To uncover the factors of entitlement, I first scoured the existing literature to identify entitlement's known nomological network. I also identified other constructs that serve as boundary conditions for the domain of entitlement. For example, greed and entitlement are not interchangeable constructs, but what exactly differentiates them? What do they share in

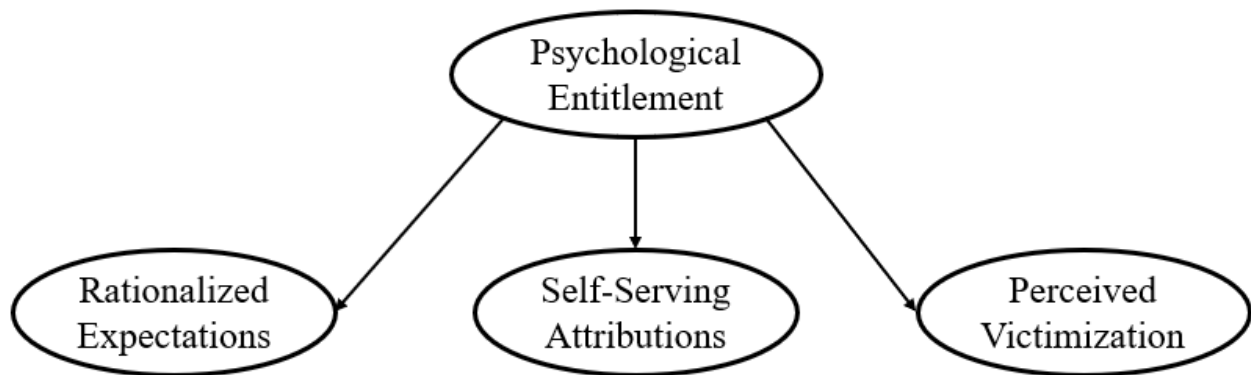
common, and in what ways are they unique? This has been an iterative process for the better part of a decade and has resulted in three irreducible facets of psychological entitlement.

First, one of the hallmarks of entitled behavior is a self-serving attributional bias, where the entitled individual attributes the cause of good outcomes to themselves and their actions but the cause of bad outcomes are attributed to outside forces that could not have been prevented by the individual (Harvey & Martinko, 2009). This has been seen in many conceptualizations of entitlement, and those that don't reference it specifically use some resulting psychological state, such as exaggerated expectations (Grubbs & Exline, 2016). This self-serving attributional bias is useful for the second facet of entitlement, a tendency to rationalize one's expectations (Tsang, 2002). Entitled individuals tend to find rationalizations for their expectations even in the presence of information suggesting that their expectations are not justifiable. The larger the ambiguity surrounding what caused a good or bad outcome becomes, the easier it is for entitled individuals to rationalize expectations (Lerner & Tetlock, 1999). Whereas greedy individuals tend to acknowledge the unjustifiable nature of their expectations when confronted, entitled individuals will often double-down on their expectations. They also tend to see themselves as a victim (Zitek, Jordan, Monin, & Leach, 2010), which may further justify their selfish expectations. In the following sections I will describe each dimension, providing the logic as well as any existing empirical evidence for the inclusion of this dimension.

Upon identifying the crucial components of an entitled mindset, one potential pathway for entitlement to form, one that starts with a desire for better treatment, begins to become clear. This is not intended as the only way an individual could become entitlement, but one example exploring how these factors might tend to co-occur. A desire for more or better outcomes is inherent to human nature, and when balanced with other social motivations is crucial to engaging

in adaptive behavior. The methods one uses to achieve this desire, however, often carry with them consequences. Society is based on trust and manipulating the trust of others is one way of acquiring better outcomes. Most human societies, however, value honesty and fairness and view individuals who act dishonestly as immoral and undesirable. Therefore, acquiring more resources requires either increased effort, which is often unpleasant or impossible, or a willingness to risk their sense of morality, which carries with it social risks. While many people in this situation choose to work harder, others choose to engage in a form of rationalization, which is the cognitive process that individuals use to convince themselves that their behavior is socially or morally acceptable (Tsang, 2002). There are multiple methods of rationalization, including engaging in self-serving attributions, where they see positive outcomes as being the result of their own efforts and unwanted outcomes are the result of outside forces. This cognitive bias is idiosyncratic to the individual, which creates an inherent tension between the individual and the collective. When others try to correct the individual's bias and align the cognitions of the group with the entitled individual, some individuals will resist the change in perceptions and instead see themselves as misunderstood or exploited. This perceived victimization will further reinforce the rationalization of their entitled beliefs, forming a self-reinforcing cycle of entitlement. While this process is one of multiple ways an individual may engender entitled beliefs, the end result of any of these processes will be the same three factors, namely rationalization, self-serving attributions, and perceived victimization. In the following sections, I will review each of these dimensions and provide preliminary support from existing literature.

***Proposition 1:*** *Psychological entitlement is a higher-order construct composed of three dimensions: rationalization of expectations, self-serving attributions, and perceived victimization.*

**Figure 1-1***Proposed Model of Rationalized Entitlement***Rationalization**

To understand entitlement as a rationalization of expectations, it is important to understand how and why entitled individuals rationalize. Rationalization is one example of a broader phenomenon called motivated reasoning (Kunda, 1990), and is a tactic to reduce the psychological cost of engaging in a behavior (Tsang, 2002). It can be used to affect motivation in many ways, such as by increasing the value of an outcome you are working towards, or by decreasing the value of an outcome you do not want. While not exclusively, it is often utilized when someone is motivated by multiple goals and must make a decision between them. This can arise when someone is motivated by an intrinsic goal such as greed or sympathy, but also motivated to act morally so that they do not risk the interpersonal, and intrapersonal, consequences of acting immorally (Batson, Klein, Highberger, & Shaw, 1995). For example, when an individual is caught stealing, most societies hold the belief that the morally right thing to do would be to act honestly and confess. Most individuals, however, would prefer to not face the consequences of stealing, and so would be tempted to make up a lie that would explain their actions while maintaining their morality and virtue. In general, when deciding whether to act morally or not humans engage in a form of cost/benefit analysis, and individuals who rationalize

immoral behavior as not violating their moral code reduce the psychological cost of that behavior to tip the scales in that direction (Tsang, 2002). Multiple theories have been used to explain this tension, including self-affirmation (Steele, 1988), cognitive dissonance (Festinger, 1957) and moral disengagement (Bandura, 1999). Entitled individuals, either at a conscious or subconscious level, are torn between accepting outcomes that they find disappointing, but are perhaps socially` fair, and expecting outcomes that are more favorable, even if that requires engaging in cognitive bias.

Zitek and Jordan (2021) conducted an empirical examination that helps to illuminate the role of motivated reasoning plays in psychological entitlement. Typically, when people encounter undesirable outcomes that cannot be blamed on anything but bad luck, they respond with low intensity, negatively valenced emotions, such as disappointment (Zeelenberg, Van Dijk, Manstead, & van der Pligt, 2000). However, when one feels that they have been treated unfairly, either by manipulating procedural justice to actually be unfair (Krehbiel & Cropanzano, 2000) or by the individual engaging in motivated reasoning to bias what a “fair” outcome should be (Zitek & Jordan, 2021), the reaction to undesirable outcomes is much more intense, akin to anger or outrage. Across three studies, Zitek and Jordan (2021) demonstrated that entitled individuals respond to bad outcomes with high intensity emotions, like anger, even when the result is not caused by anyone else. In fact, entitlement was not correlated with anger when bad luck happened to someone else, or when recalling an unfair event (Zitek & Jordan, 2021). Entitled people would react this way if there was some internal tension between the outcomes they want and how they want to see themselves (Tsang, 2002).

***Proposition 2:*** *Highly entitled individuals will demonstrate more rationalized expectations than individuals demonstrating low levels of entitlement.*

### **Self-Serving Attributions**

Rationalization can occur in multiple ways, such as by depersonalizing the victim of one's behavior or by fragmenting one's identity (Tsang, 2002), but the method most commonly used by entitled individuals is to engage in the cognitive bias known as self-serving attributions (Harvey & Martinko, 2009). Maintaining a self-serving attribution style means believing that good outcomes are the cause of one's own actions, while undesirable outcomes are the result of outside factors like other people or bad luck (Zuckerman 1979). This attribution style can act as both a buffer against attacks to one's ego and as a justification for biased expectations. When undesirable events are believed to be caused by outside forces, the individual fails to accept responsibility (Weiner, 1985), thereby protecting their positive self-view from potential attack. Also, attributing positive outcomes to oneself in a biased manner can rationalize the expectation of receiving the majority, if not the entirety, of positive consequences. Harvey and Martinko (2009) found that entitlement, as measured by Derber's 1978 job entitlement scale, was significantly related to a self-serving attribution style, and that predicted reduced job satisfaction and increased conflict with supervisor. Interestingly, since Harvey and Martinko measured entitlement and attribution style separately, they found that attribution style fully mediated the relationship between entitlement and job satisfaction, partially mediated the relationship between entitlement and conflict with supervisor and did not mediate the significant relationship between entitlement and turnover intent. It is important to remember that in this study entitlement significantly predicted each of the criterion variables, and it was the attribution style of subjects that varied in the extent to which it captured the variance of entitlement. This pattern of findings could be explained by entitlement having multiple facets with differential predictive power, such that attributional style is related to job satisfaction, but not to turnover intent.

Another interesting finding in the Harvey and Martinko (2009) paper that is often overlooked is the relationship that a participants' need for cognition has with entitlement and their attribution style. Need for cognition, defined as "a need to understand and make reasonable the experiential world" (Cohen, Stotland, & Wolfe, 1955, p.291), partially mediated the relationship between entitlement and attributional style. Entitlement still had a direct effect on attribution style over and above need for cognition. This pattern could be explained if entitled people were trying to rationalize their expectations, and the less one thinks about motivated reasoning the easier it is to believe. Entitled people don't necessarily need to have a reduced need for cognition, but it might make it easier when rationalizing unfair expectations. This would explain the strong effects, while still only partially mediating the relationships.

Going back to when entitlement was more often researched as a facet of narcissism (Emmons, 1984; Raskin & Terry, 1988), there is a history of self-serving attributions in that literature as well (Farwell & Wohlwend-Lloyd, 1998; Stucke, 2003). The previous work highlighted the role of self-importance, personal control and a sense of optimism has on forming self-serving attributions. It follows, then that there could be significant overlap between a sense of entitlement and self-serving attributions as well. To determine the legitimacy of these claims, it will be important to operationalize this construct using self-serving attributions as a dimension.

***Proposition 3:** Highly entitled individuals will be more likely to maintain a self-serving attributional style than individuals demonstrating low levels of entitlement.*

### **Perceived Victimization**

The final component of psychological entitlement is the entitled individual's perceived victimization. As described above, entitled individuals hold biased attributions and rationalize their expectations, which can leave them vulnerable to conflict with others. This vulnerability has been described theoretically (Grubbs & Exline, 2017) and tested empirically (Hochwarter et

al., 2007). There has also been a link shown between interpersonal conflict and feeling entitled, going back to Freud (1930/2015) observing a link between people who perceived themselves as having troubled childhoods felt that they did not need to endure any more of life's "disagreeable necessities" (p. 320). More recently, empirical and case studies have supported Freud's claim, showing that people feel entitled to special treatment more often when they grow up without a father (Shabad, 1993; Bishop & Lane, 2002), and individuals with disabilities feel more entitled to use alcohol and drugs than those without disabilities, and that relationship was moderated by the extent to which the participant felt wronged by their disability (Li & Moore, 2001).

Zitek, Jordan, Monin and Leach (2020) conducted three experiments to test whether feeling wronged, or perceiving oneself as a victim, makes individuals experience a sense of entitlement. Not only did they successfully induce a sense of entitlement by making participants feel like they have been wronged, first by recalling a time in their life that was unfair (Studies 1 and 2) and again by engaging in an unfair computer game (Study 3), they also found this sense of entitlement was related to self-serving intentions (Study 2) and self-serving behavior such as claiming more of a shared reward (Study 3). Additionally, Zitek and colleagues found that, while inducing a feeling of being wronged did increase feelings of anger, the relationship perceived victimization and entitlement have on selfish behavior was significant even when controlling for negative affect, anger, and frustration. Interestingly, these findings provide support for the claim that entitlement can be a recursive process, entitled individuals can feel victimized by others, and in turn feeling victimized by others can further entrench entitlement.

Additional support for this relationship can be found in the work of Jordin and Monin (2008). Across two studies, they found that participants elevated their own relative morality when they completed a tedious task and witnessed a confederate quit. However, when the

participant bolstered the resilience of their self-image before engaging in the tedious task by contemplating a valued personal quality, witnessing the confederate quit did not impact their sense of morality. Jordin and Monin (2008) argue that “when the self-interested rationality of people’s behavior is implicitly called into question by the more expedient behavior of others, people sometimes justify their choices by feeling more moral than those others” (p. 813). In other words, completing the tedious task, after seeing someone else quit, makes the participants feel taken advantage of, which threatens their self-image. If their self-image is not bolstered beforehand, participants will seek to rationalize their illogical behavior with an increased sense of moral superiority. While this research focused on morality as a form of rationalization, it is possible for this phenomenon to be broader than moral motivations. If people feel the need to justify or rationalize their situation in life every time they see the success of others, this would help to explain the connection between the rise of social media and many of societies current ills, such as mental health struggles, narcissism and entitlement (Twenge, Konrath, Foster, Campbell, & Bushman, 2008; Twenge & Foster, 2010).

***Proposition 4:** Highly entitled individuals will be more likely to perceive themselves as victims than individuals demonstrating low levels of entitlement.*

### **General Discussion**

Understanding entitlement and its cognitive effects is important in order to address the “curse potentially affecting a wide range of individuals” (Campbell, et al., 2004:30) known as entitlement. Without a proper understanding of the construct, there is little hope for research into effective interventions or managerial tactics. The Rationalized Entitlement Model (REM) is intended to accomplish four goals.

First, REM incorporates existing research in a way that is coherent and consistent. Despite the diversity of research paradigms applied to the study of entitlement, from clinical

psychology to management studies and beyond, I have yet to encounter any existing work that refutes the Rationalized Entitlement Model. This is made even more impressive by the diversity of outcomes as well. The dimensional approach to studying entitlement should provide more clarity and help explain the seemingly divergent outcomes associated with entitlement.

Second, the REM is operationalizable in order to explain observable phenomenon. Relative to other psychological constructs, entitlement is more observable given the way it manifests in interpersonal space. To that end, it is important to be able to operationalize entitlement for use in field studies that can explain the phenomenon observed in situ. Incorporating the work on trait entitlement, described in this manuscript, with the work on context situated entitlement (O’Leary-Kelly et al., 2017) should begin to provide some norms for what is “healthy” entitlement (Feather, 1999), and what is “excessive” entitlement (Fisk, 2010).

Third, REM should be able to test ways to minimize the maladaptive qualities of entitlement and/or maximize the beneficial outcomes of entitlement. This goes hand in hand with the first goal, given the diverging outcomes associated with entitlement. Knowing how to manage entitlement either in oneself or in others is of high value. Once entitlement is operationalized in a way that is consistent with REM, management tactics can begin to be tested. There is preliminary support for the role in perceived accountability as a tactic to manage entitlement and its effects in the workplace (Laird, Harvey, & Lancaster, 2015; Mackey, Brees, McAllister, Zorn, Martinko, & Harvey, 2016). Other potential tactics, such as developing individual differences like humility or gratitude, utilizing particular communications strategies, and reducing contextual antecedents of entitlement should also be tested with all haste (Harvey & Dasborough, 2015).

Finally, REM should further the scientific understanding of cognitive biases affecting human decision-making. Ideally, this is the beginning of a stream of research that provides significant academic contribution in many fields, but particularly to judgement and decision-making scholars. The answer to the question, “What do I deserve?” may never be fully resolved, but hopefully over time research can uncover a more robust response when someone disagrees with the consensus.

### **Limitations and Future Directions**

The Rationalized Entitlement Model provides a new perspective on psychological entitlement, but as with all new theories, there are limitations to address. First among them would be limitation of a theory that has not been operationalized. Until there is a way to measure entitlement, its dimensions and their relative nomological networks, this work will remain theoretical with limited practical use. It is when we measure entitlement that we can provide significant scientific and practical contributions. A robust scale validation, following best practices for social sciences (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Podsakoff, 2011; Hinkin, 1998; Colquitt, Sabey, Rodell, & Hill, 2019) should be conducted to test the propositions of this theory. If the theory is correct, scholars should find three dimensions, self-serving attributions, perceived victimization, and rationalization that are positively correlated, and load under a single higher-order factor of psychological entitlement. Ideally the measure would show proper psychometric properties at the factor level and the aggregate level, logical convergent, discriminant, and predictive validities at both levels, and good model fit statistics.

It is also worth noting, however, than even a valid scale of psychological entitlement built around an accurate understanding of the phenomenon will still most likely only be capturing a portion of the entire construct. It is unclear the extent to which an individual’s rationalization,

self-serving attributional bias, and perceived victimization occurs consciously and what proportion of the construct exists subconsciously. As previous literature as found, entitled individuals demonstrate a reduced need for cognition (Harvey & Martinko, 2009) which suggests that some of this process is manifesting beneath the conscious level. Incorporating subconscious measures, such as the Implicit Association Test (IAT), may help to capture an even more complete picture of psychological entitlement.

Another limitation of this theory is the research it is based upon is primarily cross-sectional. While the cross-sectional nature of prior research, and particularly the limitations of it, were crucial in reimagining the structure of entitlement, it is unquestionably a limitation as well. While not uncommon in our field, making claims regarding psychological processes using only cross-sectional data is limited at best. Longitudinal data of some kind would be vital to testing the veracity of the Rationalized Entitlement Model. Recent advances in longitudinal experimentation, such as the Integrated Daily Interactions Design, may provide excellent method for these tests.

Another piece of the entitlement puzzle revolves around the characteristics of entitlement individuals. If entitlement is multifaceted, and part of a self-reinforcing cycle, do all entitled people share the same characteristics? Does an entitled person who rationalizes self-serving attributions because of some underlying and persistent sense of victimhood have different characteristics than an entitled person who feels victimized from others who refuse to acquiesce to their rationalized self-serving attributional style? Where one enters the entitlement process may, or may not, influence the outcomes of entitlement. Using a method such as latent profile analysis (LPA) or fuzzy set qualitative comparative analysis (fsQCA) would uncover the profile

characteristics of highly entitled individuals, as well as resolving the debate of whether all entitled people are the same.

Finally, it is worth noting that the study of entitlement is still in its infancy, and making managerial decisions based on our limited knowledge of entitlement would be presumptuous. There are signs that entitlement may be part of a defensive mechanism that bolsters a temporary positive self-image (Baumeister & Vohs, 2001), and punishing a defensive mechanism without a full understand of its antecedents would be counterproductive. There have been calls to explore screening for entitlement in the workplace (Harvey & Dasborough, 2015), which may actually be harmful as it may further the entitled individual's sense of victimhood. This manuscript chooses to view entitlement from intra-psychological perspective, but others have conceptualized entitled as a group-situated phenomenon (O'Leary-Kelly et al., 2017) which would alter the managerial recommendations considerably. Until more is known about entitlement, managers should think carefully about the consequences of their decisions and would be wise to exercise caution in their actions.

### **Conclusion**

Psychological entitlement is a pervasive mindset with wide-ranging consequences. While this chapter focuses on the harmful effects of entitlement in the workplace, entitlement can also be highly maladaptive outside of it. Entitlement is linked to everything from increased willingness ignore instructions (Zitek & Jordan, 2019), increased willingness to take candy from children (Campbell et al., 2004), increased hostility in romantic relationships (Moeller, Crocker, & Bushman, 2009), and decreased job satisfaction from the entitled individual (Harvey & Martinko, 2009) and from their coworkers (Hochwarter et al., 2007). Entitlement is a critical social issue that appears to be escalating (Twenge et al., 2008; Twenge & Foster, 2010).

Paradoxically, entitlement is also correlated with higher self-efficacy (Neville & Fisk, 2019) and creativity (Zitek & Vincent, 2015; Liu & Zhou, 2020). Understanding the structure of entitlement is crucial for untangling these nuanced issues. The Rationalized Entitlement Model draws on a cross-disciplinary review of entitlement to begin clarifying the complex structure of entitlement. Hopefully, this framework provides fertile soil for future research.

## CHAPTER 2

### **On the Dimensionality of Psychological Entitlement: Validation of the Rationalized Entitlement Measure**

As intuitive psychologists, people are constantly judging whether they are receiving the treatment they deserve (Ross, 1977). From negotiating a salary to waiting for customer service, individuals ceaselessly judge whether their expectations are being met or not. Some people expect very little, whereas others expect to be treated unjustifiably well (Adams, 1964). Management scholars have long been interested in studying individuals with unjustifiably high expectations, due to the challenge of working with these entitled individuals. Scholars have created multiple instruments measuring individual differences in entitlement, from the equity sensitivity instrument (Huseman, Hatfield, & Miles, 1987) to the psychological entitlement scale (Campbell, Bonacci, Shelton, Exline, & Bushman, 2004).

One of the first steps in creating a scale is properly defining the construct (Hinkin, 1998; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Podsakoff, 2011). While many of these existing scales demonstrate solid psychometric properties, they were all created with definitions of entitlement that may lead to underrepresentation of important dimensions of psychological entitlement's content domain. For instance, the definition of entitlement used while generating the psychological entitlement scale was "a stable and pervasive sense that one deserves more and is entitled to more than others." (Campbell et al., 2004:31). This definition gives little guidance regarding the content domain of the construct. See Jordan, Ramsay, and Westerlaken's (2017) review of entitlement for more definitions of entitlement used in social science research.

This chapter introduces a new measure of psychological entitlement that, for the first time, captures the nuanced dimensionality of an entitled mindset. In addition to typical tests such

as reliability, convergent, and discriminant validities, the Rationalized Entitlement Measure (REM) demonstrates incremental predictive validity above and beyond the capability of existing scales, such as the psychological entitlement scale. The source of this new precision comes from the ability to accurately capture the dimensions of entitlement, as described in rationalized entitlement theory.

Rationalized entitlement theory attempts to explain why some people feel entitled to more than would seem justifiable. It conceptualizes entitlement as a mindset, or established set of attitudes held by someone, consisting of a tendency to rationalize expectations, hold self-serving attributions and perceive oneself as a victim. This chapter documents the iterative process of generating and validating a measure of entitlement, the rationalized entitlement measure (REM), in accordance with best practices in the social sciences (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Podsakoff, 2011; Hinkin, 1998; Nunally & Bernstein, 1994). The REM is validated using a pre-study sample as well as three samples dedicated to this project. It uses distinct samples to conduct exploratory factor analysis (Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, & Strahan, 1999) and confirmatory factor analysis (Bentler, 1990), as well as test psychometric considerations such as internal consistency (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955) and factor structure (Field, 2013). The REM also demonstrates adequate reliability, convergent, discriminant, and incremental predictive validity above and beyond the Psychological Entitlement Scale by Campbell and colleagues (2004).

### **Literature Review**

Over time, the operationalization of psychological entitlement has evolved considerably. In the 20<sup>th</sup> century, entitlement scales were either not originally intended to measure entitlement as a standalone construct, such as the entitlement subscale of the Narcissistic Personality Inventory (NPI) (Raskin & Terry, 1988), or were created to measure a very specific

manifestation of entitlement, such as the Job Entitlement Scale (Derber, 1978). Each of these scales struggled to consistently demonstrate sound psychometric properties for various reasons. The Job Entitlement Scale (Derber, 1978) attempts to measure with 4 items, including “The amount of time, money and effort I expended in school entitles me to a very good job”, and “If there are no jobs available in your chosen occupation, do you agree or disagree that the government has a responsibility to either create a job in this area or retrain you for another career of your choice.” Putting aside item response theory, it is also apparent that the Derber scale suffers from limited generalizability. In other words, while it can be useful to measure one’s feelings of deservedness towards receiving a job after earning a college degree, it may not be a very useful predictor of entitlement beliefs outside of that context. The Narcissistic Personality Inventory (NPI), and the various measures of narcissistic personality disorder that followed from it, have been shown to be valid measures as a whole, but the entitlement subscale has struggled to demonstrate consistently sound psychometric properties (for a review, see Ackerman, Witt, Donnellan, Trzesniewski, Robins, & Kashy, 2011; Campbell et al., 2004).

The Psychological Entitlement Scale, or PES (Campbell et al., 2004), was the first well validated scale developed to measure a general sense of psychological entitlement. Its validity has been demonstrated many times by the multiple research teams that have used it in their own work. The success of the PES has led to a surge of entitlement research and has even inspired domain-specific measures of entitlement such as the Academic Entitlement Questionnaires (AEQ) (Chowning & Campbell, 2009; Kopp, et al., 2011) and the Measure of Employee Entitlement (MEE) (Westerlaken, et al., 2017). The PES was designed in a pragmatic way, however, and did not attempt to create a theoretical explanation of entitlement beyond the theoretical paradigm of entitlement as a facet of narcissism laid out in prior narcissism research.

Instead, it focused on multiple studies using empirical, observable criterion that demonstrated high face-validity as outcomes of entitlement, such as taking candy intended for children or being dissatisfied with pay. The focus on results over theory, while appropriate given the stage of entitlement research at the time and the goals of the PES, allows for the possibility that the PES fails to fully capture the entire domain of entitlement. These new entitlement scales, such as the AEQ and MEE, implicitly or explicitly acknowledge this fact (MacKenzie et al., 2011; Westerlaken, et al., 2017; Kopp, et al., 2011; Jordan et al., 2017). However, these scales also tend to lack robust theories of entitlement that inform item generation consistently. Instead, they define entitlement inductively from interpreting item loadings during a factor analysis, which leads to a variety of differing conceptualizations of entitlement in their scales and often fails to resolve the theoretical issues underpinning entitlement research. The process involved in developing the Rationalized Entitlement Measure (REM), detailed below, has resulted in a measure whose factor structure is derived theoretically, and then tested empirically. The result of this process is a scale that accurately captures the full content domain of entitlement, and in so doing resolves multiple debates surrounding psychological entitlement research.

### **Research Design**

The Rationalized Entitlement Measure (REM) was developed and validated using Hinkin's (1998) scale development process, which includes six steps that can be divided into two parts. The first part of the scale development process contains three steps: 1) *Item Generation*, 2) *Questionnaire Administration*, and 3) *Initial Item Reduction*. This is often an iterative process (Hinkin, 1998), and the first three samples in this chapter describe how this process was conducted for the REM. After that, the final steps of the scale development process can be considered together as the validation of the scale. According to Hinkin (1998), these steps

should include: 4) *Confirmatory Factor Analysis*, 5) *Convergent/ Discriminant Validity*, and 6) *Replication*. In the fourth sample of this chapter, I use these steps to guide my process. I begin by using confirmatory factor analysis, among other analyses, to test the reliability of the Rationalized Entitlement Measure. Next, I split Step 5, *convergent and discriminant validity*, into their own separate analyses to provide adequate explanation of the processes. While Step 6, *replication*, is beyond the scope of Chapter 2, Chapter 3 uses the REM again and finds it to be a valid measure of entitlement in the workplace. In addition to the validation tests suggested by Hinkin (1998), I also test the incremental predictive validity of the Rationalized Entitlement Measure over and above the existing Psychological Entitlement Scale using a series of hierarchical linear regressions. The structure of this chapter is chronological, in that the first section discusses the first sample gathered and the last section discusses the final sample gathered. The structure also follows the steps of Hinkin's scale development process, however the first three steps, item generation to item reduction, is iterated upon multiple times before arriving at the final three steps, the scale validation steps.

### **Hypotheses Development**

While it is vital to thoroughly describe the process of creating the scale, and that will be done in the description of the first three samples below, it is the process of validating the scale that involve testing Hypotheses. These hypotheses and their relevance will now be described.

The Rationalized Entitlement Measure is derived from the rationalized entitlement theory described in Chapter 1 and therefore should demonstrate certain specific characteristics. First, the overall measure should have a clean factor structure with three first order dimensions loading onto a single, higher-order latent construct, as well as demonstrating good psychometric properties regarding model fit statistics and internal consistency. This is Step 4 of Hinkin's

(1998) process for scale development, which tests whether the REM demonstrates adequate reliability.

***Hypothesis 1.** The Rationalized Entitlement Measure demonstrates adequate reliability as demonstrated by adequate factor structure, internal consistencies, and model fit statistics.*

Second, in accordance with Step 5 of Hinkin's process for scale development, the aggregate scale should demonstrate convergent validity both internally with itself and externally with the Psychological Entitlement Scale. It can do this internally by following the recommendations in MacKenzie et al., (2011) which are described later in this chapter. It can demonstrate convergent validity externally by showing a significant positive correlation with the PES. This positive correlation demonstrates external convergent validity by showing that each overall scale is measuring the same construct, psychological entitlement.

***Hypothesis 2.** The Rationalized Entitlement Measure demonstrates adequate convergent validity internally with itself and externally with the Psychological Entitlement Scale.*

Third, and also a part of Step 5 of Hinkin's (1998) process for scale development, the measure should demonstrate adequate discriminant validity in two ways. Much like convergent validity, discriminant validity can be demonstrated internally and externally. Internally, subfactors of entitlement should demonstrate discriminant validity from each other by demonstrating that each factor has a unique nomological network. One way this can be done is by testing whether each factor has differential predictive abilities when regressing a series of criterion variables. Showing that each dimension is unique from the others justifies the facet's existence. Externally, the overall scale should demonstrate discriminant validity by being negatively correlated with measures of constructs that are theoretically opposed to entitlement, such as gratitude. Sufficient internal and external discriminant validity will provide further evidence in favor of the rationalized entitlement measure.

***Hypothesis 3.** The Rationalized Entitlement Measure demonstrates adequate discriminant validity internally between the subfactors, and externally from opposing constructs.*

Fourth and finally, entitlement should demonstrate incremental predictive ability beyond the current recommended measure of entitlement, the Psychological Entitlement Scale (PES). This is beyond the scope of Hinkin's (1998) process for scale development, however it is appropriate given the fact that a scale of entitlement already exists that doesn't show inherent psychometric weakness. This test is the strongest test of content (in)adequacy for the PES, since if the PES adequately captures the full domain of entitlement, then it should show a similar pattern of correlations as the rationalized entitlement measure (REM). If the REM predicts constructs that the PES should but does not, then that would demonstrate support for the PES lacking some part of the content domain captured by REM.

***Hypothesis 4.** The Rationalized Entitlement Measure demonstrates incremental predictive ability above and beyond the Psychological Entitlement Scale.*

Taken together, if these four Hypotheses are supported, it will provide strong support for the Rationalized Entitlement Measure (REM) as a valid measure of psychological entitlement.

### **Pre-study Sample: Initial Item Generation**

Prior to gathering data specifically for this study, data was gathered for an unpublished study that now holds value for this endeavor. In that study, two PhD students and a tenured professor generated 89 potential entitlement items intending to reflect entitlement across five dimensions. In addition to containing a facet of each of the dimensions of organizational justice used in Colquitt's organizational justice scale (Colquitt, 2001), namely distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational, entitlement was also conceptualized as containing a facet of superiority. While the hypothesized factor structure failed to materialize, the items themselves made for a rich place to begin creating an item pool to explore other potential factor structures of

entitlement. As part of the process of testing the *entitlement as an individual difference in justice expectations* model, the entitlement items generated were subjected to a Q-sort pretest (Anderson & Gerbing, 1991) by ten subject matter experts. Items were removed from the item pool if they were not adequately seen as entitlement based on results from the Q-sort task, or if they were too highly correlated with another item and deemed duplicative. An example of an item removed for being duplicative is “I am entitled to more benefits from the work I produce”, compared to the item “I deserve more credit for the work I produce”. An example of an item removed for not being within the content domain of entitlement is “I enjoy knowing secrets about my peers to gain the upper hand.” Two items were removed for being duplicative, and 12 items were removed as not being within the content domain of entitlement, per the results from the Q-sort. Seventy-five items were retained in the potential pool of survey items and became the basis for the first sample dedicated to this project.

### **Sample 1: Additional Item Generation and Initial Scale Reduction**

#### **Method**

Step 1 of Hinkin’s scale development process is the creation of items (Hinkin, 1998). This process can be deductive, where prior theory guides the generation of the initial set of items (Schwab, 1980), or inductive, where responses are categorized *post hoc* with a variety of methods, including factor analysis (Hunt, 1991). Sample 1 took an inductive approach to generating and interpreting items, as the sample was gathered before the development of rationalized entitlement theory. Seventy-two new items were added to the 75 items retained from the pre-study. The majority of these new items were adapted from existing scales such as nine items from the Psychological Entitlement Scale (Campbell et al., 2004), eight items from The Academic Entitlement Questionnaire (Chowning & Campbell, 2009), nine items from the self-

focus and excessive self-regard facets of the Measure of Employee Entitlement (Westerlaken et al., 2017), and six items from the entitlement subscale of the Narcissistic Personality Inventory (Raskin & Terry, 1988), as well as reverse-coded items from constructs that could be negatively correlated with entitlement, such as eight items from State-Trait Intellectual Humility scale (Zachry, Phan, Blackie, Jayawickreme, 2018), 20 items from faceted justice perceptions (Colquitt, 2001) and six items from an overall measure of organizational justice (Ambrose & Schminke, 2009). Six additional items were also written from scratch in an attempt to fully capture the domain of psychological entitlement. See the Appendix for the source of each item in the final Rationalized Entitlement Measure. The 72 new items, alongside the prior 75 items, created a potential item pool of 147 survey items. A sample size calculation for estimating Pearson's Correlation using an alpha value of .05, a beta value of .8, and an expected correlation of 0.6 with an estimated precision of .10 results in a recommended sample of at least 161 subjects, not accounting for attrition (Arifin, 2024). To ensure adequate power, two hundred participants were recruited to help inductively uncover the dimensions of entitlement using exploratory factor analysis and correlational analysis, as described below.

### ***Sample***

Two hundred participants were recruited via Prolific to respond to the 147 potential entitlement items. For each sample used for analysis in Chapters 2 and 3, the inclusion criteria, unless otherwise stated, required participants to be over 18 years old, working either full or part time, and speak English fluently. The exclusion criteria, unless otherwise stated, were failing one or more attention checks, an incomplete response resulting in missing data, or multiple responses from the same IP address. When a participant is found to violate one or more exclusion criteria, their data is deleted listwise. Eleven participants were removed for failing one or more attention

checks or submitting multiple responses from the same IP address, leaving a working sample of 189 subjects. Participant age ranged from 24 to 76 years old, with an average age of 43.27 years. Participants ranged in the length of time they were at their current job from 0.6 years to 32 years, with an average job tenure of 8.85 years. Of the 189 participants, 109 identified as male, which is 57.67% of the working sample.

### ***Procedure***

All analyses on all samples, including this one, were conducted using Stata/SE version 16.1. All relevant statistical tests in Chapters 2 and 3 use an alpha level, or Type I error rate, of .05. Sample size calculations are conducted online at <http://wnarifin.github.io> and use a beta value, or Type II error rate, of .2 to achieve power of 0.80. Also, unless otherwise stated, sample size calculations use the recommended medium effect size of .5 (Cohen, 1988). The first goal for this sample was to inductively uncover the dimensions of entitlement. To that end, principled components factor analysis was conducted with an unconstrained number of factors. While several factors had an eigenvalue above 1.0, a scree plot indicated a drop off at around 4 factors (Cattell, 1966). Keeping in mind the highest loading items of the first few factors, I returned to the literature to see what theoretical or conceptual explanations I could find. It was during this process that an early version of the dimensions of rationalized entitlement theory emerged, namely entitlement comprised of exaggerated expectations, perceived victimization, and self-serving attributions. Returning to the items that had been generated, I then categorized each as to whether they best represented expectations, self-serving attributions, or perceived victimization. I found that forty of the items best captured a self-serving attributional style, forty-six items captured perceived victimization, and sixty-one items captured a tendency to hold exaggerated expectations.

Given the large number of potential items, a first round of item elimination was based on multiple factors. Specifically, items were eliminated from the pool of potential items if 1) the item demonstrated excessive correlation with another item, indicating duplication between items in which case one of the two items was retained and any others removed, 2) during exploratory factor analysis, the item demonstrated low factor loading on the intended factor or high cross-loading between multiple factors (Ford, MacCallum, & Tait, 1986), 3) during exploratory factor analysis, the item demonstrated relatively high uniqueness compared to the other items representing the same dimension (Ford, et al., 1986), or 4) the item reduces the reliability of the relative facet scale, as measured by Cronbach's alpha, below 0.70 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Following these procedures resulted in the retention of fifteen items across three dimensions. Examining the retained items and further development of the theory of rationalized entitlement resulted in the updating of exaggerated expectations to rationalized expectations, finalizing the factor structure of rationalized entitlement theory.

Now that the dimensions of entitlement are more certain, the fit between the item pool and the content domain can be evaluated. It was clear that a larger item pool would be more likely to fully capture the intended content domain. To that end, 15 more items were generated and added to the 15 items retained from Sample 1. In the end, 30 potential items were carried forward to Sample 2, nine items pertaining to self-serving attributions, 11 items for rationalization and ten items for perceived victimization.

## **Sample 2: Final Item Reduction, Initial Factor Structure and Internal Consistencies**

### **Method**

#### *Sample*

To finalize Step 3 of Hinkin's (1998) scale development process, *item reduction*, as well as begin validating the scale, a new sample was recruited via Prolific. For this sample, a more conservative estimated correlation of .4 is used with a precision of .10, an alpha value of .05, and a beta value of .20, resulting in a recommended sample size of 274 participants (Arifin, 2024). To ensure adequate power, 325 participants were recruited. Participants needed to be fluent in English and working either full-time or part-time to be included. Of the 325 participants, 36 were removed from the sample due to failing to complete the full survey, failing one or more attention checks, or submitting multiple responses from the same IP address, leaving a working sample of 289. Descriptive statistics and correlations are provided in Table 1 below.

#### *Procedure*

The first goal with this sample was to finalize the scale reduction process. The potential item pool of 30 survey items were subjected to principal components factor analysis to assess the relative quality of each item. The analysis used a promax oblique rotation, using Stata's default kappa value of 3, due to the correlated nature of the three subfactors. Of the initial pool of 30 items, problematic indicators were eliminated in accordance with best practices, such as low factor loading, substantial cross-loading, or low internal consistency (Hinkin, 1988; MacKenzie et al., 2011, Nunally & Bernstein, 1994). The resulting scale includes a total of 11 items with

**Table 2-1***Sample 2: Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Matrix*

	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Dev.</b>	<b>Min</b>	<b>Max</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>8</b>
1 Entitlement	3.43	0.69	1.08	5.25	1.00							
2 Expectations	3.95	0.97	1.00	6.00	0.72	1.00						
3 Attributions	3.33	0.90	1.00	6.00	0.77	0.35	1.00					
4 Victimization	3.01	0.95	1.00	5.25	0.71	0.20	0.36	1.00				
5 Age	35.74	11.00	19.00	66.00	-0.12	-0.11	-0.07	-0.09	1.00			
6 Gender	0.50	0.50	0.00	1.00	-0.09	-0.07	-0.04	-0.07	0.01	1.00		
7 Race	0.68	0.47	0.00	1.00	-0.16	-0.22	-0.12	-0.01	0.21	-0.01	1.00	
8 Tenure	6.34	6.11	0.00	33.00	-0.04	-0.06	0.02	-0.05	0.55	0.14	0.11	1.00

Notes. N=298. For "Gender", male = 1, all others = 0. For "Race", white=1, all else=0. Correlations of 0.12 are significant at  $p<0.05$ ; 0.17 are significant at  $p<0.01$ ; 0.20 are significant at  $p<0.001$

three items representing rationalization, four items representing perceived victimization and four items for self-serving attributions, which has two items capturing internal attributions and two for external attributions. Given the *a priori* factor structure, principal components factor analysis was restricted to three factors, and all items loaded cleanly onto their intended factor, with no items cross-loading above 75% on any unintended factors (Field, 2013). The 11 scale items included in the final measure, and their relative factor loadings, are listed in Table 2 below

**Table 2-2**

*Sample 2: Factor Loadings from a Principal-Component Factor Analysis*

Item	Factor Loadings		
	Self-Serving Attributions	Perceived Victimization	Rationalized Expectations
I always contribute the most overall.	<b>0.626</b>	-0.061	0.314
Other people are usually more at fault than I am.	<b>0.765</b>	0.072	-0.059
Other people seem to make more mistakes than me overall.	<b>0.860</b>	-0.031	-0.109
When working in teams, I usually end up doing more than anyone else.	<b>0.712</b>	0.027	0.050
People tend to take advantage of my good nature.	0.000	0.055	<b>0.819</b>
People generally treat me worse than I deserve.	-0.080	-0.057	<b>0.754</b>
People generally don't take into account the things that make me special.	0.021	-0.036	<b>0.833</b>
The system is rigged against me.	0.110	<b>0.635</b>	0.022
I deserve things to go my way in life.	-0.018	<b>0.869</b>	-0.102
I deserve to know what's going on around me.	0.024	<b>0.752</b>	0.039
I have earned the right to receive what I want.	-0.087	<b>0.630</b>	0.114
Eigenvalue (unrotated)	3.502	1.685	1.321
Proportion of Variance Explained (unrotated)	0.318	0.153	0.120
Proportion of Variance Explained (rotated)	0.273	0.265	0.254

Notes: N=289.

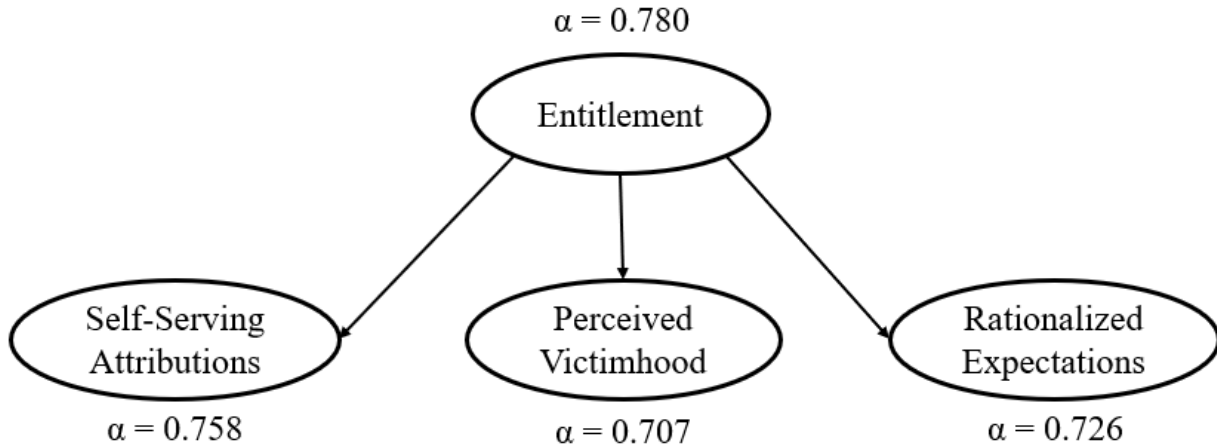
## Analysis and Results

With a completed scale, the reliability of the measure can now be assessed. Cronbach's alpha indicates the overall scale has an internal consistency of 0.780, which is considered good internal consistency. The internal consistencies of each subscale are as follows: Cronbach's alpha for rationalization is 0.726, alpha for self-serving attributions is 0.758, and the alpha for entitled victimization is 0.707. All results are considered adequate internal consistencies

(Nunally & Bernstein, 1994). See Figure 1 below for the internal consistencies of the aggregate scale and each subdimension.

**Figure 2-1**

*Sample 2: Structure of Rationalized Entitlement Measure with Internal Consistencies*



Sample 2 provided initial support for Hypothesis 1, that the rationalized entitlement measure (REM) would demonstrate adequate reliability. Specifically, sample 2 demonstrated that the REM was found to have appropriate factor loadings and good internal consistency. While the fit of the measurement model still needs to be confirmed, best practices are to use a unique sample to conduct the necessary confirmatory factor analysis for that test. To that end, another sample was gathered to assess model fit as well as test convergent, discriminant and predictive validities.

**Sample 3: Confirmation of Factor Structure, Internal Consistencies, and Model Fit as well as Initial Convergent, Discriminant, and Incremental Predictive Validities**

**Method**

*Sample*

To complete the final steps of Hinkin's (1998) scale development process, which tests the four hypotheses of this chapter and validates the Rationalized Entitlement Measure (REM) as a

**Table 2-3***Sample 3: Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Matrix*

		Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1	REM	3.34	0.79	1.00	5.50	1.00														
2	Expectations	3.87	1.09	1.00	6.00	0.77	1.00													
3	Attributions	3.16	0.95	1.00	6.00	0.78	0.49	1.00												
4	Victimization	2.98	1.10	1.00	6.00	0.70	0.23	0.33	1.00											
5	Age	38.66	12.03	19.00	75.00	-0.15	-0.09	-0.06	-0.19	1.00										
6	Gender	0.47	0.50	0.00	1.00	0.04	-0.02	0.10	0.02	-0.09	1.00									
7	Race	0.79	0.41	0.00	1.00	-0.16	-0.15	-0.08	-0.13	0.16	-0.05	1.00								
8	Tenure	6.08	5.66	0.00	32.00	-0.10	-0.01	-0.03	-0.17	0.43	0.06	0.04	1.00							
9	PES	3.16	1.28	1.00	7.00	0.66	0.67	0.55	0.27	-0.09	0.03	-0.17	-0.04	1.00						
10	Narcissism	2.19	0.96	1.00	5.00	0.33	0.30	0.23	0.21	-0.20	-0.05	-0.02	-0.19	0.37	1.00					
11	Justice	5.17	1.45	1.00	7.00	-0.16	0.03	-0.06	-0.33	0.15	-0.02	0.11	0.07	-0.01	-0.03	1.00				
12	Self Esteem	3.01	0.64	1.30	4.00	-0.16	0.08	0.10	-0.51	0.22	0.00	0.07	0.18	0.09	-0.15	0.34	1.00			
13	Victimhood	2.35	0.88	1.00	4.63	0.55	0.19	0.24	0.78	-0.18	0.00	-0.17	-0.15	0.24	0.14	-0.34	-0.57	1.00		
14	Turnover Intent	2.42	1.17	1.00	5.00	0.15	0.01	0.02	0.29	-0.18	0.03	-0.12	-0.22	0.06	0.14	-0.53	-0.29	0.36	1.00	
15	Gratitude	5.59	1.16	1.00	7.00	-0.35	-0.11	-0.18	-0.47	0.09	-0.17	0.11	0.09	-0.13	-0.04	0.35	0.55	-0.55	-0.21	1.00

Notes. N= 312. For "Gender", male=1, all else=0. For "Race", white=1, all else=0. Correlations with absolute value greater than .11 significant at  $p<.05$ , greater than .15 significant at  $p<.01$ , great than .19 significant at  $p<.001$

measure of psychological entitlement, a new sample was recruited via Prolific. Since this sample will be used for multiple types of analyses (e.g., correlational analyses, confirmatory factor analyses, etc.), the size of the sample will be determined by the largest of two calculations. First, the previous sample size calculation for estimating Pearson's Correlation was used to get a minimum sample size of 274. Next an additional sample size calculation was run to ensure adequate power when conducting confirmatory factor analysis based on root mean squared error of approximation using an expected RMSEA of .05, 11 items loading on four factors (three lower order and one higher order), an alpha value of .05, and a beta value of .20. This calculation recommends a sample size of 286 participants prior to attrition (Arifin, 2024), so to ensure adequate power across all tests, 350 participants were recruited. Again, participants needed to be fluent in English and working either full-time or part-time to participate in the survey. Of the 350 participants, 38 were removed from the sample due to failing to complete the full survey, failing one or more attention checks, or submitting multiple responses from the same IP address, leaving a working sample of 312. Descriptive statistics and correlations are provided in Table 3 below.

### *Procedure*

To assess the relative and absolute model fit of the Rationalized Entitlement Model (REM), Stata SE v.16's Generalized Structural Equation Modeling package was used to create a formal measurement model. Participants responded to multiple scales, capturing the full range of data needed to test the hypotheses in this chapter. The REM items were used for reliability tests, while the other measures were used for testing convergent, discriminant and incremental predictive validity.

### *Measures*

**Multidimensional Entitlement.** Multidimensional entitlement was captured with the proposed Rationalized Entitlement Measure (REM). The REM uses a six-point response format (1 = strong disagreement to 6 = strong agreement) that does not contain a neutral middle point. The measure has eleven items in total, spread across three dimensions. The first dimension, rationalization, has three items, including “I have earned the right to receive what I want” and “I deserve to know what’s going on around me”. In this sample, the internal consistency of rationalization subdimension is 0.81. The second dimension, self-serving attributions, is represented with four items, including “Other people are usually more at fault than I am” and “When working in teams, I usually end up doing more than anyone else”. The internal consistency of self-serving attribution items is 0.75. The third dimension, perceived victimization, also has four items such as “People tend to take advantage of my good nature” and “The system is rigged against me”. The internal consistency for victimization subdimension is 0.81, and the internal consistency of the aggregate scale is 0.82.

**Unidimensional Entitlement.** Unidimensional entitlement was captured with Campbell et al.’s (2004) Psychological Entitlement Scale. The PES uses a seven-point response format (1 = strong disagreement to 7 = strong agreement). The scale has nine items in total. Examples of items include “People like me deserve an extra break now and then” and “I feel entitled to more of everything.” Internal consistency for this scale was 0.89.

**Narcissism.** Narcissism was captured with the narcissism dimension of Jonason & Webster’s (2010) Dirty Dozen scale of dark triad tendencies. The Narcissism dimension is captured with 4 of the 12 items in the dirty dozen scale, including “I tend to want others to admire me” and “I tend to expect special favors from others”. The internal consistency for this subscale was 0.82.

**Justice Perceptions.** Justice perceptions were measured with Ambrose & Schminke's (2009) Perceived Overall Justice scale. This is a six-item direct measure of perceived fairness and uses a seven-point response format (1 = strong disagreement to 7 = strong agreement). Examples of items include "Overall, I'm treated fairly by my organization." and "For the most part, this organization treats its employees fairly." Internal consistency for this scale was 0.95.

**Self Esteem.** Self-esteem was measured with the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (1965). This is a ten-item measure of self-esteem that uses a four-point response format (0=Strongly Disagree to 3 = Strongly Agree). Examples of items include "I feel that I am a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others" and "I take a positive attitude toward myself". Typical scores on the Rosenberg scale are around 22, with a score of less than 15 suggesting low self-esteem may be an issue. Internal consistency for this scale was 0.92.

**Victimhood.** Victimhood was measured with the perceived victimhood scale (Armaly & Enders, 2021), which is a measure of an individual's perception of systemic and personal victimhood. It uses a five-point rating system (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree). Examples of items include "The world is out to get me." and "Great things never come to me." Internal consistency was 0.89.

**Turnover intentions.** Turnover intentions are captured with the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, & Klesh, 1979), modified to refer to the vignette. This is a ten-item measure of turnover intentions that uses a five-point response format (1= strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree). Examples of items include "I would seriously consider leaving my organization" and "I would actively look for another job." Cronbach's alpha for the scale is 0.95.

**Gratitude.** Gratitude was measured with McCullough, Emmons and Tsang's (2002) Grateful Questionnaire (GQ-6). This six-item measure uses a seven-point response format (1 strong disagreement to 7 = strong agreement). Examples of items include "I have so much in life to be thankful for" and "I am grateful to a wide variety of people." The internal consistency for this scale in this sample is 0.88.

**Additional Controls.** Given that we are using cross-sectional survey data, existing differences between participants may be influencing the relationships of interest. To mitigate this possibility, four control variables were included to account for individual differences. Self-reported age, gender, race, and tenure at current job were captured to use as control variables. For each regression, all four control variables were included first to ensure that the variance explained by the control variables would be partialled out prior to capturing the relationships of interest. Results are reported with and without control variables for maximum transparency.

## **Analysis and Results**

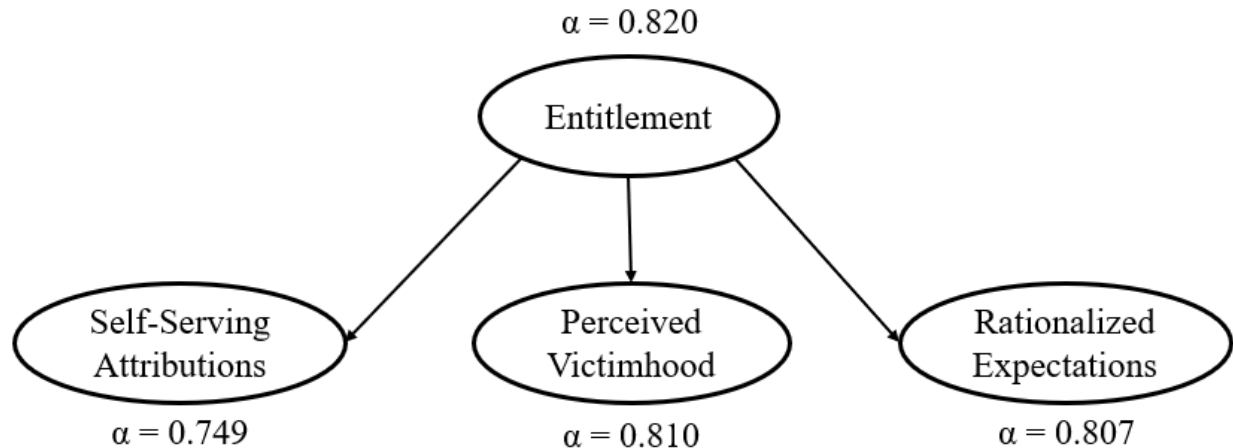
### ***Factor Structure and Internal Consistencies***

With a new sample comes an opportunity to test whether the findings from Sample 2 could be duplicated, namely a clean factor structure and adequate internal consistency both for the aggregate scale and for each subdimension of entitlement. Conducting principal components factor analysis with an oblique rotation (kappa value equal to 3) results in three factors with an eigen value above 1. Each item loads cleanly onto the intended factor with no cross-loading above 0.25. Calculating Cronbach's alpha results in the following results for internal consistency: the alpha for the aggregate scale is 0.820, alpha for perceived victimization is 0.810, alpha for self-serving attributions is 0.749, and alpha for rationalization is 0.807. These are all adequate values (Bernstein & Nunally, 1994) and serve to reinforce the evidence in support of

Hypothesis 1. See Figure 2 below for the internal consistencies of the aggregate scale and each subdimension.

**Figure 2-2**

*Sample 3: Structure of Rationalized Entitlement Measure with Internal Consistencies*



**Model Fit**

Structural equation modeling was used to calculate the absolute and relative model fits statistics, finishing Step 4 of Hinkin's (1998) process for scale development, and providing full support for Hypothesis 1. As was theorized *a priori*, the measurement model should be best represented with three first-order latent constructs, which are rationalization, self-serving attributions, and entitled victimization. These three latent constructs form a higher order factor of psychological entitlement.

The model demonstrated adequate fit, using both absolute and relative fit statistics. Absolute model fit statistics tell us whether the model fits the data acceptably well, regardless of alternative models. The Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) is one common method for measuring absolute model fit. Prior research indicates that an ideal RMSEA value would be below 0.06, and any RMSEA value below 0.08 demonstrates acceptable model fit (Fabrigar, et al., 1999). The Root Mean Square Error of Approximation for the model is 0.075,

which is acceptable. Another measure of absolute model fit is the Comparative Fit Index (CFI), where values range from 0 to 1, and scores closer to 1 demonstrate good model fit. An ideal value would be above 0.95, and any value above 0.90 is considered good (Bentler, 1990). The CFI for this model is 0.943, which is easily within the acceptable range.

Beyond absolute model fit statistics, relative model fit statistics test whether this model fits the data better than alternative models. Examples of relative model fit statistics include comparing information criterion scores for differing models and comparing changes in the CFI value for differing models. For information criterion tests, lower values indicate significantly better model fit (Wang & Bodner, 2007). The single-factor measurement model where all 11 items are loaded onto a single factor is the worst fitting model and has AIC, BIC, and CFI values of 10918.02, 11041.54, and .559 respectively. The AIC, BIC and CFI of a measurement model that uses three-factors, but does not have a higher order factor, are 10560.53, 10684.05, and .803, respectively. Next, 10588.50, 10719.50, and .825 are the AIC, BIC, and CFI values of a two-factor model that combines rationalization and self-serving attributions, the two factors with the highest correlation, into one dimension and leaves victimization as a second dimension. Finally, the AIC, BIC, and CFI values of the proposed measurement model using three-factors loading onto a single higher order factor, are 10443.53, 10578.28, and .943 respectively, which indicate the best fit of the data of the models tested. See Table 4 for results from comparison of measurement models. Results indicate the Rationalized Entitlement Measure demonstrates acceptable model fit statistics using confirmatory factor analysis, minimal cross-loading using principal components analysis, and adequate reliability as measured by Cronbach's alpha for both the subscales and the overall scale. These findings provide full support for Hypothesis 1.

**Table 2-4**  
*Sample 3: Relative and Absolute Model Fit Statistics*

<b>Solution</b>	$\chi^2$	df	$\chi^2/df$	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	$\Delta CFI$	AIC	BIC
Single Higher Order (HO) Factor	592.60	44	13.47	0.200	0.449	0.559	N/A	10918.02	11041.54
Two factors without HO Factor	289.02	43	6.721	0.134	0.754	0.803	0.244	10614.43	10737.95
Two factors with HO Factor	259.09	41	6.32	0.129	0.771	0.825	0.022	10588.50	10719.50
Three factors without HO Factor	235.12	41	5.73	0.118	0.808	0.846	0.021	10560.53	10684.05
Hypothesized model (3 factors with HO)	112.12	38	2.95	0.075	0.923	0.943	0.097	10443.53	10578.28

In addition to assessing reliability, model fit indices were used to assess the configural, age-based measurement invariance of the REM. Measurement invariance tests whether the items in the REM are capturing the same variance for different groups, in this case age. Age was captured on a continuum measured in years since birth but needed to be transformed into a categorical variable in order to run the group-based measurement invariance analyses. To accomplish this, any participant older than the mean age of the sample, 38.66 years, was given a value of one, and anyone younger than the mean was given a value of zero. Next, configural measurement invariance was evaluated based on the overall fit of a multi-group measurement model and found to be adequate with a RMSEA of 0.068 and a CFI of 0.942 (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Next, nested-model comparisons are used to assess the metric and scalar measurement invariance of the measure. Metric measurement invariance compares the fit of a model with constrained factor loadings between groups, and scalar invariance compares the fit using constrained factor loadings and intercepts between groups. If the model fit statistics, specifically the RMSEA and CFI in this case, differ between the two models by more than 0.15 in the case of RMSEA and 0.10 in the case of CFI, that indicates that the model is noninvariant between groups, requiring further analysis (Chen, 2007). Parallel structural equation models were run, each using a subset of the sample based on the grouping variable of age, dichotomized above and below the mean. While the parallel structural equation models necessary to evaluate metric and

scalar measurement invariance failed to converge, the configural measurement invariance gave no indication that there is significant variation between groups. Further analysis may provide more definitive evidence of measurement invariance for the REM.

### ***Convergent Validity***

Step 5 of Hinkin's (1998) process for scale development begins with convergent validity. This gives rise to Hypothesis 2, which states that the rationalized entitlement measure will display adequate convergent validity. Convergent validity was measured in two ways, internally and externally. First, the convergent validity of the measure was assessed internally by testing the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) for each of the first-order, reflective subdimensions and then using those AVE results to calculate an overall adequacy coefficient (Edwards, 2001; MacKenzie et al., 2011). The AVE is calculated by averaging the squared factor loadings for each of the items in a given subscale. AVE values above 0.5 indicate convergent validity at the first order construct level. All three subscales had AVE above 0.5, ranging from 0.53 to 0.68. Next, Edwards' adequacy coefficient (Edwards, 2001; MacKenzie et al., 2011) for the second order construct was calculated to ensure that the rationalized entitlement measure displays convergent validity internally at the aggregate level. The Edwards' adequacy coefficient from REM is 0.62, which supports the claim that REM displays internal convergent validity at the second-order level as well.

After establishing convergent validity internally, it is important to establish external convergent validity, where the REM is correlated with another scale that should be measuring the same construct. This was assessed using correlational analysis. Specifically, the correlation between the rationalized entitlement measure (REM) and the psychological entitlement scale (PES) is 0.63, which is strong and positive. Given the support for the PES being a valid measure

of psychological entitlement, the strong correlation provides support for the REM demonstrating external convergent validity, which provides enough evidence needed to claim full support for Hypothesis 2. See Table 3 for correlational results.

### ***Discriminant Validity***

The other aspect to Step 5 of Hinkin's (1998) scale development process relates to discriminant validity. For this reason, Hypothesis 3 states that the rationalized entitlement measure will display adequate discriminant validity. This should be done in two ways, first by showing adequate internal discriminant validity, where the first-order facets of entitlement are shown to capture unique concepts by having idiosyncratic nomological networks. Next, external discriminant validity can be demonstrated by showing that REM is negatively correlated with constructs that it should be theoretically opposed to, such as gratitude. Hypothesis 3 will be fully supported by showing adequate internal and external discriminant validity.

By internal discriminant validity, I refer to whether the subscales of REM have unique predictive relationships from each other, thereby providing evidence of discriminant validity with the other factors. If this is shown, it will provide support for the claim that the three dimensions of entitlement are not capturing the same thing and deserve to exist as independent facets, thus providing initial support for Hypothesis 3. To test for internal discriminant validity, a series of three regressions were run, each using a different dependent variable, listed next, and the three dimensions of entitlement as the independent variables. Analysis was conducted with and without controls and both are reported in Table 5 below. To determine whether rationalization has unique predictive capabilities beyond that of self-serving attributions and perceived victimization, the Narcissism subscale of the Dirty Dozen scale of dark triad tendencies was used as the dependent variable. To determine the uniqueness of self-serving

**Table 2-5**  
*Sample 3: Regressions Demonstrating Discriminant Validity Amongst Dimensions*

	<i>Dependent Variable: Narcissism</i>						<i>Dependent Variable: Self-Esteem</i>						<i>Dependent Variable: Victimhood</i>					
	<i>Excluding Controls</i>			<i>Including Controls</i>			<i>Excluding Controls</i>			<i>Including Controls</i>			<i>Excluding Controls</i>			<i>Including Controls</i>		
	<i>β</i>	<i>Std. Err.</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>β</i>	<i>Std. Err.</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>β</i>	<i>Std. Err.</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>β</i>	<i>Std. Err.</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>β</i>	<i>Std. Err.</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>β</i>	<i>Std. Err.</i>	<i>p</i>
Rationalization	0.20	0.05	0.000	0.20	0.05	0.000	0.06	0.031	0.070	0.06	0.031	0.054	0.02	0.033	0.555	0.01	0.033	0.788
Attributions	0.07	0.06	0.260	0.09	0.06	0.175	0.17	0.037	0.000	0.17	0.037	0.000	-0.03	0.039	0.429	-0.03	0.039	0.518
Victimization	0.11	0.05	0.024	0.08	0.05	0.115	-0.36	0.028	0.000	-0.34	0.029	0.000	0.64	0.030	0.000	0.63	0.031	0.000
Age				-0.01	0.00	0.035				0.01	0.003	0.024				0.00	0.003	0.513
Gender				-0.12	0.10	0.267				0.00	0.059	0.963				-0.04	0.064	0.497
Race				0.12	0.13	0.355				0.01	0.073	0.912				-0.14	0.078	0.071
Tenure				-0.02	0.01	0.066				0.00	0.006	0.505				0.00	0.006	0.970
Intercept	0.84	0.226	0.000	1.38	0.32	0.000	3.32	0.129	0.000	3.00	0.186	0.000	0.48	0.137	0.001	0.73	0.199	0.000

*Note.* N=312

attributions, self-esteem was regressed as the dependent variable. For entitled victimization, Armaly and Enders' (2021) perceived victimhood scale was regressed. See the measures section above for a more detailed description of these scales. Table 5 below provides the results of these three regressions, which will be discussed next.

Each of the three subscales were found to be significant, positive predictors of the target construct. Results were generally found to be robust regardless of whether controls are included, and the results described in text do not include controls but Table 5 displays results with and without controls for maximum transparency. For narcissism, rationalization was found to be a significant predictor ( $\beta=0.20$ ,  $p<0.001$ ). Engaging in self-serving attributions was found to be the only positive predictor of self-esteem ( $\beta =0.17$ ,  $p<0.001$ ), with perceived victimization being negatively related to self-esteem ( $\beta = -0.36$ ,  $p<0.001$ ). For a manipulation check as much as a validity test, perceived victimization as measured by the REM was found to be the only facet to significantly predict perceived victimhood ( $\beta =0.64$ ,  $p<0.001$ ). These three regressions provide initial support for Hypothesis 3.

When testing the validity of a new scale, it is also important to demonstrate external discriminant validity, where the scale as a whole is negatively related to constructs that it should be theoretically opposed to. For entitlement, one such construct would be gratitude. Gratitude, or feeling appreciative of a positive personal outcome that is due to the actions of another person (Emmons & Shelton, 2001), stands in stark contrast to entitlement. Where entitled individuals often feel that they are the cause of all of their successes and it is other people who make mistakes and victimize the entitled individual, grateful people recognize that the benefits in their life are due to the actions of other people. It would make sense that entitled people feel lower levels of gratitude generally, and grateful people are unlikely to engender an entitled mindset,

thus resulting in a negative correlation between the two constructs. When this is tested, we find that gratitude and entitlement, as measured by the rationalized entitlement measure, have a correlation of  $-0.365$  ( $p < 0.001$ ), which is a highly significant, substantially negative correlation. See Table 3 for correlational results. Hypothesis 3 is fully supported by demonstrating adequate discriminant validity internally between the facets and externally with related constructs.

### ***Incremental Predictive Validity***

Testing Hypothesis 4 requires demonstrating incremental predictive validity, which is important in order to show that the rationalized entitlement measure can predict outcomes better than that of the PES, thereby justifying the creation of a new scale.

To test Hypothesis 4, it makes sense to explore relationships that the PES should have with other constructs, but empirical evidence has not shown up in the literature yet. For example, many scholars have predicted a relationship between psychological entitlement and justice perceptions (Fisk, 2010; Grubbs & Exline, 2016; Harvey, Harris, Gillis, & Martinko, 2014; Harvey & Martinko, 2009; Hochwarter, Meurs, Perrew, Royle, and Matherly, 2007; Jordan et al., 2017; Lerner, 1987; Tomlinson, 2012; Zitek & Jordan, 2020). Unfortunately, empirical links between the psychological entitlement scale and justice perceptions are yet to emerge. To explore the relationship between psychological entitlement and justice, hierarchical regression analysis was conducted using three regressions (see Table 6 at end of this section for results). First, a regression was run that included justice, as measured by the Perceived Overall Justice scale (Ambrose & Schminke, 2009) as the dependent variable and entitlement, as measured by the PES (Campbell et al., 2004), as the sole independent variable. The regression was run with and without using controls (i.e., age, gender, race, and job tenure) and the results were robust to either method. The PES was not a significant predictor of perceived justice. One

interpretation of these results would be that entitlement does not play a role in justice perceptions. Another interpretation could be that there are aspects of entitlement that are included in the many theoretical manuscripts that link entitlement and justice that is not being captured by the PES. To determine which interpretation is correct, perceived overall justice was regressed on entitlement again, but this time using the Rationalized Entitlement Measure (REM). Again, the regression was run with and without controls, and found to be robust. Results in text include controls, and results without controls are available upon request. Results indicate the REM is a significant predictor of perceived justice ( $\beta = -0.24$ ,  $p=0.025$ ).

To explore what is driving the discriminant results between the PES and REM, a third regression was conducted. This regression also used perceived overall justice as the dependent variable but used the three subscales of the rationalized entitlement measure as the independent variables. Of the three dimensions of entitlement, perceived victimization was a significant predictor, showing a large, negative relationship ( $\beta = -0.44$ ,  $p<0.001$ ). However, the rationalized expectations dimension was a significant positive predictor of justice perceptions, albeit with a smaller effect ( $\beta = 0.17$ ,  $p=0.038$ ). This helps to explain the PES' insufficiency, given the conflicting dimensions and the relatively lower correlation between the victimization subscale of REM and the PES compared to the rationalization dimension. Whether the PES is not showing a relationship with overall justice due to content deficiency or competing effects, or perhaps a combination of the two, is less important than the overall conclusion that justice perceptions are absolutely related to psychological entitlement, despite the inability of the PES to capture that relationship. This nuanced relationship between the REM's subscales and perceived overall justice, which is distinct from anything the PES can show, is summarized in Table 6 below, and provides full support for Hypothesis 4.

**Table 2-6***Sample 3: Hierarchical Regressions Providing Evidence for Incremental Predictive Validity*

<i>DV: Overall Justice</i>	Step 1						Step 2					Step 3						
	$\beta$	Std. Err.	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	[95% CI]		$\beta$	Std. Err.	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	[95% CI]		$\beta$	Std. Err.	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	[95% CI]	
PES	0.02	0.06	0.33	0.74	-0.11	0.15												
REM							-0.24	0.11	-2.25	0.025	-0.45	-0.03						
Rationalized Expectations													0.17	0.08	2.09	0.038	0.01	0.34
Self-Serving Attributions													0.00	0.10	0.00	0.999	-0.19	0.19
Perceived Victimization													-0.44	0.08	-5.72	0.000	-0.59	-0.29
Age	0.02	0.01	2.03	0.043	0.00	0.03	0.01	0.01	1.81	0.07	0.00	0.03	0.01	0.01	1.64	0.102	0.00	0.03
Gender	-0.03	0.17	-0.16	0.876	-0.35	0.30	-0.01	0.16	-0.09	0.93	-0.34	0.31	0.00	0.16	0.03	0.977	-0.31	0.32
Race	0.33	0.21	1.62	0.107	-0.07	0.74	0.26	0.20	1.26	0.21	-0.14	0.66	0.26	0.19	1.34	0.180	-0.12	0.65
Tenure	0.00	0.02	0.13	0.895	-0.03	0.03	0.00	0.02	0.04	0.97	-0.03	0.03	-0.01	0.02	-0.59	0.554	-0.04	0.02
Intercept	4.23	0.40	10.50	0.000	3.44	5.03	5.23	0.51	10.16	0.00	4.21	6.24	5.20	0.50	10.49	0.000	4.22	6.17

*Note.* N=312. For "Gender", male=1, all else=0. For "Race", White=1, all else=0. PES is the Psychological Entitlement Scale. REM is the overall Rationalized Entitlement Measure.

### **General Discussion**

One would be hard pressed to find an adult in the United States who is unfamiliar with the concept of entitlement. Psychological Entitlement has been called a “curse potentially affecting a wide range of individuals” (Campbell, et al., 2004:30), a “pressing managerial challenge” (Tomlinson, 2012:67), “particularly salient” (Fisk, 2010:102), and reaching levels that “border on bizarre” (Harvey & Dasborough, 2015:460). Psychological entitlement, or the extent to which expectations are (un)justifiable, characterized by a tendency to rationalize expectations, hold self-serving attributions, and perceive oneself as a victim, is still not fully understood (Harvey & Dasborough, 2015; Jordan, et al., 2017), despite being the subject of academic research for decades (Adams, 1965; Derber; 1978; Emmons, 1984; Lerner; 1987; Nozick, 1974). The overarching goal of this study was to describe a potential new theory of psychological entitlement through the validation of a theory-based, three factor measure of psychological entitlement. The new measure should provide a more nuanced understanding of psychological entitlement and the seemingly paradoxical relationship between its subdimensions. Empirical results suggest that the PES may be suffering from content deficiency in ways that are captured across the three dimensions of the Rationalized Entitlement Measure (REM). The REM was shown to have a clean factor structure, with good model fit and internal consistency, as well as acceptable convergent, discriminant and incremental predictive validities.

### **Implications**

Psychological entitlement has many negative consequences, ranging from workplace deviance (Harvey & Martinko, 2009) to academic cheating (Kopp et al., 2011) to early dropout and noncompliance in clinical treatments (Bishop & Lane, 2002; Pincus, Ansell, Pimentel, Cain, Wright & Levy, 2009). Creating a measure of entitlement that provides a more accurate

understanding of the distinct processes involved with psychological entitlement could have significant practical implications across all of these contexts and more. Also, connecting entitlement to long standing literatures, such as the cognitive biases literature and justice literature (Cropanzano & Ambrose, 2015), expands the nomological network of those constructs as well. Given the differential relationships the subdimensions of entitlement have with important outcomes in many domains of life, this may prove to be quite enlightening scientifically and practically. It is only with a proper understanding of what entitlement is and how we can measure it that we may begin to achieve an appropriate, healthy level of entitlement.

The theoretical model validated in this study is intended as an important steppingstone towards a full understanding of psychological entitlement. Previous work on entitlement, particularly empirical work, often assumed entitlement to be unidimensional. This assumption, while important to the early development of the construct, may now be slowing progress on finding solutions to the challenge of managing individuals with excessive entitlement. It is only when we have a complete understanding of entitlement that we will understand why some predicted relationships with other constructs, such as justice and self-esteem, have yet to materialize. It is then that we can begin to explore how prosocial emotions such as gratitude or humility are related to entitlement. This paper builds on the work of seminal scholars in multiple fields to validate a theory which can, and ideally should, be used widely to further disentangle entitlement's nuanced nature.

### **Limitations**

As promising as these findings are it is important to recognize that they arose from a limited number of samples, which will have many of the same limitations to its interpretability as similar studies. For example, the final step in Hinkin's (1998) scale development process is

*replication*, which inherently requires additional samples and studies. Cross validation of the measure of psychological entitlement will be crucial and should be undertaken as soon as possible. Full external validity will require replicating the findings of this study in new samples, ideally with differing contexts.

Cross-validation will also help address another potential limitation of this study, common method bias. By only using rating scales to measure entitlement, these findings are at risk of being inflated. To be more confident in the results, future researchers should attempt to gather entitlement data from multiple sources, whether other-rated, objective data, or using a different method than Likert rating scales.

Another limitation of the Rationalized Entitlement Model (REM) is that, as a Likert scale, it only captures conscious attitudes. Using a scale designed to capture subconscious attitudes and beliefs, such as the implicit association test, or IAT (Greenwald, McGhee, & Schwartz, 1998), alongside a traditional rating scale such as the REM, could provide a more robust understanding of an individual's entitled mindset. All three dimensions of entitlement conceptualized in rationalized entitlement theory (i.e., rationalization, biased attributions, and perceptions of the self as a victim) are driven by psychological mechanisms that have the potential to function at both the conscious and subconscious levels. Using a measure that only captures conscious beliefs may not be capturing all of psychological entitlement.

Finally, it is worth noting that the goal of this study was to create a valid scale to measure the structure of psychological entitlement. To that end, this paper uses cross-sectional survey data that contain no temporal variation. This leaves multiple important tests that have yet to be run on this measure. First, test-retest reliability, an important aspect of scale validity for any measure of a trait-like construct, has yet to be demonstrated by the REM. By showing high

correlation between an individual's entitlement score at one time point and that same individual's entitlement score at a later time point, test-retest reliability indicates a construct is stable across time. Second, content validity, another important aspect of scale validity, will require a unique sample to be tested (Colquitt, Sabey, Rodell, & Hill, 2019). Content validity ensures that the items used to operationalize a construct are measuring the intended construct in the eyes of the type of individuals participating in the survey. Finally, the data used in this sample is correlational and cannot be used to make a causal claim regarding how psychological entitlement manifests within an individual. Gaining a better understanding of the causal interplay between the three dimensions of entitlement will be crucial in designing interventions to mitigate the undesirable outcomes of entitlement. While all of these tests are valuable endeavors, they fall squarely in the realm of future directions.

### **Future Directions**

As mentioned previously, one of the most pressing questions regarding psychological entitlement, now that the structure is better understood, is gaining more knowledge about the process of psychological entitlement. Understanding how an individual becomes entitled will require more data, gathered through a method like experience sampling methodology, experimental manipulation, or integrated daily interactions design. This understanding is essential before we engage in some of the more extreme interventions recommended, screening potential employees for entitlement (Harvey & Dasborough, 2015).

This could allow for a more robust exploration of the dynamic between psychological entitlement and justice perceptions. Now that entitlement scholars have access to a scale that provides some clues as to the dynamic between justice and entitlement, it is important to discern exactly what that dynamic is. What triggers an entitled mindset? Does it increase or decrease

over time, and why? Are entitled individuals equally sensitive to distributive, procedural and interactive justice rules, or are their entitled beliefs focused in a particular area?

Given the nuanced nature of psychological entitlement, it would be worth exploring whether there are replicable differences across groups. For instance, for decades “the youth” have often been considered entitled (Campbell et al., 2004), with the Millennial Generation often hearing about their exceptional levels of entitlement (Brant & Castro, 2019). While age was not found to be a significant predictor of entitlement in this data set, it also was not the intent of this paper. A more intentional exploration of demographic groups (e.g., age, gender, race, socio-economic status, etc.) and entitlement might help settle some of the debate. Another interesting aspect of diversity and entitlement may come from exploring how other people attribute behavior for differing groups. For example, if a participant were given two vignettes, each with the same behavior described (e.g., showing up late to a meeting, talking out of turn, leaving work early, etc.) but each vignette is accompanied by a different portrait that varies one characteristic such as age or gender, would the behavior in each vignette be rated the same regarding entitlement?

Finally, and arguably most importantly, given the many negative outcomes associated with high levels of psychological entitlement, an intervention to mitigate an individual’s level of entitlement is of utmost importance. The various theories used in this paper provide some potential avenues to explore. For instance, self-serving cognitive bias has been linked to ambiguous situations (Weiner, 1985). Spending time engaging in ambiguity reduction techniques to increase accountability may help to alleviate entitlement (Laird, Harvey & Lancaster, 2015). Alternatively, perceptions of entitled victimization may be alleviated by engendering prosocial emotions. For instance, gratitude, defined as feeling appreciative of a positive personal outcome that is due to the actions of another person (Emmons & Shelton,

2001), seems to be completely at odds with psychological entitlement. Engendering gratitude in an entitled individual would seem to counteract all three dimensions of entitlement, especially perceptions of victimization. Unfortunately, until scholars are more confident in our knowledge regarding the actual mechanisms behind psychological entitlement, interventions will likely remain theoretical.

### **Conclusion**

In this study, rationalized entitlement theory was operationalized and validated across three samples. The Rationalized Entitlement Measure (REM) was shown to have a clean factor structure, as well as good internal, convergent, discriminant, and incremental predictive validities. Psychological entitlement is comprised of a tendency to rationalize expectations using self-serving attributions and perceived victimization. Its dimensions are correlated with a wide range of important constructs and is an important predictor of behavior, with many more important connections yet to be made.

### CHAPTER 3

#### **On the Management of Entitlement:**

##### **An Experimental Examination of Two Potential Management Tactics**

Prior literature provides plenty of reasons why managing entitled individuals is difficult. Entitled individuals are less likely to follow instructions (Zitek & Jordan, 2019), are more likely to respond to bad luck with anger (Zitek & Jordan, 2021), and more likely to perceive their supervisors as abusive (Harvey, Harris, Gillis, & Martinko, 2014). Entitled individuals demonstrated lower levels of job satisfaction, (Harvey & Martinko, 2009), are more abusive towards their coworkers (Harvey & Harris, 2010), and are a source of stress in the workplace (Hochwarter, Summers, Thompson, Perrewe, & Ferris, 2010). Entitled people are less likely to engage in organizational citizenship behavior, or OCB (Hochwarter, Meurs, Perrewe, Royle, & Matherly, 2007), but do engage in unethical, pro-organizational behavior that can put the organization's reputation at risk (Yam, Klotz, He & Reynolds, 2017).

Despite the clear evidence that entitled employees are difficult, recommendations on how to effectively manage entitled individuals are scarce, with evidence for those recommendations effectively nonexistent (see Laird, Harvey & Lancaster, 2015 for a partial exception). Current hypothetical recommendations for dealing with entitled employees include engaging in ambiguity reduction tactics (Jordan, et al., 2017), modifying job characteristics to reduce unrealistic expectations (Fisk, 2010), screening out potential new hires for entitlement (Harvey & Dasborough, 2015), and inducing prosocial emotions such as gratitude or humility as emotional buffers against entitlement (Grubbs & Exline, 2016). It is unclear how effective these interventions would be, as none of these recommendations have been the focus of an empirical

study, let alone experimentally tested for causal effects. This paper will use two different experiments to explore the question, can entitled beliefs be managed?

Study 1 explores whether felt accountability would be a useful management tactic to counteract the cognitive biases inherent in psychological entitlement. Accountability, or the belief that you will need to explain yourself to someone who holds power over you (Hall & Ferris, 2011), is known to attenuate certain biases (Lerner & Tetlock, 1999). It can increase one's need for cognition, making one think harder about the situation they are in before making a decision. A need for cognition is something that entitled individuals have been shown to have less of than their less-entitled coworkers (Harvey & Martinko, 2009). While most people would benefit from giving more thought to their decisions, entitled people should show larger effects because of the tendency for entitled people to engage in cognitive biases (Harvey & Martinko, 2009). The biased perspectives entitled people maintain relative to their coworkers place them at risk for unmet expectations and conflict (Grubbs & Exline, 2016; Snow, Kern, & Curlette, 2001). As an entitled individual's attributions become more carefully thought-out, they should become less biased (Lerner & Tetlock, 1999), which can bring expectations more in line with the collective's perspective. In these ways accountability may act to buffer the ill effects of entitlement in the workplace.

All else being equal, entitled employees are known for having more unjustifiable expectations than less entitled employees (Campbell et al., 2004; Grubbs & Exline, 2016). The entitled employee's beliefs regarding what they are owed predispose them to the possibility of unmet expectations (Grubbs & Exline, 2016; Snow, Kern, & Curlette, 2001). When employees believe their employer is not upholding their obligations, they experience strong negative emotional responses, including reduced job satisfaction (Rousseau 1989, 1995; Zhao, Wayne,

Glibhowski, & Bravo, 2007). These unpleasant feelings have been shown to be more commonly experienced by entitled individuals, who demonstrate an increased chance of experiencing unmet expectations as measured by perceived violations of their psychological contract (Priesemuth & Tayler, 2016). This main effect of entitlement on job satisfaction should depend on how accountable the employee feels, however. This is because accountability can increase employees' cognitions and focus their attention on their objective contributions and rewards (Lerner & Tetlock, 1999). While this increases satisfaction with work generally (Thoms, Dose, & Scott, 2002), accountability should have a larger impact on highly entitled employees, whose expectations may be more misaligned than employees who are less entitled. Preliminary evidence for this effect can be seen in the work of Laird and colleagues (2015), who found that job satisfaction increases as accountability goes up, and this effect is moderated by an individual's level of trait entitlement such that the more entitled an individual is, the more accountability increases job satisfaction. It is this rationale that motivates Hypotheses 1a.

***Hypothesis 1a.*** *Felt accountability moderates the relationship between entitlement and job satisfaction such that the more entitlement an individual exhibits, the more job satisfaction is increased by inducing high levels of felt accountability.*

Increased turnover intentions are another common result of perceiving your expectations are being violated by the organization (Tett & Meyer, 1993; Zhao et al., 2007), as people will choose to leave a relationship when they deem the exchange to be unbalanced against them (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). As established in the section above, entitled individuals are predisposed to encountering more unmet expectations (Grubbs & Exline, 2016; Snow et al., 2001), and, as might be expected, increased turnover intentions have been empirically linked to elevated entitlement beliefs (Harvey & Martinko, 2009). The more entitled you are, the more likely you are to leave your job, possibly because entitled individuals are more likely to encounter situations where the inaccuracies in their self-image and contributions become

challenged (Snow et al., 2001). Following the same logic as above, high levels of accountability should reduce these inaccurate perceptions by addressing cognitive biases (Lerner & Tetlock, 1999). The corrective effect of high accountability on turnover intent should increase in strength the more entitled an individual is, as that individual should have more cognitive biases to correct in the first place.

***Hypothesis 1b.*** *Felt accountability moderates the relationship between entitlement and turnover intent such that the higher an individual's level of entitlement, the more turnover intent is decreased by inducing high levels of felt accountability.*

Our perceptions of justice are based, at least in part, on how we compare our prior expectations against our perceived outcomes, treatment, and the processes used to arrive at them (Cropanzano & Ambrose, 2015). The accuracy of our justice perceptions, therefore, are dependent upon forming appropriate expectations and accurately perceiving our interactions with others. Cognitive biases have the potential to skew both our expectations and our perceptions (Haselton, Nettle, & Andrews, 2015). As argued in the previous two chapters, psychological entitlement is fraught with biases that have the potential to skew both our expectations and our perceptions. Entitled people are known for exhibiting unreasonably high expectations (Grubbs & Exline, 2016) as well as having inaccurate perceptions of their own contributions (Harvey & Martinko, 2009). As has been stated before, high levels of accountability have been shown to reduce certain cognitive biases (Lerner & Tetlock, 1999). By that reasoning, inducing a high level of accountability should increase justice perceptions, and that effect should increase the more entitled an individual is, and therefore the more biased then are their cognitions.

***Hypothesis 1c.*** *Felt accountability moderates the relationship between entitlement and perceived overall justice such that the more entitlement an individual exhibits, the more justice perceptions are increased by inducing high levels of felt accountability.*

At first glance, effort appears to deviate significantly from the previous three dependent variables. Where job satisfaction, turnover intentions and justice perceptions more clearly fall

into the category of attitudes and beliefs, effort would appear to be a behavior. A careful examination of the items in Brown and Leigh's (1996) effort scale reveals the statements to be phrased in the conditional tense, implying hypothetical intentions as opposed to objective behavior. For instance, items include "Few of my peers would put in more hours weekly than I would" and "When I work, I would do so with intensity." Effort, as measured in this study, is better understood as effort intentions.

Effort, like many of the dependent variables chosen in this study, has been shown to be related to employee's beliefs regarding the extent to which their expectations are met or unmet. Specifically, employees who feel that they have their expectations violated are somewhat more likely to reduce their work effort (Turnley, Bolino, Lester, & Bloodgood, 2003). This makes sense, as workers often face choices regarding the amount of effort they expend at work. They can go above and beyond to engage in organizational citizenship behaviors (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, Bachrach, 2000), or cost organization with counterproductive work behavior such as time banditry (Martin, Brock, Buckley, & Ketchen, 2010). A study by Robinson and Morrison (1995) showed employees who felt their employer failed to fulfill their obligations were less likely to engage in civic virtue behavior at a later time. As a result, one could see how entitled employees, who are prone to perceiving unmet expectations (Grubbs & Exline, 2016; Snow et al., 2001), would be less likely to expend excess energy at work than employees who are less entitled. Accountability may counteract the cognitive biases that lead to an increased likelihood to perceive violated expectations (Lerner & Tetlock, 1999). In other words, inducing high levels of accountability should result in increased effort, especially for individuals exhibiting high levels of accountability.

**Hypothesis 1d.** *Felt accountability moderates the relationship between entitlement and effort such that the more entitlement an individual exhibits, the more effort is increased by inducing high levels of felt accountability.*

Study 2 takes a different approach to managing entitlement. Where Study 1 focuses on using accountability to address the cognitive biases inherent in entitlement, Study 2 focuses on using gratitude as an emotional buffer to manage the feelings and social interactions of entitled employees, thereby improving workplace outcomes. To explore this, heightened or depressed gratitude will be induced in participants using writing tasks. According to prior literature, participants with heightened feelings of gratitude should be more likely to shift their focus away from themselves and towards the object of their gratitude (Emmons & McCullough, 2003). Individuals experiencing a positive emotion such as gratitude engage in a process known as *broaden-and-build* (Frederickson, 2001). This process *broadens* an individual's thought-action repertoire, meaning they consider a wider range of possible reaction to a given situation (Frederickson, 2001). It also provides an opportunity to *build* additional internal resources in the individual, such as increased resilience (Cohn, Frederickson, Brown, Mikels, & Conway, 2009) and improved coping strategies (Gloria & Steinhardt, 2014). Gratitude in particular is known to generate a creative urge to be prosocial (Fredrickson, 2013), and has been linked empirically to being more appreciative of what they have, including their relationships at work (Locklear, Sheridan, & Kong, 2023). Increased feelings of gratitude should shift entitled employees' focus away from their own contributions and towards the object of their gratitude, thereby reducing the negative workplace outcomes of entitlement.

With regards to the first dependent variable, job satisfaction, feeling grateful has been shown to have a strong and positive effect on job satisfaction (Locklear, Sheridan, & Kong, 2023; Moon & Jung, 2020). It is argued this is a result of grateful creating a "have-focus" (Fagley & Adler, 2012), where grateful individuals focus their attention on what they have, as

opposed to what they want. This shift of focus is linked with higher satisfaction generally (Buschor, Proyer, & Ruch, 2013), as well as increased domain-specific satisfaction, such as job satisfaction (Moon & Jung, 2020). It would make sense that these increases in satisfaction stem from both the internal focus on positive events (Frederickson, 2001) as well as more positive interpersonal interactions, as gratitude fosters positive interpersonal connections (Leong, Chen, Fung, Bond, Siu, & Zhu, 2020; Locklear et al., 2023).

As has been stated previously, entitlement tends to push people apart, to the point of even generating workplace conflict (Hochwarter et al., 2007; Yam et al., 2017; Snow et al., 2001). Entitled people are often competitive with others, become contentious and competitive (Grubbs & Exline, 2016). Thus, the positive emotion of gratitude works against these pernicious entitled tendencies. For these reasons, the effect of feeling grateful should be largest for those people who do not already demonstrate a “have-focus,” such as entitled individuals.

***Hypothesis 2a.*** *Gratitude moderates the relationship between entitlement and job satisfaction such that the more entitlement an individual exhibits, the more job satisfaction is increased by inducing high levels of gratitude.*

In a parallel fashion to job satisfaction, feeling very grateful should result in decreased turnover intentions, particularly for employees who are highly entitled. Intending to leave one's job is often a result of feeling underappreciated or disconnected from the organization (Fehr, Fulmer, Awtrey, & Miller, 2016). Entitled individuals chronically feel underappreciated (Zitek, Jordan, Monin, & Leach, 2010), predisposing them to increased turnover intentions (Harvey & Martinko, 2009). While feeling more grateful should decrease turnover intentions for all employees to a certain extent, the effect should be especially pronounced for entitled employees. To that end, I predict that the negative effect of inducing high levels of gratitude on turnover intentions will be moderated by an individual's level of trait entitlement such that the more

entitled an employee is, the more negative the effect of high gratitude will be on turnover intentions. Those who are already entitled stand to benefit the most from gratitude.

***Hypothesis 2b.*** *Gratitude moderates the relationship between entitlement and turnover intent such that the more entitlement an individual exhibits, the more turnover intent is decreased by inducing high levels of gratitude.*

The theorized relationship between entitlement and justice perceptions has been documented in this manuscript in multiple places. The skewed expectations and perspectives of entitled individuals predispose them to perceive lower levels of justice in the workplace than their less entitled coworkers (Grubbs & Exline, 2016; Snow et al., 2001). Gratitude, on the other hand, has a strong, positive effect on an individual's sense of justice (Bala Subramanian, Srikanth, Thakur, 2022; Barsky & Kaplan, 2007). Gratitude can impact how an individual appraises their surroundings and how attributions are made (Emmons & McCullough, 2003). Entitled individuals experience less justice to begin with, which means they are more likely to benefit from improvements in their level of gratitude. Given the difference in justice perceptions between individuals demonstrating more entitled or less entitlement, the effect of high levels of gratitude on justice perceptions should depend on how entitled an employee is.

***Hypothesis 2c.*** *Gratitude moderates the relationship between entitlement and justice perceptions such that the more entitlement an individual exhibits, the more justice perceptions are increased by inducing high levels of gratitude.*

Finally, how much effort an employee expends at work is linked to how grateful they feel (Wendenburg, 2020). The more grateful an employee feels, the harder they will work and the more likely they will be to go above and beyond their job duties to engage in organizational citizenship behaviors like helping coworkers they are not required to help (Bartlett & Desteno, 2006). One possible reason for this is that gratitude has been linked with increased desire to want to reciprocate (Frederickson, 2013). In other words, when we feel grateful, we feel like someone else has done something positive for us and when we feel like we have received something

positive, the natural human reaction is a desire to reciprocate by doing something positive in return (Gouldner, 1960). At work, these positive behaviors commonly take the form of organizational citizenship behaviors that can be directed towards the organization or towards individuals (Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, & Blume, 2009).

Entitled individuals have been shown to be less likely to engage in OCBs (Hochwarter, Meurs, Perrewe, Royle & Matherly, 2007) and may demonstrate a general reduction in the need to reciprocate at work (Westerlaken, Jordan & Ramsay, 2017). Their biased mindset focuses their attention on what they want, as opposed to what they have (Fagley & Adler, 2012). Given the characteristics of entitled individuals, feeling high levels of gratitude may make an even larger impact on these individuals than it does on the general population. To state matters loosely, gratitude may help entitled people to “wake up” to the contributions of others.

***Hypothesis 2d.*** *Gratitude moderates the relationship between entitlement and effort such that the more entitlement an individual exhibits, the more effort is increased by inducing high levels of gratitude.*

In addition to testing the hypothesized workplace outcomes of entitlement and the moderating variables of Studies 1 - 2, a.k.a. accountability and gratitude, it will also be interesting to explore the relationships between workplace outcomes and the subdimensions of entitlement. While the existing body of research has found that the outcomes associated with entitlement in aggregate are widely negative, there are sufficient exceptions to warrant investigating whether the facets of entitlement are uniformly maladaptive. There is the possibility that certain aspects of entitlement act as cognitive defensive mechanisms (Grubbs & Exline, 2016) which may have adaptive outcomes but tend to co-occur with other psychological mechanisms that have unintended negative consequences. Conducting exploratory analysis by replacing overall entitlement with the subdimensions of entitlement when testing the hypotheses may provide some clarity into this possibility. Both studies were preregistered on the Open

Science Framework at <https://doi.org/10.17605/OSF.IO/S4YQR> and a screenshot is included in the Appendix.

### **Study 1: Accountability Intervention**

#### **Review of Felt Accountability and Psychological Entitlement**

Felt accountability is defined as a “perceived expectation that one’s decisions or actions will be evaluated by a salient audience and that rewards or sanctions are believed to be contingent on this expected evaluation” (Hall & Ferris, 2011:p.134). It forces us to think deeper to justify our decisions for fear that others will impose costs on us should they evaluate us negatively. The importance of this pressure in maintaining the delicate balance of social life has been extolled by great thinkers from Plato to Adam Smith. Accountability is considered foundational to a wide range of human endeavors (Hall, Frink, & Buckley, 2017), from efficient coordination (Frink & Klimoski, 1998), to notions of fairness (Folger & Cropanzano, 2001).

Accountability research has been primarily focused on four areas: affective states, behaviors, cognitions, and decisions (Hall et al., 2017). Highlighting just some of the relevant effects on the cognitions and decisions shows us that accountability is linked with higher conscientiousness and emotional stability scores when individuals feel more accountable (ter Laak, van Leuven, & Brugman, 2000). Accountability improves the accuracy of performance appraisals (Mero, Guidice, & Brownlee, 2007), perhaps by reducing halo effects and contrast effects (Palmer & Feldman, 2005). Feeling accountable is a subjective experience (Frink, Hall, Perryman, Ranft, Hochwarter, Ferris, & Royle, 2008) that can reduce the ambiguity of a given situation (Lerner & Tetlock, 1999). As a situation becomes less ambiguous, it becomes more difficult to take credit for successful outcomes while dodging blame for failures, which in turn

makes it harder to rationalize the belief that one deserves the lion's share of the glory (Harvey & Dasborough, 2015).

According to rationalized entitlement theory, one of the key aspects of an entitled mindset is the ability for an entitled individual to rationalize unjustifiable expectations. Rationalizing grand expectations allows entitled individuals to avoid exerting the effort required to actually earn those outcomes as well as the uncomfortable cognitive dissonance of knowing their work does not justify the rewards they want. Ambiguous situations provide opportunities for entitled individuals to manufacture these rationalizations. Reducing the ambiguity of a situation decreases the possible ways an entitled individual can rationalize their expectations which should inhibit entitled behavior. Accountability has been shown as an effective tool to reduce ambiguity by clarifying the relationship between performance and rewards ((Hall, Frink, Ferris, Hochwarter, Kacmar, & Bowen, 2003). Accountability also impacts the attributions an entitled individual makes by forcing him to think harder about the defensibility of his attributions. When we believe that we will need to explain our actions to an outside party, we spend more time thinking through our actions. With attributions that are better aligned with the outside perspective, rationalizing exaggerated expectations becomes less likely, and conflict with others should reduce. In these ways, at least, accountability should influence entitlement beliefs.

There are multiple empirical studies that lend credence to this idea. First, Laird et al. (2015) conducted a study of 181 university resident assistants and discovered that, counter to their hypotheses, high levels of felt accountability increased job satisfaction levels for subjects with high levels of entitlement regardless of their job tenure, but it did not have an effect on subjects with low levels of entitlement. In post hoc reflection the authors concluded that high levels of felt accountability made it difficult for entitled individuals to "erroneously claim

responsibility for success and pass blame for failure.” (Laird, et al., 2015: p.95). According to rationalized entitlement, the tendency to claim responsibility or pass blame are a classic means of rationalizing otherwise unjustifiable expectations with a self-serving attributional bias. As additional, if preliminary, support for the idea that accountability can help manage entitled employees, an unpublished manuscript finds that, across three different samples, perceiving high levels of accountability resulted in increased effort and performance levels for entitled individuals. Finally, in a study of workplace bullying and abusive supervision (Mackey, Brees, McAllister, Zorn, Martinko, & Harvey, 2016), felt accountability and psychological entitlement interacted to predict perceived abusive supervision across two field studies, such that entitled people perceived less abusive supervision at work when they felt more accountable.

## **Method**

### ***Participants***

As with previous samples, the inclusion criteria to be included in the study were participants needed to be 18 years old or older, currently working either full time or part time, and fluent in English. These inclusion criteria ensured that subjects had a current work environment to reference when answering survey questions, understood the instructions clearly, and IRB expectations were fully satisfied. A sample size calculation using an expected difference of .40, a standard deviation of 1, an alpha value of .05, and a beta value of .2 recommends at least 99 subjects per condition (Arifin, 2024). Three hundred fifty online participants were recruited via the Prolific platform, with the goal of more than 100 subjects in each condition. When preparing the data for analysis, subjects were excluded from analysis if they were missing data, responded incorrectly to an attention check question, or multiple responses were recorded from the same IP address, which may indicate duplicate responses. Of the 350 participants who

participated in the study, five participants were removed for missing data, two were removed for submitting results from duplicate IP addresses, and seven participants were removed from the dataset for failing one or more attention checks, for a total of 14 participants removed leaving a working sample of 336 subjects, with exactly 112 subjects in each condition. On average, participants were almost 38 years old, had worked in their job for about six and a half years, and ranked their relative socio-economic status as five out of ten. Seventy-four percent of the participants in this sample, or 250 participants, self-reported as White and 169 participants, which is 50% of the sample, self-reported as male. See Table 1 for descriptive statistics.

### ***Procedure***

Demographic variables were the first constructs to be measured, including age, race, gender, job tenure, and socio-economic status. Descriptive statistics for these control variables, as well as other key variables, are displayed in Table 1 below. Next, entitlement for all subjects was measured using the rationalized entitlement measure. After that, the accountability manipulation vignettes are displayed. The 334 participants in this study are spread equally between groups, such that each condition contains 112 observations. The specific vignettes for each condition are included in the Appendix. After the participants read their vignette, they responded to criterion variables of job satisfaction, turnover intent, perceived overall justice, and effort. The felt accountability scale was administered at the end as a manipulation check along with the positive affect negative affect schedule (PANAS) to rule out affect as an alternative explanation for outcomes. Each scale used in the study, and its respective internal consistency, are described below.

### ***Measures***

**Entitlement.** Entitlement is measured with the Rationalized Entitlement Measure (REM). The REM uses a six-point response format (1 = strong disagreement to 6 = strong agreement) that does not contain a neutral middle point. The measure has eleven items in total, spread across three dimensions. The first dimension, rationalized expectations, has three items including “I have earned the right to receive what I want” and “I deserve to know what’s going on around me.” The second dimension, self-serving attributions, is represented with four items such as “Other people are usually more at fault than I am” and “When working in teams, I usually end up doing more than anyone else.” The third dimension, perceived victimization, also has four items such as “People tend to take advantage of my good nature” and “The system is rigged against me.” The internal consistency for the three subdimensions are 0.83, 0.74, and 0.81, respectively. The internal consistency of the overall scale is 0.82.

**Job satisfaction.** Job satisfaction is measured with the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire – Short Form (MSQ-SF) (Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1967; 1977) that was modified to refer to the experimental vignette. The prompt instructs participants to “Ask yourself: How satisfied would I be with this aspect of my job?” Participants then respond to twenty items measuring faceted job satisfaction using a five-point response format (1 = very satisfied to 5 = very dissatisfied). Examples of items include “The way my boss handles his/her workers,” “My pay and the amount of work I do” and “The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job.” Cronbach’s alpha for the scale is 0.90.

**Effort.** Effort is measured with the effort subdimensions of Brown and Leigh’s (1996) Psychological Climate and Effort Measures, modified to refer to the vignette. The time commitment and work intensity subdimensions of effort are captured, while the psychological climate subdimensions were not captured as they are not relevant to this study. The two effort

dimensions each have five items each, for a total of ten items capturing effort. The scale uses a five-point response format (1 = strong disagreement to 5 = strong agreement). Examples of items include “Few of my peers would put in more hours weekly than I would” and “When I work, I would do so with intensity.” Cronbach’s alpha for the ten-item aggregate scale is 0.94.

**Turnover intentions.** Turnover intentions are captured with the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, & Klesh, 1979), modified to refer to the vignette. This is a ten-item measure of turnover intentions that uses a five-point response format (1= strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree). Examples of items include “I would seriously consider leaving my organization” and “I would actively look for another job.” Cronbach’s alpha for the scale is 0.95.

**Justice perceptions.** Justice perceptions were measured with Ambrose & Schminke’s (2009) Perceived Overall Justice scale, modified to refer to the vignette. This is a six-item direct measure of perceived fairness and uses a seven-point response format (1 = strong disagreement to 7 = strong agreement). Examples of items include “Overall, I would feel I am treated fairly by my organization.” and “For the most part, this organization treats its employees fairly.” Cronbach’s alpha for the scale is 0.90.

**Felt accountability.** Accountability was measured with the Felt Accountability Scale (Hochwarter, Ferris, Gavin, Perrew, Hall, & Frink, 2007), which was modified to refer to the vignette. This is an eight-item scale that uses a five-point response format (1 = strong disagreement to 5 = strong agreement). Examples of items include “I would feel that I am held very accountable for my actions at work” and “Co-workers, subordinates, and bosses closely scrutinize my work.” Cronbach’s alpha for the scale is 0.91.

**Control Variables.** While the experimental design of this study should preclude the need to control for individual differences, given a large enough sample, it is also true that the inclusion of control variables should not jeopardize the statistical validity of causal inferences. In the spirit of being conservative, several variables were captured to potentially control for extraneous variance and ensure the relationships found during analysis are accurately isolating the effect of key constructs. Specifically, participant's age, gender, race, perceived SES, and length of time at current job were all captured and included in the following analyses unless otherwise stated. Also, participants' positive and negative state affect are included in an additional analysis whenever significant effects are discovered in order to eliminate an alternate explanation for the results. Descriptive statistics are displayed in Table 1.

### ***Manipulation***

Participants were randomly assigned to one of three conditions (i.e., the "increased accountability" treatment group, "decreased accountability" treatment group, or control group). Each group read a similar vignette that began with a summary, followed by a detailed description of the scenario that ended with a condition determined by the reactions of their employer. The unique ending of each vignette serves as the focal manipulation of the participant's feelings of accountability. Participants in the "decreased accountability" condition are told by their boss that no one will be paying attention to the final product, whereas participants in the "increased accountability" condition are told that their boss scheduled an office-wide meeting for you to present your final results. Participants in the control condition are given the same scenario, but in the end are not told anything by their boss. This control is designed to create a natural level of accountability the average employee feels without undue influence by their supervisor. Copies of the full vignettes are included in the Appendix.

**Table 3-1**  
*Study 1: Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Matrix*

		Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	
1	Entitlement	3.48	0.76	1.00	5.50	1.00																
2	Rationalized	4.24	1.07	1.00	6.00	0.75	1.00															
3	Self-Serving Attributions	3.24	0.87	1.00	5.75	0.75	0.39	1.00														
4	Perceived Victimization	2.96	1.08	1.00	6.00	0.75	0.27	0.39	1.00													
5	Age	37.94	11.00	19.00	72.00	-0.10	0.03	-0.09	-0.18	1.00												
6	Gender	0.50	0.50	0.00	1.00	-0.07	-0.14	0.07	-0.07	-0.11	1.00											
7	Race	0.74	0.44	0.00	1.00	-0.22	-0.17	-0.14	-0.18	0.13	0.09	1.00										
8	Tenure	6.52	6.63	0.17	53.00	-0.06	0.04	-0.10	-0.09	0.47	-0.01	0.05	1.00									
9	Socio-Economic Status	5.05	1.80	0.00	10.00	-0.07	0.05	0.13	-0.31	-0.02	0.13	0.01	0.00	1.00								
10	Positive Affect	3.26	0.85	1.00	5.00	0.07	0.19	-0.01	-0.03	0.25	0.01	0.01	0.17	0.10	1.00							
11	Negative Affect	1.42	0.59	1.00	4.00	0.11	-0.02	0.04	0.22	-0.10	-0.01	-0.06	0.07	-0.06	0.03	1.00						
12	Accountability	3.82	0.91	1.00	5.00	0.04	0.06	0.01	0.03	0.05	-0.10	-0.04	0.02	-0.04	0.19	0.01	1.00					
13	Effort	3.54	0.93	1.00	5.00	0.13	0.12	0.17	0.02	0.08	-0.04	-0.11	0.06	0.04	0.37	0.00	0.60	1.00				
14	Job Satisfaction	3.91	0.51	1.20	5.00	0.03	0.13	0.02	-0.09	0.06	-0.14	-0.01	0.05	0.01	0.45	-0.14	0.41	0.56	1.00			
15	Turnover Intent	2.07	0.91	1.00	4.60	0.09	-0.06	0.06	0.21	-0.12	0.01	-0.06	-0.12	-0.01	-0.31	0.31	-0.08	-0.19	-0.43	1.00		
16	Perceived Overall	5.32	1.17	1.00	7.00	-0.11	0.03	-0.07	-0.19	0.03	0.00	0.00	0.02	-0.02	0.28	-0.35	0.19	0.26	0.52	-0.65	1.00	

Notes. N= 334. For "Gender", male=1, all else=0. For "Race", White=1, all else=0. Correlations of 0.11 are significant at p<0.05, of 0.14 are significant at p<0.01, of 0.18 or higher are significant at p<0.001.

**Manipulation Check.** Results indicate that the vignettes successfully manipulated the subjects' sense of accountability, as indicated by the mean score for felt accountability in both conditions being statistically significantly different than the mean in the control condition. The mean accountability score of the "increased accountability" condition ( $M=4.14$ ,  $SD = 0.67$ ) is significantly higher than the mean accountability score in the control condition ( $M = 4.00$ ,  $SD = 0.74$ ;  $t_{(111)} = 2.09$ ,  $p=0.019$ ), and the mean score for felt accountability in the "decreased accountability" condition ( $M = 3.32$ ,  $SD = 1.05$ ) was significantly lower than the mean accountability score in the control condition ( $t_{(111)} = -6.91$ ,  $p<0.001$ ). These results indicate that the vignettes successfully induced different levels of accountability in each condition.

### **Analysis and Results**

All analyses were conducted using Stata/SE version 16.1. Analyses consisted of using a dummy code comparing subjects in the high accountability condition, assigned a value of 1, to participants in the low accountability condition, assigned a value of 0. These codes were included as variables in each regression and were interacted with entitlement or the subdimensions of entitlement in each regression.

To retain the integrity of the preregistration, the results of analyzing the data set with planned contrast codes are included in the Appendix as supplementary. While a valid analysis, the results were not easily interpretable, so a more intuitive analysis was used. Results reported in text represent the results of the dummy coded analysis.

To test Hypotheses 1a, which states that the effect of entitlement on job satisfaction depends on the participant's level of accountability, an ordinary least squares multivariate regression was conducted using job satisfaction as the dependent variable and the participants' grand mean centered entitlement score, the dummy coded accountability variable, and the

interaction of centered entitlement and high accountability condition as the independent variables. This was done with and without controls, as well as while accounting for positive affect and negative affect. Results are displayed in Table 2 and indicate Hypothesis 1a was not supported. Results reported in text throughout this manuscript include controls but do not account for affect, unless stated otherwise. These results can also be stated clearly as: high accountability did not significantly moderate the effect of aggregate entitlement on job satisfaction ( $\beta=0.07$ ,  $SE=0.10$ ,  $p=0.479$ ).

**Table 3-2**

*Study 1: Job Satisfaction Regression with Entitlement and Accountability Condition Interaction*

DV: Job Satisfaction	Without Controls			With Controls			Accounting for PA&NA		
	Coef	Std. Err.	<i>p</i>	Coef	Std. Err.	<i>p</i>	Coef	Std. Err.	<i>p</i>
Entitlement	-0.01	0.07	0.872	0.00	0.07	0.956	-0.03	0.06	0.620
High Accountability	0.26	0.07	0.001	0.25	0.07	0.001	0.20	0.06	0.003
Entitlement x Accountability Interaction	0.08	0.10	0.435	0.07	0.10	0.479	0.04	0.08	0.604
Age				0.00	0.00	0.475	-0.01	0.00	0.138
Gender				-0.10	0.07	0.188	-0.14	0.06	0.035
Race				0.04	0.09	0.629	0.00	0.08	0.970
Tenure				0.00	0.01	0.848	0.00	0.01	0.871
SES				0.03	0.02	0.135	0.01	0.02	0.516
Positive Affect							0.30	0.04	0.000
Negative Affect							-0.17	0.06	0.005
Intercept	3.74	0.05	0.000	3.50	0.19	0.000	3.24	0.21	0.000

*Note.* N= 224. All variables included in interactions have been grand mean centered. For "Gender", male=1, all else=0. For "Race", White=1, all else=0. High Accountability = 1 when the experimental condition was high accountability, 0 when the condition was low accountability.

Post-hoc analysis, displayed in Table 3 below, uses the subdimensions of entitlement in the place of participant's aggregate entitlement score in a series of regressions. Doing so reveals that the interaction of high accountability with participants' perceived victimization approaches significance ( $\beta= -0.13$   $SE=0.07$ ,  $p=0.080$ ). When accounting for participants' current affect, the interaction of perceived victimization and high accountability becomes significant ( $\beta= -0.14$ ,  $SE=0.06$ ,  $p=0.027$ ), as does the interaction of high accountability and participant's self-serving

attributions ( $\beta=0.18$ ,  $SE=0.08$ ,  $p=0.031$ ). Interestingly, though, the effects of these two dimensions are in opposite directions, which may help to explain the lack of an effect in aggregate.

**Table 3-3**

*Study 1: Job Satisfaction Regression with Entitlement Subdimensions and Accountability Condition Interaction*

DV: Job Satisfaction	Without Controls			With Controls			Accounting for PA&NA		
	Coef	Std. Err.	<i>p</i>	Coef	Std. Err.	<i>p</i>	Coef	Std. Err.	<i>p</i>
Rationalized Expectations	0.03	0.05	0.520	0.02	0.05	0.678	-0.05	0.05	0.344
Self-Serving Attributions	-0.04	0.06	0.570	-0.03	0.06	0.593	-0.04	0.06	0.486
Perceived Victimization	-0.01	0.05	0.817	0.00	0.05	0.991	0.04	0.04	0.398
High Accountability	0.25	0.07	0.001	0.24	0.07	0.001	0.19	0.06	0.004
Expectations x Accountability Interaction	0.05	0.07	0.520	0.05	0.07	0.478	0.04	0.06	0.546
Attributions x Accountability Interaction	0.13	0.09	0.145	0.14	0.09	0.138	0.18	0.08	0.031
Victimization x Accountability Interaction	-0.12	0.07	0.088	-0.13	0.07	0.080	-0.14	0.06	0.027
Age				0.00	0.00	0.451	0.00	0.00	0.200
Gender				-0.10	0.07	0.188	-0.15	0.06	0.021
Race				0.05	0.09	0.562	0.01	0.08	0.943
Tenure				0.00	0.01	0.804	0.00	0.01	0.964
SES				0.01	0.02	0.691	0.00	0.02	0.925
Positive Affect							0.31	0.04	0.000
Negative Affect							-0.17	0.06	0.004
Intercept	3.74	0.05	0.000	3.61	0.20	0.000	3.28	0.22	0.000

*Note.*  $N=224$ . All variables included in interactions have been grand mean centered. For "Gender", male=1, all else=0. For "Race", White=1, all else=0. High Accountability = 1 when the experimental condition was high accountability, 0 when the condition was low accountability.

To test Hypotheses 1b, which states that the effect of entitlement on turnover intent depends on the participant's level of accountability, a similar analysis to the one reported above was conducted using turnover intent as the dependent variable. Results are displayed in Table 4 and indicate that Hypothesis 1b was also not supported. In other words, high accountability did not moderate the effect of aggregate entitlement on turnover intent ( $\beta= -0.22$ ,  $SE=0.16$ ,  $p=0.177$ ). It is worth noting, however, that there is a significant main effect of entitlement on

turnover intentions ( $\beta=0.23$ ,  $SE=0.11$ ,  $p=0.041$ ), such that the more entitled an individual is the more likely they are to hold turnover intentions, which persists even when accounting for affect.

**Table 3-4**

*Study 1: Turnover Intent Regression with Entitlement and Accountability Condition Interaction*

DV: Turnover Intent	Without Controls			With Controls			Accounting for PA&NA		
	Coef	Std. Err.	<i>p</i>	Coef	Std. Err.	<i>p</i>	Coef	Std. Err.	<i>p</i>
Entitlement	0.25	0.11	0.025	0.23	0.11	0.041	0.21	0.10	0.035
High Accountability	-0.22	0.12	0.069	-0.18	0.12	0.141	-0.08	0.11	0.483
Entitlement x Accountability Interaction	-0.23	0.16	0.150	-0.22	0.16	0.177	-0.15	0.14	0.289
Age				-0.01	0.01	0.209	0.00	0.01	0.447
Gender				0.07	0.12	0.585	0.10	0.11	0.366
Race				-0.03	0.15	0.844	0.05	0.13	0.735
Tenure				-0.02	0.01	0.121	-0.02	0.01	0.024
SES				0.02	0.03	0.599	0.05	0.03	0.103
Positive Affect							-0.34	0.07	0.000
Negative Affect							0.53	0.10	0.000
Intercept	2.22	0.09	0.000	2.52	0.31	0.000	2.16	0.36	0.000

*Note.* N= 224. All variables included in interactions have been grand mean centered. For "Gender", male=1, all else=0. For "Race", White=1, all else=0. High Accountability = 1 when the experimental condition was high accountability, 0 when the condition was low accountability.

Exploratory analysis of the subdimensions of entitlement, displayed in Table 5 below, indicate that the effects of entitlement on turnover intentions are driven primarily by perceived victimization ( $\beta = 0.19$ ,  $SE=0.08$ ,  $p=0.024$ ). While none of the interactions of the subdimensions are significant at  $p < 0.05$ , the moderating effect of high accountability on the relationship between rationalized expectations and turnover intent was trending towards significance ( $\beta = -0.22$ ,  $SE = 0.12$ ,  $p = 0.072$ ).

**Table 3-5**

*Study 1: Turnover Intent Regression with Entitlement Subdimensions and Accountability Condition Interaction*

DV: Turnover Intent	Without Controls			With Controls			Accounting for PA&NA		
	Coef	Std. Err.	<i>p</i>	Coef	Std. Err.	<i>p</i>	Coef	Std. Err.	<i>p</i>
Rationalized Expectations	0.03	0.09	0.691	0.04	0.09	0.628	0.12	0.08	0.155
Self-Serving Attributions	0.03	0.10	0.804	-0.02	0.11	0.846	0.01	0.10	0.956
Perceived Victimization	0.16	0.08	0.037	0.19	0.08	0.024	0.10	0.08	0.215
High Accountability	-0.19	0.12	0.107	-0.14	0.12	0.230	-0.06	0.11	0.607
Expectations x Accountability Interaction	-0.24	0.12	0.051	-0.22	0.12	0.072	-0.17	0.11	0.113
Attributions x Accountability Interaction	0.01	0.15	0.951	-0.04	0.15	0.801	-0.11	0.14	0.410
Victimization x Accountability Interaction	0.11	0.12	0.368	0.12	0.12	0.307	0.15	0.11	0.160
Age				-0.01	0.01	0.315	0.00	0.01	0.472
Gender				0.08	0.12	0.531	0.12	0.11	0.272
Race				-0.04	0.15	0.792	0.04	0.13	0.773
Tenure				-0.01	0.01	0.270	-0.02	0.01	0.056
SES				0.07	0.04	0.067	0.08	0.03	0.016
Positive Affect							-0.34	0.07	0.000
Negative Affect							0.50	0.10	0.000
Intercept	2.22	0.08	0.000	2.17	0.33	0.000	2.01	0.37	0.000

*Note.* N= 224. All variables included in interactions have been grand mean centered. For "Gender", male=1, all else=0. For "Race", White=1, all else=0. High Accountability = 1 when the experimental condition was high accountability, 0 when the condition was low accountability.

To test Hypotheses 1c, which states that the effect of entitlement on perceived overall justice depends on the participant's level of accountability, another regression was conducted using overall justice perceptions as the dependent variable. Results are displayed in Table 6 below and indicate inducing high perceived accountability does significantly moderate the effect of aggregate entitlement on overall justice perceptions ( $\beta = 0.40$ ,  $SE = 0.20$ ,  $p = 0.049$ ), supporting Hypothesis 1c. Additionally, there is a main effect for aggregate entitlement ( $\beta = -0.36$ ,  $SE = 0.14$ ,  $p = 0.010$ ), and for high accountability ( $\beta = 0.67$ ,  $SE = 0.15$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ).

**Table 3-6**

*Study 1: Perceived Overall Justice Regression with Entitlement and Accountability Condition Interaction*

DV: Justice Perceptions	Without Controls			With Controls			Accounting for PA&NA		
	Coef	Std. Err.	<i>p</i>	Coef	Std. Err.	<i>p</i>	Coef	Std. Err.	<i>p</i>
Entitlement	-0.37	0.13	0.007	-0.36	0.14	0.010	-0.30	0.12	0.014
High Accountability	0.68	0.15	0.000	0.67	0.15	0.000	0.52	0.13	0.000
Entitlement x Accountability Interaction	0.41	0.20	0.040	0.40	0.20	0.049	0.30	0.17	0.092
Age				0.00	0.01	0.671	-0.01	0.01	0.068
Gender				0.02	0.15	0.905	0.00	0.13	0.980
Race				-0.06	0.19	0.746	-0.16	0.16	0.304
Tenure				0.00	0.01	0.881	0.01	0.01	0.429
SES				0.01	0.04	0.869	-0.04	0.04	0.320
Positive Affect							0.36	0.08	0.000
Negative Affect							-0.89	0.12	0.000
Intercept	4.96	0.11	0.000	4.85	0.39	0.000	5.88	0.44	0.000

*Note.* N= 224. All variables included in interactions have been grand mean centered. For "Gender", male=1, all else=0. For "Race", White=1, all else=0. High Accountability = 1 when the experimental condition was high accountability, 0 when the condition was low accountability.

Examining the relationship between the facets of entitlement, accountability, and fairness perceptions, displayed in Table 7, reveals that the effect of rationalized entitlement on justice perceptions depends on how accountable the participant feels ( $\beta = 0.39$ ,  $SE = 0.15$ ,  $p = 0.010$ ). By contrast, the main effect of perceived victimization on justice perceptions ( $\beta = -0.20$ ,  $SE = 0.10$ ,  $p = 0.056$ ) is approaching significance and the main effect of high accountability is statistically significant ( $\beta = 0.62$ ,  $SE = 0.15$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ).

**Table 3-7**

*Study 1: Perceived Overall Justice Regression with Entitlement Subdimensions and Accountability Condition Interaction*

DV: Justice Perceptions	Without Controls			With Controls			Accounting for PA&NA		
	Coef	Std. Err.	<i>p</i>	Coef	Std. Err.	<i>p</i>	Coef	Std. Err.	<i>p</i>
Rationalized Expectations	-0.12	0.11	0.272	-0.10	0.11	0.359	-0.18	0.10	0.074
Self-Serving Attributions	-0.06	0.13	0.626	-0.05	0.13	0.682	-0.10	0.11	0.367
Perceived Victimization	-0.17	0.09	0.077	-0.20	0.10	0.056	-0.05	0.09	0.622
High Accountability	0.64	0.15	0.000	0.62	0.15	0.000	0.50	0.13	0.000
Expectations x Accountability Interaction	0.40	0.15	0.007	0.39	0.15	0.010	0.31	0.13	0.018
Attributions x Accountability Interaction	0.04	0.19	0.850	0.06	0.19	0.738	0.18	0.17	0.280
Victimization x Accountability Interaction	-0.16	0.15	0.277	-0.18	0.15	0.237	-0.23	0.13	0.084
Age				0.00	0.01	0.790	-0.01	0.01	0.101
Gender				0.02	0.15	0.906	-0.02	0.13	0.910
Race				-0.05	0.18	0.770	-0.16	0.16	0.309
Tenure				-0.01	0.01	0.490	0.00	0.01	0.704
SES				-0.04	0.05	0.347	-0.06	0.04	0.144
Positive Affect							0.35	0.08	0.000
Negative Affect							-0.86	0.12	0.000
Intercept	4.96	0.10	0.000	5.19	0.41	0.000	5.96	0.45	0.000

*Note.* N= 224. All variables included in interactions have been grand mean centered. For "Gender", male=1, all else=0. For "Race", White=1, all else=0. High Accountability = 1 when the experimental condition was high accountability, 0 when the condition was low accountability.

To test Hypotheses 1d, which states that the effect of entitlement on effort depends on the participant's level of accountability, a final multivariate regression was conducted using effort as the dependent variable. Results, displayed in Table 8, indicate Hypothesis 1d was not supported. In other words, inducing a high level of perceived accountability did not significantly moderate the effect of aggregate entitlement on effort ( $\beta = 0.13$ ,  $SE = 0.17$ ,  $p=0.436$ ). However, the main effect of aggregate entitlement on effort was approaching significance, such that the more entitled one is the more effort one put towards their work ( $\beta= 0.22$ ,  $SE=0.12$ ,  $p=0.056$ ).

**Table 3-8***Study 1: Effort Regression with Entitlement and Accountability Condition Interaction*

DV: Effort	Without Controls			With Controls			Accounting for PA&NA		
	Coef	Std. Err.	<i>p</i>	Coef	Std. Err.	<i>p</i>	Coef	Std. Err.	<i>p</i>
Entitlement	0.22	0.11	0.051	0.22	0.12	0.056	0.17	0.11	0.129
High Accountability	0.64	0.12	0.000	0.64	0.13	0.000	0.59	0.12	0.000
Entitlement x Accountability Interaction	0.15	0.16	0.367	0.13	0.17	0.436	0.12	0.16	0.459
Age				0.01	0.01	0.386	0.00	0.01	0.718
Gender				0.06	0.13	0.632	0.01	0.12	0.958
Race				-0.23	0.15	0.132	-0.27	0.15	0.067
Tenure				0.00	0.01	0.794	0.00	0.01	0.983
SES				0.04	0.03	0.288	0.02	0.03	0.568
Positive Affect							0.37	0.07	0.000
Negative Affect							-0.04	0.11	0.706
Intercept	3.15	0.09	0.000	2.89	0.32	0.000	2.26	0.40	0.000

*Note.* N= 224. All variables included in interactions have been grand mean centered. For "Gender", male=1, all else=0. For "Race", White=1, all else=0. High Accountability = 1 when the experimental condition was high accountability, 0 when the condition was low accountability.

The relationship between aggregate entitlement and effort may seem surprising at first, but exploring the relationship between the facets of entitlement and effort, displayed in Table 9 below, reveals that the only facet significantly related to effort is a self-serving attribution bias ( $\beta = 0.23$ ,  $SE = 0.11$ ,  $p = 0.038$ ). This result suggests that people who attribute their own successes internally and their failures externally put in more effort at work. None of the facets of entitlement interacted with accountability condition to significantly predict effort, although inducing high accountability did ( $\beta = 0.62$ ,  $SE = 0.13$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). See Table 9 below for results.

**Table 3-9**

*Study 1: Effort Regression with Entitlement Subdimensions and Accountability Condition Interaction*

DV: Effort	Without Controls			With Controls			Accounting for PA&NA		
	Coef	Std. Err.	<i>p</i>	Coef	Std. Err.	<i>p</i>	Coef	Std. Err.	<i>p</i>
Rationalized Expectations	0.00	0.09	0.974	-0.02	0.09	0.844	-0.11	0.09	0.236
Self-Serving Attributions	0.23	0.11	0.031	0.23	0.11	0.038	0.24	0.10	0.024
Perceived Victimization	0.01	0.08	0.863	0.03	0.09	0.773	0.04	0.08	0.605
High Accountability	0.63	0.12	0.000	0.62	0.13	0.000	0.57	0.12	0.000
Expectations x Accountability Interaction	0.14	0.12	0.262	0.15	0.13	0.237	0.15	0.12	0.208
Attributions x Accountability Interaction	0.04	0.16	0.816	0.03	0.16	0.845	0.06	0.15	0.697
Victimization x Accountability Interaction	-0.06	0.12	0.639	-0.06	0.13	0.629	-0.07	0.12	0.571
Age				0.01	0.01	0.444	0.00	0.01	0.669
Gender				0.02	0.13	0.858	-0.05	0.12	0.669
Race				-0.23	0.15	0.127	-0.28	0.14	0.057
Tenure				0.00	0.01	0.784	0.00	0.01	0.901
SES				0.01	0.04	0.883	-0.01	0.04	0.846
Positive Affect							0.40	0.07	0.000
Negative Affect							-0.03	0.11	0.773
Intercept	3.16	0.09	0.000	3.09	0.35	0.000	2.34	0.41	0.000

*Note.* N= 224. All variables included in interactions have been grand mean centered. For "Gender", male=1, all else=0. For "Race", White=1, all else=0. High Accountability = 1 when the experimental condition was high accountability, 0 when the condition was low accountability.

## Study 1 Discussion

Results from Study 1 provide several interesting insights. First, only one of the four hypotheses, 1c, was supported by demonstrating the relationship between entitlement and justice perceptions is statistically significantly moderated by feeling accountable ( $\beta = 0.40$ ,  $SE = 0.20$ ,  $p = 0.049$ ). While not moderated by felt accountability, entitlement did have a significant main effect on turnover intentions ( $\beta=0.23$ ,  $SE=0.11$ ,  $p=0.041$ ) and the main effect of entitlement on effort was nearing significance ( $\beta= 0.22$ ,  $SE=0.12$ ,  $p=0.056$ ). Exploring what may be driving the null results for hypotheses 1a, 1b, and 1d, as well as further explore the relationship of entitlement to perceptions of overall justice at work, the subdimensions of entitlement were used

to rerun the hypothesized regressions. Perceived victimization had a direct effect on turnover intentions ( $\beta = 0.19$ ,  $SE=0.08$ ,  $p=0.024$ ), whereas the interaction of high accountability with rationalized expectations on turnover intent was nearing significance ( $\beta = -0.22$ ,  $SE = 0.12$ ,  $p = 0.072$ ). While the interaction of expectations and accountability failed to achieve statistical significance, it is interesting to note that it may be in the opposite direction as the effect of victimization on turnover intentions. A similar pattern emerges for justice perceptions, as the interaction of feeling highly accountable and holding rationalized expectations significantly predicted justice perceptions ( $\beta= 0.39$ ,  $SE=0.15$ ,  $p=0.010$ ) and the main effect of perceiving oneself as a victim on justice perceptions neared significance ( $\beta= - 0.20$ ,  $SE = 0.10$ ,  $p = 0.056$ ) but in opposite directions. Effort, on the other hand, was solely predicted by self-serving attributions ( $\beta= 0.23$ ,  $SE=0.11$ ,  $p=0.038$ ). It is interesting to note that while entitlement on the whole is widely viewed as a negative characteristic, both self-serving attributions and rationalized expectations had positive relationships with workplace outcomes (i.e., increasing effort for all subjects and justice perceptions for participants perceiving high accountability). This could lend credence to the argument that entitlement develops as a cognitive defense mechanism (Grubbs & Exline, 2016). Also, when considering the relationship between self-serving attributions and effort it is also worth noting that these are self-report surveys, so it is possible that entitled employees think they are putting in more work, but their coworkers may not hold the same opinion. A more complete understanding of the context and causal mechanisms of these three dimensions may help untangle these mysteries.

Also, given that only one of four hypotheses were fully supported, more research is needed to uncover whether accountability can help managers make the most of their entitled employees. It is encouraging to note the significant moderating effect of inducing accountability

on justice perceptions for entitled workers, making entitled employees feel more accountable could help them perceive their workplace as being fairer, bringing their perceptions in line with their less entitled employees. Improving justice perceptions can also have many knock-on effects, as perceptions of the workplace as fair is central to many of the outcomes impacted by an employee's perception of the workplace and their supervisor's adherence to a social contract, such as counterproductive work behavior, organizational citizenship behavior, and leader-member exchange quality. However, a consistent, robust managerial intervention for entitlement in the workplace has yet to be found.

While the focus of this paper is on entitlement, a brief note regarding the main effects of accountability is warranted. Congruent with existing literature, accountability is related to many workplace outcomes. This sample shows the main effect of accountability can improve job satisfaction, justice perceptions and effort, even when controlling for positive and negative affect. While accountability may not be a panacea for entitlement, ensuring employees feel accountable in the workplace appears to have multiple benefits.

Finally, accountability appears to have a stronger moderating effect on the rationalization of expectations than on self-serving attributions or perceptions of victimization. The only significant interaction between the subdimensions of entitlement and accountability condition when including controls was the interactive effect of rationalized entitlement and accountability. This interaction was a significant predictor of justice perceptions and was nearing significance as a predictor of turnover intent. This is particularly worrisome as the effect of rationalized entitlement on workplace outcomes was generally positive. Removing rationalized entitlement without impacting the other facet of entitlement could have undesirable consequences. This

suggests that only with a proper understanding of the interplay between the facets of entitlement can we design interventions that will predictably result in beneficial outcomes.

## **Study 2: Gratitude Intervention**

### **Review of Gratitude and Psychological Entitlement**

Gratitude can be defined as the emotion that arises when an individual a) recognizes that she has obtained a positive outcome, and b) recognizes that there is an external source for this positive outcome (Emmons & McCullough, 2003). It can be a very powerful emotion, having been linked with such fundamental constructs as greater life satisfaction (Wood, Froh, & Geraghty, 2010), lower negative affect (Krause, 2009) and higher levels of happiness (Tucker, 2007). It is related to improved relationships (Wood, Joseph, and Maltby, 2009), helping behavior (Weiner and Graham, 1989), and willingness to forgive (DeShea, 2003). These powerful effects have been shown to be related to entitlement as well. Exline and Hill (2012) found that trait entitlement is negatively correlated to gratitude in two unique samples, and gratitude in response to an act of kindness from another person has also been found to be negatively related to trait entitlement (Exline, 2012). It's hard to imagine an individual feeling both grateful and entitled simultaneously. To explore why that is, we can turn to rationalized entitlement theory.

A key component to an entitled mindset is a perception of victimization. It is possible that if an entitled individual stops perceiving themselves as being victimized, they may reduce their entitled behavior. One aspect to the feeling of being victimized is its intense negative affect, akin to perceiving a personal injustice (Gabay, Hameiri, Rubel-Lifschitz, & Nadler, 2020). It does not feel good to feel taken advantage of. An interesting component of emotions, such as feeling victimized, is the bidirectionality between our feelings and the cognitions they are associated

with (Schwarz & Clore, 1996). In other words, emotions can be instigated with our thoughts or with our feelings. As an example of emotions forming from cognitions, it is common to feel angry when we think someone has taken something of value from us, whereas if we believe that loss is not anyone's fault, then we are more likely to feel sad. Interestingly, it has been shown that the emotions we feel can also be influenced by our mood. When we feel a quickened heartbeat, sweaty palms, hyper alertness, and are in a good mood we may think we feel excited about our surrounding and approach enthusiastically. If, however, we experience the same physiological conditions while in a bad mood we may think we feel nervous and withdraw from the situation. Whereas feeling victimized is associated with negative affect, gratitude is associated with high intensity positive affect. Feeling grateful puts us in a good mood. Inducing gratitude, and its positive affect, into subjects should stunt feelings of victimization, and thereby reduce the outcome of entitlement in the workplace.

Going beyond affect, gratitude should impact entitlement outcomes on an attributional basis as well. Gratitude is an attribution-dependent state (Weiner, 1985) that results from attributing the gain of a positive outcome to an external source (Emmons & McCullough, 2003). In other words, we only feel grateful when we believe someone else has done something nice for us. Because it is impossible to hold two incompatible beliefs simultaneously (Baron, 1984, 1976; Guthrie, 1930), we cannot attribute a gain to an external source and also engage in self-serving attributions. If we believe the benefit we received is because of someone else, it cannot also be attributed to ourselves. It is this incongruence between the attributions necessary to feel entitled and the attributions necessary to feel grateful that motivates Study 2.

## **Method**

### ***Participants***

As Study 1 and Study 2 were designed to be run in parallel, the sample for Study 2 was designed to be very similar to the sample for Study 1. Using the same sample size calculation from Study 1 resulted in the recruitment of 350 participants via the Prolific platform, with the goal of more than 100 subjects in each condition. Study 2 uses the same inclusion and exclusion criteria as Study 1. Of the 350 participants recruited for the study, 17 participants were removed from the dataset for missing data, four participants were removed for submitting responses from duplicate IP addresses, and six participants were removed for missing at least one attention check, leaving a working sample of 323 subjects. The increased gratitude condition included 105 participants while the decreased gratitude condition included 110 participants, which left 108 participants in the control condition. On average, participants in this sample were just over 38 years old, had worked in their job for seven years, and ranked their relative socio-economic status as 5.3 out of 10. The sample is about 48% male, with 154 of the 323 participants self-reporting as male. Sixty-seven percent of the sample, or 217 participants, self-report racially as White. See Table 10 for all descriptive statistics in this sample.

### ***Procedure***

The same procedure was followed in Study 2 as in Study 1. The two key differences in this study, which will be discussed in the following two sections, are 1) the inclusion of a gratitude measure in place of an accountability measure as a manipulation check and 2) the manipulation task participants engaged in.

**Table 3-10***Study 2: Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Matrix*

	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1 Entitlement	3.61	0.79	1.08	5.72	1.00															
2 Rationalized Expectations	4.36	1.05	1.00	6.00	0.73	1.00														
3 Self-Serving Attributions	3.42	1.00	1.00	6.00	0.80	0.43	1.00													
4 Perceived Victimization	3.06	1.12	1.00	6.00	0.73	0.22	0.40	1.00												
5 Age	38.22	11.70	19.00	86.00	-0.03	0.05	0.05	-0.15	1.00											
6 Gender	0.48	0.50	0.00	1.00	0.02	-0.03	0.14	-0.05	0.01	1.00										
7 Race	0.67	0.47	0.00	1.00	-0.22	-0.15	-0.21	-0.13	-0.02	0.10	1.00									
8 Tenure	7.00	6.98	0.10	50.00	0.08	0.12	0.11	-0.05	0.53	0.10	-0.10	1.00								
9 Socio-Economic Status	5.32	1.67	0.00	9.00	-0.07	0.04	0.13	-0.30	0.13	0.14	-0.06	0.10	1.00							
10 Positive Affect	3.25	0.92	1.00	5.00	0.07	0.15	0.13	-0.11	0.36	0.07	-0.17	0.23	0.16	1.00						
11 Negative Affect	1.32	0.54	1.00	4.00	0.26	0.01	0.16	0.39	-0.11	-0.02	-0.13	-0.11	-0.10	-0.06	1.00					
12 Gratitude	5.20	0.88	1.00	7.00	-0.18	0.04	-0.14	-0.30	0.22	-0.11	0.06	0.10	0.18	0.30	-0.25	1.00				
13 Effort	3.42	0.82	1.00	5.00	0.24	0.20	0.30	0.05	0.22	0.16	-0.09	0.18	0.11	0.48	-0.01	0.11	1.00			
14 Job Satisfaction	3.79	0.66	1.20	5.00	-0.11	0.13	-0.01	-0.34	0.19	0.08	-0.06	0.14	0.30	0.38	-0.25	0.33	0.29	1.00		
15 Turnover Intent	2.36	1.26	1.00	5.00	0.10	-0.08	0.00	0.28	-0.23	-0.11	-0.11	-0.14	-0.23	-0.26	0.29	-0.27	-0.12	-0.63	1.00	
16 Perceived Overall Justice	5.28	1.42	1.00	7.00	-0.13	0.09	-0.06	-0.30	0.16	0.09	0.04	0.07	0.19	0.27	-0.29	0.32	0.20	0.72	-0.62	1.00

Note. N= 323. For "Gender", male=1, all else=0. For "Race", White=1, all else=0. Correlations of .11 are significant at  $p<0.05$ , greater than .14 are significant at  $p<0.01$ , greater than 0.18 are significant at  $p<0.001$ .

### *Measures*

The same measures from Study 1 will be used in Study 2, with the exception of the felt accountability scale being replaced by a measure of gratitude, which is described below.

**Gratitude.** Gratitude was measured with McCullough, Emmons and Tsang's (2002) Grateful Questionnaire (GQ-6). This six-item measure uses a seven-point response format (1 = strong disagreement to 7 = strong agreement). Examples of items include "I have so much in life to be thankful for" and "I am grateful to a wide variety of people." The internal consistency for this scale in this sample is 0.75.

### *Manipulation*

The gratitude manipulation is inspired by the gratitude exercise from Martin Seligman's book, *Flourish* (2011; Seligman, Steen, Park, & Peterson, 2005). This incidental emotional induction technique is designed to focus participant's attention on the benefits they have received from someone else. Specifically, the "increased gratitude" condition was prompted to write for five minutes about a time when they received a cherished gift from someone else. This prompt is designed to align with the Emmons and McCullough (2003) definition of gratitude provided in the introduction to this study.

The prompt for "decreased gratitude" condition is designed to mirror the "increased gratitude" prompt. Participants were instructed to think of a time when they had a cherished gift taken from them by someone else. Participants were instructed to spend at least five minutes writing about this event, with the idea being to incidentally induce reduced feelings of gratitude. The control condition is prompted to write about an unrelated specific memory. To be precise, participants in the control condition were prompted to write about the first memory they have of that day. The prompt for the control group is designed to mirror the writing tasks in the two

treatment conditions, but without inducing any emotion. This is based on the assumption that the first memory of a day is not be as emotionally laden as a memory kept for years about either receiving a cherished gift or having a cherished gift taken away. In all three conditions participants are instructed to write a preemptive essay about their daily routine to disguise the nature of the study. Full copies of the writing prompts for each condition are included in the Appendix.

**Manipulation Check.** Results indicate that the writing tasks were not successful in manipulating the subjects' sense of gratitude. The mean score for gratitude in the control condition ( $M = 5.19$ ,  $SD = 0.81$ ) was not statistically significantly different from the mean gratitude in the decreased condition ( $M = 5.20$ ,  $SD = 0.96$ ;  $t_{(109)} = 0.09$ ,  $p = 0.537$ ). The average gratitude score in the control condition was also not significantly different from the mean in the increased gratitude condition ( $M = 5.21$ ,  $SD = 0.88$ ;  $t_{(104)} = 0.16$ ,  $p = 0.438$ ). Unfortunately, this indicates the writing tasks did not successfully induce different levels of gratitude in each condition. While this means the data in this sample cannot be treated as a traditional experiment and therefore the hypotheses in this paper cannot be tested as rigorously as planned, there is still value in this data. Following internal analysis practices allows for cross-sectional, correlational analyses can be done using gratitude as an individual difference. While not causal, this correlational analysis can still provide valuable insights into the relationship between entitlement, gratitude, and workplace outcomes.

### **Analysis and Results**

While the failed manipulation limits our ability to test Hypothesis 2a as rigorously as hoped, treating gratitude as a continuous individual difference variable allows us to still explore the relationship between entitlement, gratitude, and job satisfaction. Using ordinary least squares

multivariate regression analysis, job satisfaction was regressed on subject's entitlement, gratitude, and the interaction of the two. Both entitlement and gratitude were grand mean centered due to the interaction. The same set of control variables used in Study 1 were also included in Study 2. Entitlement did not significantly predict job satisfaction, nor was the interaction term statistically significant. Gratitude, however, was a strong predictor of job satisfaction ( $\beta = 0.20$ ,  $SE = 0.04$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). Results are displayed in Table 11 below.

**Table 3-11**

*Study 2: Job Satisfaction Regression with Entitlement and Gratitude Interaction*

DV: Job Satisfaction	Without Controls			With Controls			Accounting for PA&NA		
	Coef	Std. Err.	<i>p</i>	Coef	Std. Err.	<i>p</i>	Coef	Std. Err.	<i>p</i>
Entitlement	-0.04	0.04	0.369	-0.05	0.04	0.252	-0.05	0.04	0.287
Gratitude	0.24	0.04	0.000	0.20	0.04	0.000	0.13	0.04	0.001
Entitlement x Gratitude Interaction	0.07	0.05	0.118	0.08	0.05	0.084	0.06	0.04	0.175
Age				0.00	0.00	0.254	0.00	0.00	0.888
Gender				0.12	0.07	0.079	0.08	0.07	0.226
Race				-0.11	0.07	0.152	-0.06	0.07	0.383
Tenure				0.00	0.01	0.479	0.00	0.01	0.682
SES				0.09	0.02	0.000	0.08	0.02	0.000
Positive Affect							0.20	0.04	0.000
Negative Affect							-0.18	0.06	0.004
Intercept	2.69	0.29	0.000	2.28	0.31	0.000	2.47	0.31	0.000

*Note.* N= 323. All variables included in interactions have been grand mean centered. For "Gender", male=1, all else=0. For "Race", White=1, all else=0.

Exploratory analysis of the subdimensions of entitlement, displayed in Table 12 below, indicates that rationalized expectations have a significant positive relationship with job satisfaction ( $\beta = 0.09$ ,  $SE = 0.04$ ,  $p = 0.014$ ) and perceived victimization has a negative relationship with job satisfaction ( $\beta = - 0.16$ ,  $SE=0.04$ ,  $p<0.001$ ). Gratitude remains a significant predictor of job satisfaction ( $\beta = 0.17$ ,  $SE=0.04$ ,  $p<0.001$ ), but none of the subdimensions

interact with gratitude to predict job satisfaction. These results are robust whether accounting for affect or not.

**Table 3-12**

*Study 2: Job Satisfaction Regression with Entitlement Subdimensions and Gratitude Interaction*

DV: Job Satisfaction	Without Controls			With Controls			Accounting for PA&NA		
	Coef	Std. Err.	<i>p</i>	Coef	Std. Err.	<i>p</i>	Coef	Std. Err.	<i>p</i>
Rationalized Expectations	0.08	0.04	0.018	0.09	0.04	0.014	0.07	0.03	0.037
Self-Serving Attributions	0.08	0.04	0.052	0.02	0.04	0.689	0.00	0.04	0.981
Perceived Victimization	-0.21	0.03	0.000	-0.16	0.04	0.000	-0.13	0.04	0.000
Gratitude	0.18	0.04	0.000	0.17	0.04	0.000	0.11	0.04	0.006
Expectations x Gratitude Interaction	0.06	0.03	0.058	0.06	0.03	0.083	0.05	0.03	0.095
Attributions x Gratitude Interaction	-0.04	0.04	0.425	-0.02	0.04	0.711	-0.01	0.04	0.741
Victimization x Gratitude Interaction	0.03	0.03	0.302	0.02	0.03	0.470	0.01	0.03	0.703
Age				0.00	0.00	0.354	0.00	0.00	0.814
Gender				0.11	0.07	0.116	0.08	0.07	0.245
Race				-0.11	0.07	0.128	-0.07	0.07	0.347
Tenure				0.00	0.01	0.670	0.00	0.01	0.797
SES				0.06	0.02	0.005	0.06	0.02	0.005
Positive Affect							0.18	0.04	0.000
Negative Affect							-0.12	0.07	0.068
Intercept	2.86	0.28	0.000	2.53	0.31	0.000	2.56	0.31	0.000

*Note.* N= 323. All variables included in interactions have been grand mean centered. For "Gender", male=1, all else=0. For "Race", White=1, all else=0.

Hypothesis 2b, that gratitude moderates the relationship between entitlement and turnover intent, was explored with a parallel analysis to the one used above, as seen in Table 13 below. While neither aggregate entitlement nor the interaction of gratitude with entitlement significantly predicts turnover intent, a closer look at the subdimensions reveals a more interesting dynamic.

**Table 3-13***Study 2: Turnover Intent Regression with Entitlement and Gratitude Interaction*

DV: Turnover Intent	Without Controls			With Controls			Accounting for PA&NA		
	Coef	Std. Err.	<i>p</i>	Coef	Std. Err.	<i>p</i>	Coef	Std. Err.	<i>p</i>
Entitlement	0.08	0.09	0.369	0.04	0.09	0.645	0.00	0.09	0.970
Gratitude	-0.37	0.08	0.000	-0.29	0.08	0.000	-0.18	0.08	0.029
Entitlement x Gratitude Interaction	-0.07	0.09	0.445	-0.10	0.09	0.263	-0.05	0.09	0.540
Age				-0.02	0.01	0.020	-0.01	0.01	0.113
Gender				-0.25	0.13	0.068	-0.19	0.13	0.142
Race				-0.27	0.14	0.060	-0.29	0.14	0.042
Tenure				0.00	0.01	0.684	0.00	0.01	0.987
SES				-0.13	0.04	0.002	-0.11	0.04	0.005
Positive Affect							-0.23	0.08	0.004
Negative Affect							0.48	0.13	0.000
Intercept	4.01	0.56	0.000	5.34	0.60	0.000	4.68	0.62	0.000

*Note.* N= 323. All variables included in interactions have been grand mean centered. For "Gender", male=1, all else=0. For "Race", White=1, all else=0.

When we drill down to the level of entitlement's subdimensions, we untangle multiple significant relationships with turnover intent, as seen in Table 14. First, we find that perceived victimization, while not moderated by gratitude, has a consistent positive relationship with turnover intent ( $\beta = 0.25$ ,  $SE=0.07$ ,  $p=0.001$ ). The relationship between rationalized expectations and turnover intent, on the other hand, is significantly moderated by an individual's level of gratitude ( $\beta = -0.14$ ,  $SE=0.07$ ,  $p=0.030$ ). Finally, we also find that gratitude remains significant at both levels of analysis, when regressed alongside aggregate entitlement.

It is possible that perceived victimization is related to increased turnover intent simply because participants are in a worse mood. It is also possible that the effect of gratitude on turnover intent is the consequence of heightened positive affect. Including positive and negative affect in the above regression allows us to see whether the relationships hold even when

accounting for participant's mood. When we account for affect, the main effect of gratitude is bumped to the cutoff of significance, but the other effects remain significant, as seen in Table 14.

**Table 3-14**

*Study 2: Turnover Intent Regression with Entitlement Subdimensions and Gratitude Interaction*

DV: Turnover Intent	Without Controls			With Controls			Accounting for PA&NA		
	Coef	Std. Err.	<i>p</i>	Coef	Std. Err.	<i>p</i>	Coef	Std. Err.	<i>p</i>
Rationalized Expectations	-0.06	0.07	0.394	-0.08	0.07	0.244	-0.05	0.07	0.426
Self-Serving Attributions	-0.19	0.08	0.019	-0.12	0.08	0.174	-0.10	0.08	0.235
Perceived Victimization	0.34	0.07	0.000	0.25	0.07	0.001	0.17	0.07	0.025
Gratitude	-0.29	0.08	0.000	-0.24	0.08	0.003	-0.16	0.08	0.050
Expectations x Gratitude Interaction	-0.16	0.07	0.014	-0.14	0.07	0.030	-0.14	0.06	0.033
Attributions x Gratitude Interaction	0.20	0.09	0.025	0.15	0.09	0.089	0.15	0.09	0.078
Victimization x Gratitude Interaction	-0.08	0.07	0.228	-0.08	0.07	0.214	-0.05	0.06	0.455
Age				-0.01	0.01	0.029	-0.01	0.01	0.121
Gender				-0.19	0.14	0.158	-0.16	0.13	0.239
Race				-0.27	0.14	0.064	-0.28	0.14	0.052
Tenure				0.00	0.01	0.907	0.00	0.01	0.863
SES				-0.08	0.04	0.068	-0.08	0.04	0.061
Positive Affect							-0.21	0.08	0.008
Negative Affect							0.40	0.13	0.002
Intercept	3.74	0.55	0.000	4.86	0.61	0.000	4.48	0.63	0.000

*Note.* N= 323. All variables included in interactions have been grand mean centered. For "Gender", male=1, all else=0. For "Race", White=1, all else=0.

Hypothesis 2c, that gratitude moderates the relationship between entitlement and perceived overall justice, can be explored with a similar analysis as performed above but using justice perceptions as the dependent variable. Doing so reveals that gratitude has a significant relationship with justice perceptions ( $\beta = 0.45$ ,  $SE=0.09$ ,  $p<0.001$ ) that does not depend on an individual's level of entitlement. Results are displayed in Table 15 below.

**Table 3-15***Study 2: Perceived Overall Justice Regression with Entitlement and Gratitude Interaction*

DV: Perceived Overall Justice	Without Controls			With Controls			Accounting for PA&NA		
	Coef	Std. Err.	<i>p</i>	Coef	Std. Err.	<i>p</i>	Coef	Std. Err.	<i>p</i>
Entitlement	-0.13	0.10	0.181	-0.11	0.10	0.242	-0.07	0.10	0.472
Gratitude	0.49	0.09	0.000	0.45	0.09	0.000	0.32	0.09	0.001
Entitlement x Gratitude Interaction	0.16	0.10	0.117	0.18	0.10	0.080	0.13	0.10	0.202
Age				0.01	0.01	0.136	0.01	0.01	0.486
Gender				0.32	0.15	0.036	0.26	0.15	0.083
Race				0.02	0.16	0.898	0.05	0.16	0.756
Tenure				-0.01	0.01	0.623	-0.01	0.01	0.371
SES				0.10	0.05	0.031	0.08	0.04	0.066
Positive Affect							0.28	0.09	0.002
Negative Affect							-0.52	0.14	0.000
Intercept	3.21	0.62	0.000	2.27	0.69	0.001	2.98	0.71	0.000

*Note.* N= 323. All variables included in interactions have been grand mean centered. For "Gender", male=1, all else=0. For "Race", White=1, all else=0.

Analysis of the subdimensions of entitlement, displayed in Table 16 below, indicates that rationalized expectations have a significant positive relationship with overall justice perceptions ( $\beta = 0.18$ , SE = 0.08,  $p = 0.021$ ) and perceived victimization has a negative relationship with justice perceptions ( $\beta = -0.26$ , SE=0.08,  $p=0.002$ ). Gratitude remains a significant predictor of justice perceptions ( $\beta = 0.38$ , SE=0.09,  $p<0.001$ ), but none of the subdimensions interact with gratitude to predict justice perceptions. It is interesting that gratitude, an affect-laden emotion, persists as a predictor of justice perceptions even when controlling for positive and negative affect. Once again, analysis is resulting in a similar pattern of results as previous tests. This will be touched upon in the discussion of this study and the general discussion.

**Table 3-16**

*Study 2: Perceived Overall Justice Regression with Entitlement Subdimensions and Gratitude Interaction*

DV: Perceived Overall Justice	Without Controls			With Controls			Accounting for PA&NA		
	Coef	Std. Err.	<i>p</i>	Coef	Std. Err.	<i>p</i>	Coef	Std. Err.	<i>p</i>
Rationalized Expectations	0.16	0.08	0.043	0.18	0.08	0.021	0.15	0.08	0.051
Self-Serving Attributions	0.04	0.09	0.698	-0.05	0.10	0.635	-0.07	0.09	0.483
Perceived Victimization	-0.33	0.08	0.000	-0.26	0.08	0.002	-0.17	0.08	0.042
Gratitude	0.39	0.09	0.000	0.38	0.09	0.000	0.29	0.09	0.002
Expectations x Gratitude Interaction	0.08	0.08	0.318	0.06	0.08	0.398	0.06	0.07	0.443
Attributions x Gratitude Interaction	0.02	0.10	0.815	0.06	0.10	0.538	0.06	0.10	0.537
Victimization x Gratitude Interaction	0.05	0.07	0.516	0.04	0.07	0.624	0.00	0.07	0.991
Age				0.01	0.01	0.181	0.00	0.01	0.516
Gender				0.32	0.15	0.036	0.28	0.15	0.064
Race				0.02	0.16	0.916	0.04	0.16	0.791
Tenure				-0.01	0.01	0.493	-0.01	0.01	0.331
SES				0.06	0.05	0.227	0.06	0.05	0.218
Positive Affect							0.26	0.09	0.004
Negative Affect							-0.43	0.15	0.004
Intercept	3.46	0.62	0.000	2.65	0.70	0.000	3.03	0.72	0.000

*Note.* N= 323. All variables included in interactions have been grand mean centered. For "Gender", male=1, all else=0. For "Race", White=1, all else=0.

The final Hypothesis, 2d, is explored using the same process as above. Both entitlement ( $\beta = 0.26$ ,  $SE=0.06$ ,  $p<0.001$ ) and gratitude ( $\beta = 0.11$ ,  $SE = 0.05$ ,  $p = 0.025$ ) are significantly related to effort, although their interaction is not significant, as can be seen in Table 17 below. It is interesting to note that this is the first test in this study where overall entitlement has had a significant main effect on a workplace outcome like effort. Further exploration into the effect of each facet may help illuminate these strong results.

**Table 3-17***Study 2: Effort Regression with Entitlement and Gratitude Interaction*

DV: Effort	Without Controls			With Controls			Accounting for PA&NA		
	Coef	Std. Err.	<i>p</i>	Coef	Std. Err.	<i>p</i>	Coef	Std. Err.	<i>p</i>
Entitlement	0.27	0.06	0.000	0.26	0.06	0.000	0.23	0.05	0.000
Gratitude	0.15	0.05	0.004	0.11	0.05	0.025	0.01	0.05	0.859
Entitlement x Gratitude Interaction	0.04	0.06	0.531	0.04	0.06	0.466	0.03	0.05	0.523
Age				0.01	0.00	0.004	0.00	0.00	0.316
Gender				0.27	0.09	0.003	0.19	0.08	0.017
Race				-0.07	0.09	0.432	0.04	0.09	0.624
Tenure				0.00	0.01	0.719	0.00	0.01	0.773
SES				0.03	0.03	0.254	0.02	0.02	0.474
Positive Affect							0.37	0.05	0.000
Negative Affect							-0.03	0.08	0.706
Intercept	1.68	0.36	0.000	1.15	0.39	0.004	1.00	0.38	0.010

*Note.* N= 323. All variables included in interactions have been grand mean centered. For "Gender", male=1, all else=0. For "Race", White=1, all else=0.

Exploratory analysis of the subdimensions of entitlement, displayed in Table 18 below, indicates that it is self-serving attributions ( $\beta = 0.21$ ,  $SE=0.06$ ,  $p<0.001$ ) that are driving the overall effects of entitlement on effort. The main effect of gratitude remains a significant predictor of effort ( $\beta = 0.38$ ,  $SE=0.09$ ,  $p<0.001$ ), but none of the subdimensions interact with gratitude to predict effort. When accounting for affect, the main effect of gratitude on effort loses statistical significance but self-serving attributions remain significant.

## Study 2 Discussion

The results from Study 2 reveal a similar pattern as the results from Study 1. Particularly, we again see the unique relationships the subdimensions of entitlement have with workplace outcomes. Rationalized expectations and perceived victimization both predicted job satisfaction and perceived overall justice, but in opposite directions. Again, effort was predicted by self-serving attributions, at least from the perspective of the entitled individual. The replication

**Table 3-18***Study 2: Effort Regression with Entitlement Subdimensions and Gratitude Interaction*

DV: Effort	Without Controls			With Controls			Accounting for PA&NA		
	Coef	Std. Err.	<i>p</i>	Coef	Std. Err.	<i>p</i>	Coef	Std. Err.	<i>p</i>
Rationalized Expectations	0.04	0.05	0.336	0.05	0.05	0.255	0.03	0.04	0.480
Self-Serving Attributions	0.27	0.05	0.000	0.21	0.06	0.000	0.18	0.05	0.001
Perceived Victimization	-0.05	0.04	0.305	-0.01	0.05	0.910	0.01	0.05	0.746
Gratitude	0.13	0.05	0.017	0.11	0.05	0.036	0.02	0.05	0.745
Expectations x Gratitude Interaction	0.06	0.04	0.172	0.05	0.04	0.230	0.05	0.04	0.255
Attributions x Gratitude Interaction	-0.06	0.06	0.311	-0.04	0.06	0.536	-0.03	0.05	0.603
Victimization x Gratitude Interaction	0.03	0.04	0.516	0.02	0.04	0.717	0.01	0.04	0.828
Age				0.01	0.00	0.008	0.00	0.00	0.374
Gender				0.22	0.09	0.012	0.16	0.08	0.048
Race				-0.07	0.09	0.463	0.04	0.09	0.613
Tenure				0.00	0.01	0.787	0.00	0.01	0.805
SES				0.01	0.03	0.825	0.00	0.03	0.969
Positive Affect							0.37	0.05	0.000
Negative Affect							-0.02	0.08	0.817
Intercept	1.79	0.36	0.000	1.35	0.41	0.001	1.11	0.39	0.005

*Note.* N= 323. All variables included in interactions have been grand mean centered. For "Gender", male=1, all else=0. For "Race", White=1, all else=0.

of these findings in Study 1 and Study 2 provides evidence that the measures in this study, and the underlying constructs they represent, are valid and generalizable.

As with accountability, it is worth briefly noting the impact of gratitude on workplace outcomes. While the failed manipulation eliminates the potential for examining the causal effect of increasing or decreasing gratitude, general statements regarding the correlational relationship between the main effect of gratitude and workplace outcomes while accounting for entitlement and its interaction with gratitude are still valid. We see that gratitude improved all four workplace outcomes, and those effects persisted when controlling for positive and negative

affect for all outcomes but effort. Instilling gratitude in the workplace appears to be highly beneficial regardless of whether or not employees in the workplace are entitled.

Where accountability interacted with rationalized expectations to predict justice perceptions in Study 1, it is turnover intentions that are significantly predicted by the interaction of rationalized expectations and gratitude in Study 2. It is interesting to note that while the criterion variables and the moderating variables changed between studies, rationalized expectations remained consistent between studies. While we must be careful with interpretations given the failed gratitude intervention, the fact that Study 1 and Study 2 both demonstrated a similar pattern of results despite gratitude and accountability being intended to impact entitlement through different mechanisms (i.e., more affective versus more cognitive) is certainly noteworthy. This could indicate that rationalized expectations are the entry point to unraveling entitlement more generally, or it could indicate that current interventions simply lower expectations without addressing the underlying mindset of entitlement more broadly. Again, a more robust understanding of the causal interplay between dimensions will be crucial in achieving this much needed clarity.

### **General Discussion**

In contrast to how entitlement has been treated in prior research, results from Study 1 and Study 2 indicate that entitlement is not a monolithic force with a homogenous impact on workplace outcomes. Instead, it is a nuanced construct with multiple dimensions that each have a unique nomological network. This may help explain the heterogenous results in prior literature, as prior scales may be capturing more or less of certain dimensions. For instance, in Chapter 2 - Sample 3 we saw the Psychological Entitlement Scale (PES) shows a correlation with rationalized expectations of 0.67 and 0.55 with self-serving attributions, but only 0.27 with

victimization. It could be that the issues with entitlement in the workplace are less about excessive entitlement (Fisk, 2010) and more about the specific manifestation of entitlement. It is possible that showing elevated levels of self-serving attributions and rationalized entitlement, in certain contexts, may be beneficial. More research is needed to fully understand the underlying psychological mechanisms and develop effective interventions to improve workplace outcomes for entitled employees, their coworkers, and their supervisors.

In this chapter, perceptions of the self as a victim were related to undesirable outcomes in job satisfaction, turnover intent, and justice perceptions for at least one if not both studies. Perceived victimization tended to increase turnover intentions in Study 1, and in Study 2 it predicted lower job satisfaction, lower justice perceptions, and more turnover intent. For the most part, the effect of victimization was not influenced by the moderating variables, accountability and gratitude.

Rationalized expectations, on the other hand, were more likely to significantly interact with moderating variables. In Study 1 expectations interacted with accountability to predict justice perceptions, and in Study 2 expectations interacted with gratitude to predict turnover intent. The interaction of rationalized expectations and accountability in Study 1 was trending in the same direction as Study 2, although not quite reaching statistical significance at the  $p < 0.05$  level. The main effect of rationalized expectations on justice perceptions in Study 1 was also trending, also not quite reaching statistical significance. Overall, the effects of rationalized entitlement on these particular workplace outcomes appear to be positive, particularly when feeling accountable or grateful.

Self-serving attributions demonstrated a unique relationship with the fourth criterion variable, effort. The main effect of self-serving attributions was positively related to effort such

that the more one engaged in the cognitive bias, the more effort one puts in at work. While this may seem counterintuitive at first, when considering the world view from the perspective of the entitled individual, the effect begins to make more sense. Perhaps, believing that anything I do results in positive outcomes and the negative outcomes in my life are not the result of my efforts makes me believe that my life will be better the more I do. The long-term consequences of this mindset are unclear, but logically it should result in increased effort, at least in the short term.

Accountability and gratitude each had strong effects on workplace outcomes as well. Inducing high levels of perceived accountability, compared to low levels of accountability, resulted in higher job satisfaction, more perceptions of the workplace as fair, increased effort, and decreased turnover intent. While conclusions from study 2 are limited to correlational, gratitude is positively related to job satisfaction, justice perceptions, and effort while being negatively related to turnover intent.

Overall, these findings bring good news and bad news to managers looking for a solution to the challenge of managing entitled employees. Unfortunately, an effective intervention for entitlement in the workplace has yet to be found. The only dimension of entitlement significantly moderated by either gratitude or inducing high or low levels of accountability was rationalized expectations. Rationalized expectations appear to be related to beneficial outcomes at work, such as fairness perceptions, and it is not yet clear that moderating the effects of rationalized expectations improves workplace conditions for anyone.

The good news, however, is that we appear to have gained a more nuanced understanding of entitlement. These results reinforce the fact that entitlement is not monolithic and should not be treated as such. While these facets tend to co-occur with each other, each dimension of entitlement has its own relationship to workplace outcomes, potentially in conflict with each

other. Now that we have a better understanding of what constitutes an entitled mindset, we can begin to untangle the underlying processes. By increasing our understanding of the dynamics between these dimensions and the processes that lead to their emergence we can begin to form interventions targeting those processes specifically.

### **Limitations and Future Directions**

While the findings in these two studies are compelling, there are limitations to this research that deserve to be mentioned. First, the failed gratitude manipulation clearly limits the ability to interpret results from that study beyond correlational. While there is still value in correlational data, causal inferences are limited. Fortunately the pattern of results in Study 1, where the manipulation was effective, share many similarities with the pattern of results in Study 2, increasing confidence in the results generally.

Second, a current limitation of rationalized entitlement theory, as stated in Chapter 1, is that it is unclear the extent to which the underlying processes of entitlement, namely rationalizing one's desires into expectations, engaging in self-serving attributions, and perceiving oneself as a victim, are conscious or subconscious processes. The rationalized entitlement measure, as with any rating scale, measures conscious beliefs. That may leave some aspects of entitlement, particularly the subconscious aspects, uncaptured with this measure. This is true of many surveys attempting to capture psychological processes, but that does not diminish its veracity. Future research into entitlement should attempt to fully capture both the conscious and potentially subconscious aspects of entitlement.

Third, all data in these studies are self-reported. Beyond common method bias, asking participants that are hypothesized to engage in self-directed cognitive biases to rate themselves may result in biased results. While self-report surveys can be an efficient and economical

method to explore a relatively new construct, future research should include third party ratings to increase the validity of the results. Multiple sources of data, ideally captured using multiple methods, will help triangulate an accurate nomological network for entitlement and its subdimensions as well as addressing the potential for common method bias.

### **Conclusion**

In this chapter, the effects of entitlement in the workplace and two potential intervention methods, the induction of accountability or gratitude, are tested using full experimental designs. While the gratitude manipulation did not work, inducing high levels of accountability was found to moderate justice perceptions more so for entitled employees. Entitlement was found to have a complicated relationship with many workplace outcomes, with subdimensions having unique relationships with job satisfaction, turnover intent, justice perceptions, and effort. Psychological entitlement is more nuanced than previously thought, and care must be taken when attempting to “fix” entitled employees or managers may be left to deal with unintended consequences.

### References

- Ackerman, R. A., Witt, E. A., Donnellan, M. B., Trzesniewski, K. H., Robins, R. W., & Kashy, D. A. (2011). What does the narcissistic personality inventory really measure? *Assessment, 18*(1), 67-87. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1073191110382845>
- Adams, J. S. (1965). Inequity in social exchange. In L. Berkowitz (Ed.) *Advances in experimental social psychology* (Vol. 2, pp. 267-299). Academic Press. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0065-2601\(08\)60108-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0065-2601(08)60108-2)
- Ambrose, M. L., & Schminke, M. (2009). The role of overall justice judgments in organizational justice research: a test of mediation. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 94*(2), 491. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0013203>
- Arifin, W. N. (2024). Sample size calculator (web). Retrieved from <http://wnarifin.github.io>
- Aristotle. (1925). *Nicomachean ethics: Book II*. (W.D. Ross, Trans.). The Internet Classics Archive. <http://classics.mit.edu/Aristotle/nicomachaen.2.ii.html> (Original work published 350 B.C.E)
- Armaly, M. T., & Enders, A. M. (2021). “Why Me?” The Role of Perceived Victimhood in American Politics. *Political Behavior, 44*, 1583-1609. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11109-020-09662-x>
- Bala Subramanian, R., Srikanth, P. B., & Thakur, M. (2022). Influence of distributive justice on organizational citizenship behaviors: The mediating role of gratitude. *Frontiers in Psychology, 13*, 974405. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2022.974405>
- Bandura, A. (1999). Moral disengagement in the perpetration of inhumanities. *Personality and Social Psychology Review, 3*(3), 193-209. [https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327957pspr0303\\_3](https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327957pspr0303_3)

Baron, R. A. (1976). The Reduction of Human Aggression: A Field Study of the Influence of Incompatible Reactions 1. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 6(3), 260-274.

<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1559-1816.1976.tb01330.x>

Baron, R. A. (1984). Reducing organizational conflict: An incompatible response approach. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 69(2), 272-279. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.69.2.272>

Barsky, A., & Kaplan, S. A. (2007). If you feel bad, it's unfair: A quantitative synthesis of affect and organizational justice perceptions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92(1), 286-295.

<https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.92.1.286>

Bartlett, M. Y., & DeSteno, D. (2006). Gratitude and prosocial behavior: Helping when it costs you. *Psychological Science*, 17(4), 319-325. [https://doi-](https://doi.org.colorado.idm.oclc.org/10.1111/j.1467-9280.2006.01705.x)

[org.colorado.idm.oclc.org/10.1111/j.1467-9280.2006.01705.x](https://doi.org.colorado.idm.oclc.org/10.1111/j.1467-9280.2006.01705.x)

Batson, C. D., Klein, T. R., Highberger, L., & Shaw, L. L. (1995). Immorality from empathy-induced altruism: When compassion and justice conflict. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 68(6), 1042-1054. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.68.6.1042>

Baumeister, R. F., & Vohs, K. D. (2001). Narcissism as addiction to esteem. *Psychological Inquiry*, 12(4), 206-210. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.107.2.238>

Bentler, P. M. (1990). Comparative fit indexes in structural models. *Psychological Bulletin*, 107(2), 238-246. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.107.2.238>

Bishop, J., & Lane, R. C. (2002). The dynamics and dangers of entitlement. *Psychoanalytic Psychology*, 19(4), 739-758. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0736-9735.19.4.739>

Black, H. C. (1990). *Black's law dictionary*. St. Paul, MN: West Publishing.

- Bradley, G. W. (1978). Self-serving biases in the attribution process: A reexamination of the fact or fiction question. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 36(1), 56-71.  
<https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.36.1.56>
- Brant, K. K., & Castro, S. L. (2019). You can't ignore millennials: Needed changes and new way forward in entitlement research. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 29(4), 527-538.  
<https://doi.org/10.1111/1748-8583.12262>
- Brown, R. P., Budzek, K., & Tamborski, M. (2009). On the meaning and measure of narcissism. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 35(7), 951-964.  
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0146167209335461>
- Brown, S. P., & Leigh, T. W. (1996). A new look at psychological climate and its relationship to job involvement, effort, and performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 81(4), 358.  
<https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.81.4.358>
- Buschor, C., Proyer, R. T., & Ruch, W. (2013). Self- and peer-rated character strengths: How do they relate to satisfaction with life and orientations to happiness? *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, 8(2), 116–127. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17439760.2012.758305>
- Byrne, Z. S., Miller, B. K., & Pitts, V. E. (2010). Trait entitlement and perceived favorability of human resource management practices in the prediction of job satisfaction. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 25, 451-464. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-009-9143-z>
- Cammann, C., Fichman, M., Jenkins, D., & Klesh, J. (1979). The Michigan organizational assessment questionnaire. *Unpublished manuscript*. University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, 71, 138. <https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/t01581-000>

- Campbell, W. K., & Sedikides, C. (1999). Self-threat magnifies the self-serving bias: A meta-analytic integration. *Review of General Psychology, 3*(1), 23-43.  
<https://doi.org/10.1037/1089-2680.3.1.23>
- Campbell, W. K., Bonacci, A. M., Shelton, J., Exline, J. J., & Bushman, B. J. (2004). Psychological entitlement: Interpersonal consequences and validation of a self-report measure. *Journal of Personality Assessment, 83*(1), 29-45.  
[https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327752jpa8301\\_04](https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327752jpa8301_04)
- Chen, F. F. (2007). Sensitivity of goodness of fit indexes to lack of measurement invariance. *Structural Equation Modeling: A Multidisciplinary Journal, 14*(3), 464-504.  
<https://doi.org/10.1080/10705510701301834>
- Chowning, K., & Campbell, N. J. (2009). Development and validation of a measure of academic entitlement: Individual differences in students' externalized responsibility and entitled expectations. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 101*(4), 982-997.  
<https://doi.org/10.1037/a0016351>
- Clore, G. L., Ortony, A., & Foss, M. A. (1987). The psychological foundations of the affective lexicon. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 53*(4), 751-766.  
<https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.53.4.751>
- Cohen, A. R., Stotland, E., & Wolfe, D. M. (1955). An experimental investigation of need for cognition. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 51*(2), 291-294.  
<https://doi.org/10.1037/h0042761>
- Cohn, M. A., Fredrickson, B. L., Brown, S. L., Mikels, J. A., & Conway, A. M. (2009). Happiness unpacked: Positive emotions increase life satisfaction by building resilience. *Emotion, 9*(3), 361-368. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0015952>

- Colquitt, J. A., Sabey, T. B., Rodell, J. B., & Hill, E. T. (2019). Content validation guidelines: Evaluation criteria for definitional correspondence and definitional distinctiveness. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 104*(10), 1243-1265.  
<https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000406>
- Converse, P. D., Piccone, K., Lockamy, C. N., Miloslavice, S. A., Mysiak, K., & Pathak, J. (2014). The influence of perceived accountability and outcome interdependence on goals and effort. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 44*(3), 210-219.  
<https://doi.org/10.1111/jasp.12216>
- Cortini, M., Converso, D., Galanti, T., Di Fiore, T., Di Domenico, A., & Fantinelli, S. (2019). Gratitude at work works! A mix-method study on different dimensions of gratitude, job satisfaction, and job performance. *Sustainability, 11*(14), 3902.  
<https://doi.org/10.3390/su11143902>
- Cronbach, L. J., & Meehl, P. E. (1955). Construct validity in psychological tests. *Psychological Bulletin, 52*(4), 281. <https://doi.org/10.1037/h0040957>
- Cropanzano, R., & Ambrose, M. A. (2015) (Eds.). *The oxford handbook of justice in the workplace*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.  
<https://doi.org/10.1093/oxfordhb/9780199981410.001.0001>
- Cropanzano, R., & Mitchell, M. S. (2005). Social Exchange Theory: An Interdisciplinary Review. *Journal of Management, 31*(6), 874-900.  
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206305279602>
- Derber, C. (1978). Unemployment and the entitled worker: Job-entitlement and radical political attitudes among the youthful unemployed. *Social Problems, 26*(1), 26-37.  
<https://doi.org/10.2307/800430>

- DeShea, L. (2003). A scenario-based scale of willingness to forgive. *Individual Differences Research, 1*(3), 201-217.
- Edwards, J. R. (2001). Multidimensional constructs in organizational behavior research: An integrative analytical framework. *Organizational Research Methods, 4*(2), 144-192.  
<https://doi.org/10.1177/109442810142004>
- Emmons, R. A. (1984). Factor analysis and construct validity of the narcissistic personality inventory. *Journal of Personality Assessment, 48*(3), 291-300.  
[https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327752jpa4803\\_11](https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327752jpa4803_11)
- Emmons, R. A., & McCullough, M. E. (2003). Counting blessings versus burdens: An experimental investigation of gratitude and subjective well-being in daily life. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 84*(2), 377-389. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.84.2.377>
- Emmons, R. A., & Shelton, C. M. (2002). Gratitude and the science of positive psychology. In C.R. Snyder & S.J. Lopez (Eds.), *Handbook of Positive Psychology*, pp. 459-471. New York: Oxford University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1093/oso/9780195135336.003.0033>
- Exline, J. J. (2012). Humility and the ability to receive from others. *Journal of Psychology and Christianity, 31*(1), 40-50.
- Exline, J. J., & Hill, P. C. (2012). Humility: A consistent and robust predictor of generosity. *The Journal of Positive Psychology, 7*(3), 208-218.  
<https://doi.org/10.1080/17439760.2012.671348>
- Fagley, N. S., & Adler, M. G. (2012). Appreciation: A spiritual path to finding value and meaning in the workplace. *Journal of management, spirituality & religion, 9*(2), 167-187.  
<https://doi.org/10.1080/14766086.2012.688621>

- Farwell, L., & Wohlwend-Lloyd, R. (1998). Narcissistic processes: Optimistic expectations, favorable self-evaluations, and self-enhancing attributions. *Journal of Personality, 66*(1), 65-83. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-6494.00003>
- Feather, N. T. (1999). Judgments of deservingness: Studies in the psychology of justice and achievement. *Personality and Social Psychology Review, 3*(2), 86-107. [https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327957pspr0302\\_1](https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327957pspr0302_1)
- Fehr, R., Fulmer, A., Awtrey, E., & Miller, J. A. (2017). The grateful workplace: A multilevel model of gratitude in organizations. *Academy of Management Review, 42*(2), 361-381. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2014.0374>
- Festinger, L. (1954). A theory of social comparison processes. *Human relations, 7*(2), 117-140. <https://doi.org/10.1177/001872675400700202>
- Festinger, L. (1957). A theory of cognitive dissonance. Evanston, 111. Row, Peterson. <https://doi.org/10.1515/9781503620766>
- Fetchenhauer, D., & Huang, X. (2004). Justice sensitivity and distributive decisions in experimental games. *Personality and Individual Differences, 36*(5), 1015-1029. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0191-8869\(03\)00197-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0191-8869(03)00197-1)
- Field, A. (2013). *Discovering statistics using IBM SPSS statistics*. Sage.
- Fisk, G. M. (2010). "I want it all and I want it now!" An examination of the etiology, expression, and escalation of excessive employee entitlement. *Human Resource Management Review, 20*(2), 102-114. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hrmr.2009.11.001>
- Folger, R. (1986). Rethinking equity theory: A referent cognitions model. In H. W Bierhoff, R. L. Cohen, & J. Greenberg (Eds.), *Justice in social relations* (pp. 145-164). Plenum.

- Folger, R., & Cropanzano, R. (2001). Fairness theory: Justice as accountability. In J. Greenberg, & R. Cropanzano (Eds.), *Advances in organizational justice* (pp. 1–55). Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press. ISBN: 0-8047-4132-8
- Fredrickson, B. L. (2001). The role of positive emotions in positive psychology: The broaden-and-build theory of positive emotions. *American Psychologist*, *56*(3), 218–226. <https://doi-org.colorado.idm.oclc.org/10.1037/0003-066X.56.3.218>
- Fredrickson, B. L. (2013). Positive emotions broaden and build. In P. Devine & A. Plant (Eds.) *Advances in experimental social psychology*, (Vol. 47, pp. 1-53). Academic Press. <https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-407236-7.00001-2>
- Freud, S. (2015). *Civilization and its discontents*. Broadview Press.
- Frink, D. D., & Klimoski, R. J. (1998). Toward a theory of accountability in organizations and human resources management. In G. R. Ferris (Ed.), *Research in personnel and human resources management* (Vol. 16, pp. 1–50). JAI Press. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0742-7301\(08\)27005-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0742-7301(08)27005-2)
- Frink, D. D., Hall, A. T., Perryman, A. A., Ranft, A. L., Hochwarter, W. A., Ferris, G. R., & Todd Royle, M. (2008). Meso-level theory of accountability in organizations. In J.J. Martocchio (Ed.) *Research in personnel and human resources management*, pp. 177-245. Emerald Group Publishing Limited. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0742-7301\(08\)27005-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0742-7301(08)27005-2)
- Garg, N., Mahipalan, M., & Sharma, N. (2023). Does workplace toxicity influence turnover intentions among Indian healthcare employees? Investigating the moderating role of gratitude. *Journal of Health Organization and Management*, *37*(2), 250-272. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JHOM-08-2022-0233>

- Gloria, C. T., & Steinhardt, M. A. (2016). Relationships among positive emotions, coping, resilience and mental health. *Stress and health, 32*(2), 145-156.  
<https://doi.org/10.1002/smi.2589>
- Gouldner, A. W. (1960). The norm of reciprocity: A preliminary statement. *American sociological review, 25*(2), 161-178. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2092623>
- Grubbs, J. B., & Exline, J. J. (2016). Trait entitlement: A cognitive-personality source of vulnerability to psychological distress. *Psychological Bulletin, 142*(11), 1204-1226.  
<https://doi.org/10.1037/bul0000063>
- Guthrie, E. R. (1930). Conditioning as a principle of learning. *Psychological Review, 37*(5), 412-428. <https://doi.org/10.1037/h0072172>
- Hall, A. T., & Ferris, G. R. (2011). Accountability and extra-role behavior. *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal, 23*, 131-144. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10672-010-9148-9>
- Hall, A. T., Frink, D. D., & Buckley, M. R. (2017). An accountability account: A review and synthesis of the theoretical and empirical research on felt accountability. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 38*(2), 204-224. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.2052>
- Hall, A. T., Frink, D. D., Ferris, G. R., Hochwarter, W. A., Kacmar, C. J., & Bowen, M. G. (2003). Accountability in human resources management. In C.A. Schriesheim & L.L. Neider (Eds.) *New Directions in Human Resource Management*, pp. 29-63. Information Age Publishing.
- Haselton, M. G., Nettle, D., & Andrews, P. W. (2015). The evolution of cognitive bias. In D.M. Buss (Ed.) *The handbook of evolutionary psychology*, pp. 724-746.  
<https://doi.org/10.1002/9781119125563.evpsych241>

- Harvey, P., & Dasborough, M. T. (2015). Entitled to solutions: The need for research on workplace entitlement. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 36*(3), 460-465.  
<https://doi.org/10.1002/job.1989>
- Harvey, P., & Harris, K. J. (2010). Frustration-based outcomes of entitlement and the influence of supervisor communication. *Human Relations, 63*(11), 1639-1660.  
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0018726710362923>
- Harvey, P., & Martinko, M. J. (2009). An empirical examination of the role of attributions in psychological entitlement and its outcomes. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 30*(4), 459-476. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.549>
- Harvey, P., Harris, K. J., Gillis, W. E., & Martinko, M. J. (2014). Abusive supervision and the entitled employee. *Leadership Quarterly, 25*(2), 204-217.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2013.08.001>
- Heaphy, E. D., & Dutton, J. E. (2008). Positive social interactions and the human body at work: Linking organizations and physiology. *Academy of Management Review, 33*(1), 137-162.  
<https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2008.27749365>
- Hinkin, T. R. (1998). A brief tutorial on the development of measures for use in survey questionnaires. *Organizational Research Methods, 1*(1), 104-121.  
<https://doi.org/10.1177/109442819800100106>
- Hinkin, T. R., & Tracey, J. B. (1999). An analysis of variance approach to content validation. *Organizational Research Methods, 2*(2), 175-186.  
<https://doi.org/10.1177/109442819922004>
- Hochwarter, W. A., Meurs, J. A., Perrewé, P. L., Todd Royle, M., & Matherly, T. A. (2007). The interactive effect of attention control and the perceptions of others' entitlement behavior

on job and health outcomes. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 22(5), 506-528.

<https://doi.org/10.1108/02683940710757227>

Hochwarter, W. A., Summers, J. K., Thompson, K. W., Perrewé, P. L., & Ferris, G. R. (2010).

Strain reactions to perceived entitlement behavior by others as a contextual stressor:

Moderating role of political skill in three samples. *Journal of Occupational Health*

*Psychology*, 15(4), 388-398. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0020523>

Holderness Jr, D. K., Olsen, K. J., Thornock, T. A., & Tomlinson, E. C. (2022). Will someone be

checking my work? The effect of psychological entitlement and the expectation of being

monitored on task performance and misreporting. *Accounting Horizons*, 36(4), 47-65.

<https://doi.org/10.2308/HORIZONS-2020-032>

Huseman, R. C., Hatfield, J. D., & Miles, E. W. (1987). A new perspective on equity theory: The

equity sensitivity construct. *Academy of Management Review*, 12(2), 222-234.

<https://doi.org/10.2307/258531>

Hu, L. T., & Bentler, P. M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis:

Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling: A*

*Multidisciplinary Journal*, 6(1), 1-55. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10705519909540118>

Jonason, P. K., & Webster, G. D. (2010). The dirty dozen: a concise measure of the dark

triad. *Psychological Assessment*, 22(2), 420-432. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0019265>

Jordan, A. H., & Monin, B. (2008). From sucker to saint: Moralization in response to self-

threat. *Psychological Science*, 19(8), 809-815. [https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-](https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9280.2008.02161.x)

[9280.2008.02161.x](https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9280.2008.02161.x)

- Jordan, P. J., Ramsay, S., & Westerlaken, K. M. (2017). A review of entitlement: Implications for workplace research. *Organizational Psychology Review*, 7(2), 122-142.  
<https://doi.org/10.1177/2041386616647121>
- King Jr, W. C., & Miles, E. W. (1994). The measurement of equity sensitivity. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 67(2), 133-142.  
<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-8325.1994.tb00556.x>
- Kopp, J. P., Zinn, T. E., Finney, S. J., & Jurich, D. P. (2011). The development and evaluation of the academic entitlement questionnaire. *Measurement and Evaluation in Counseling and Development*, 44(2), 105-129. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0748175611400292>
- Krause, N. (2009). Meaning in life and mortality. *Journals of Gerontology Series B: Psychological Sciences and Social Sciences*, 64(4), 517-527.  
<https://doi.org/10.1093/geronb/gbp047>
- Krehbiel, P. J., & Cropanzano, R. (2000). Procedural justice, outcome favorability and emotion. *Social justice research*, 13(4), 339-360.  
<https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1007670909889>
- Krumrei-Mancuso, E. J., & Rouse, S. V. (2016). The development and validation of the comprehensive intellectual humility scale. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 98(2), 209-221. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00223891.2015.1068174>
- Kunda, Z. (1990). The case for motivated reasoning. *Psychological Bulletin*, 108(3), 480-498.  
<https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.108.3.480>
- Laird, M. D., Harvey, P., & Lancaster, J. (2015). Accountability, entitlement, tenure, and satisfaction in Generation Y. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 30(1), 87-100.  
<https://doi.org/10.1108/JMP-08-2014-0227>

- Lee, A., Schwarz, G., Newman, A., & Legood, A. (2019). Investigating when and why psychological entitlement predicts unethical pro-organizational behavior. *Journal of Business Ethics, 154*, 109-126. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-017-3456-z>
- Leong, J. L., Chen, S. X., Fung, H. H., Bond, M. H., Siu, N. Y., & Zhu, J. Y. (2020). Is gratitude always beneficial to interpersonal relationships? The interplay of grateful disposition, grateful mood, and grateful expression among married couples. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 46*(1), 64-78. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0146167219842868>
- Lerner, J. S., & Tetlock, P. E. (1999). Accounting for the effects of accountability. *Psychological Bulletin, 125*(2), 255. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.125.2.255>
- Lerner, M. J. (1987). Integrating societal and psychological rules of entitlement: The basic task of each social actor and fundamental problem for the social sciences. *Social Justice Research, 1*(1), 107-125. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF01049386>
- Li, L., Moore, D. (2001). Disability and illicit drug use: An application of labeling theory. *Deviant Behavior, 22*(1), 1-21. <https://doi.org/10.1080/016396201750065784>
- Locklear, L. R., Sheridan, S., & Kong, D. T. (2023). Appreciating social science research on gratitude: An integrative review for organizational scholarship on gratitude in the workplace. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 44*(2), 225-260. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.2624>
- MacKenzie, S. B., Podsakoff, P. M., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2011). Construct measurement and validation procedures in MIS and behavioral research: Integrating new and existing techniques. *MIS Quarterly, 35*(3), 293-334. <https://doi.org/10.2307/23044045>
- Mackey, J. D., Brees, J. R., McAllister, C. P., Zorn, M. L., Martinko, M. J., & Harvey, P. (2018). Victim and culprit? The effects of entitlement and felt accountability on perceptions of

- abusive supervision and perpetration of workplace bullying. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 153, 659-673. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-016-3348-7>
- Major, B. (1994). From social inequality to personal entitlement: The role of social comparisons, legitimacy appraisals, and group membership. In M.P. Zanna (Ed.) *Advances in experimental social psychology* (Vol. 26, pp. 293-355). Academic Press.  
[https://doi.org/10.1016/S0065-2601\(08\)60156-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0065-2601(08)60156-2)
- Martin, L. E., Brock, M. E., Buckley, M. R., & Ketchen Jr, D. J. (2010). Time banditry: Examining the purloining of time in organizations. *Human Resource Management Review*, 20(1), 26-34. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hrmr.2009.03.013>
- Martinko, M. J., & Gardner, W. L. (1987). The leader/member attribution process. *Academy of Management Review*, 12(2), 235-249. <https://doi.org/10.2307/258532>
- McCullough, M. E., Emmons, R. A., & Tsang, J. A. (2002). The grateful disposition: a conceptual and empirical topography. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 82(1), 112-127. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.82.1.112>
- Mero, N. P., Guidice, R. M., & Brownlee, A. L. (2007). Accountability in a performance appraisal context: The effect of audience and form of accounting on rater response and behavior. *Journal of Management*, 33(2), 223-252.  
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206306297633>
- Mezulis, A. H., Abramson, L. Y., Hyde, J. S., & Hankin, B. L. (2004). Is there a universal positivity bias in attributions? A meta-analytic review of individual, developmental, and cultural differences in the self-serving attributional bias. *Psychological Bulletin*, 130(5), 711-747. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.130.5.711>

- Miller, D. T., & Ross, M. (1975). Self-serving biases in the attribution of causality: Fact or fiction? *Psychological Bulletin*, *82*(2), 213-225. <https://doi.org/10.1037/h0076486>
- Moeller, S. J., Crocker, J., & Bushman, B. J. (2009). Creating hostility and conflict: Effects of entitlement and self-image goals. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *45*(2), 448-452. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jesp.2008.11.005>
- Moon, H., & Jung, M. (2020). The relationship between a disposition of gratitude, clinical stress, and clinical satisfaction in nursing students. *Perspectives in Psychiatric Care*, *56*(4), 768-776. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ppc.12491>
- Naumann, S. E., Minsky, B. D., & Sturman, M. C. (2002). The use of the concept “entitlement” in management literature: A historical review, synthesis, and discussion of compensation policy implications. *Human Resource Management Review*, *12*(1), 145-166. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1053-4822\(01\)00055-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1053-4822(01)00055-9)
- Nozick, R. (1974). *Anarchy, state, and utopia* (Vol. 5038). Basic Books. <https://doi.org/10.1515/9780773585669-007>
- Nunnally, J. C., & Bernstein, I. H. (1994). *Psychometric theory*. McGraw-Hill
- O’Leary-Kelly, A., Rosen, C. C., & Hochwarter, W. A. (2017). Who is deserving and who decides: Entitlement as a work-situated phenomenon. *Academy of Management Review*, *42*(3), 417-436. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2014.0128>
- Palmer, J. K., & Feldman, J. M. (2005). Accountability and need for cognition effects on contrast, halo, and accuracy in performance ratings. *The Journal of Psychology*, *139*(2), 119-138. <https://doi.org/10.3200/JRLP.139.2.119-138>

- Peterson, C., Semmel, A., Von Baeyer, C., Abramson, L. Y., Metalsky, G. I., & Seligman, M. E. (1982). The attributional style questionnaire. *Cognitive Therapy and Research*, 6(3), 287-299. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF01173577>
- Pincus, A. L., Ansell, E. B., Pimentel, C. A., Cain, N. M., Wright, A. G., & Levy, K. N. (2009). Initial construction and validation of the pathological narcissism inventory. *Psychological Assessment*, 21(3), 365-379. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0016530>
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Paine, J. B., & Bachrach, D. G. (2000). Organizational citizenship behaviors: A critical review of the theoretical and empirical literature and suggestions for future research. *Journal of management*, 26(3), 513-563. <https://doi.org/10.1177/014920630002600307>
- Podsakoff, N. P., Whiting, S. W., Podsakoff, P. M., & Blume, B. D. (2009). Individual-and organizational-level consequences of organizational citizenship behaviors: A meta-analysis. *Journal of applied Psychology*, 94(1), 122-141. doi: 10.1037/a0013079
- Priesemuth, M., & Taylor, R. M. (2016). The more I want, the less I have left to give: The moderating role of psychological entitlement on the relationship between psychological contract violation, depressive mood states, and citizenship behavior. *Journal of organizational behavior*, 37(7), 967-982. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.2080>
- Raskin, R., & Terry, H. (1988). A principal-components analysis of the narcissistic personality inventory and further evidence of its construct validity. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 54(5), 890-902. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.54.5.890>
- Rawls, J. (1971). *A theory of justice*. Belknap Press/Harvard University Press. <https://doi.org/10.4159/9780674042605>

- Redford, L., & Ratliff, K. A. (2018). Pride and punishment: Entitled people's self-promoting values motivate hierarchy-restoring retribution. *European Journal of Social Psychology, 48*(3), 303-319. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ejsp.2328>
- Rose, K. C., & Anastasio, P. A. (2014). Entitlement is about “others,” narcissism is not: Relations to sociotropic and autonomous interpersonal styles. *Personality and Individual Differences, 59*(1), 50-53. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2013.11.004>
- Rosenberg, M. (1965). Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSES) [Database record]. APA PsycTests. <https://doi.org/10.1037/t01038-000>
- Ross, L. (1977). The intuitive psychologist and his shortcomings: Distortions in the attribution process. In L. Berkowitz (Ed.) *Advances in experimental social psychology*, Vol. 10, pp. 173-220. Academic Press. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0065-2601\(08\)60357-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0065-2601(08)60357-3)
- Rousseau, D. M. (1989). Psychological and implied contracts in organizations. *Employee responsibilities and rights journal, 2*, 121-139. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF01384942>
- Rousseau, D. (1995). *Psychological contracts in organizations: Understanding written and unwritten agreements*. Sage publications.
- Ryan, S. V., von der Embse, N. P., Pendergast, L. L., Saeki, E., Segool, N., & Schwing, S. (2017). Leaving the teaching profession: The role of teacher stress and educational accountability policies on turnover intent. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 66*(1), 1-11. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2017.03.016>
- Scheier, M. F., Carver, C. S., & Bridges, M. W. (1994). Distinguishing optimism from neuroticism (and trait anxiety, self-mastery, and self-esteem): A reevaluation of the life orientation test. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 67*(6), 1063-1078. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.67.6.1063>

- Schwarz, N., & Clore, G. L. (2007). Feelings and phenomenal experiences. In A. W. Kruglanski, E. T. Higgins, A. W. Kruglanski, E. T. Higgins (Eds.), *Social psychology: Handbook of basic principles* (pp. 385-407). New York, NY, US: Guilford Press. ISBN: 978-1-57230918-0
- Seligman, M. E. (2011). *Flourish: A visionary new understanding of happiness and well-being*. Simon and Schuster. ISBN: 978-1-4391-9077-7
- Seligman, M. E., Steen, T. A., Park, N., & Peterson, C. (2005). Positive psychology progress: empirical validation of interventions. *American Psychologist*, *60*(5), 410-421.  
<https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.60.5.410>
- Shabad, P. (1993). Resentment, indignation, entitlement the transformation of unconscious wish into need. *Psychoanalytic Dialogues*, *3*(4), 481-494.  
<https://doi.org/10.1080/10481889309538988>
- Shah, S. H. A., Haider, A., Jindong, J., Mumtaz, A., & Rafiq, N. (2022). The impact of job stress and state anger on turnover intention among nurses during COVID-19: The mediating role of emotional exhaustion. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *12*, 810378.  
<https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2021.810378>
- Snow, J. N., Kern, R. M., & Curlette, W. L. (2001). Identifying personality traits associated with attrition in systematic training for effective parenting groups. *The Family Journal*, *9*(2), 102-108. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1066480701092003>
- Stamkou, E., van Kleef, G. A., & Homan, A. C. (2019). Feeling entitled to rules: Entitled individuals prevent norm violators from rising up the ranks. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *84*, 103790. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jesp.2019.03.001>

- Steele, C. M. (1988). The psychology of self-affirmation: Sustaining the integrity of the self. In L. Berkowitz (Ed.) *Advances in experimental social psychology*, Vol. 21, pp. 261-302. Academic Press. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0065-2601\(08\)60229-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0065-2601(08)60229-4)
- Stegen, A., & Wankier, J. (2018). Generating gratitude in the workplace to improve faculty job satisfaction. *Journal of Nursing Education*, 57(6), 375-378. <https://doi.org/10.3928/01484834-20180522-10>
- Stucke, T. S. (2003). Who's to blame? Narcissism and self-serving attributions following feedback. *European Journal of Personality*, 17(6), 465-478. <https://doi.org/10.1002/per.497>
- Tangney, J. P. (2000). Humility: Theoretical perspectives, empirical findings and directions for future research. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, 19(1), 70-82. <https://doi.org/10.1521/jscp.2000.19.1.70>
- Ter Laak, J., Van Leuven, M., & Brugman, G. (2000). The effect of the accountability instruction and two job types on the Big Five scores. *European Journal of Psychological Assessment*, 16(3), 209. <https://doi.org/10.1027//1015-5759.16.3.209>
- Tett, R. P., & Meyer, J. P. (1993). Job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intention, and turnover: path analyses based on meta-analytic findings. *Personnel psychology*, 46(2), 259-293. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.1993.tb00874.x>
- Thoms, P., Dose, J. J., & Scott, K. S. (2002). Relationships between accountability, job satisfaction, and trust. *Human resource development quarterly*, 13(3), 307-323. <https://doi.org/10.1002/hrdq.1033>
- Tomlinson, E. C. (2013). An integrative model of entitlement beliefs. *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal*, 25(1), 67-87. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10672-012-9208-4>

- Tsang, J. A. (2002). Moral rationalization and the integration of situational factors and psychological processes in immoral behavior. *Review of General Psychology*, 6(1), 25-50. <https://doi.org/10.1037/1089-2680.6.1.25>
- Tucker, K. L. (2007). Getting the most out of life: An examination of appreciation, targets of appreciation, and sensitivity to reward in happier and less happy individuals. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, 26(7), 791-825. <https://doi.org/10.1521/jscp.2007.26.7.791>
- Turnley, W. H., Bolino, M. C., Lester, S. W., & Bloodgood, J. M. (2003). The impact of psychological contract fulfillment on the performance of in-role and organizational citizenship behaviors. *Journal of management*, 29(2), 187-206. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0149-2063\(02\)00214-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0149-2063(02)00214-3)
- Twenge, J. M., & Foster, J. D. (2010). Birth cohort increases in narcissistic personality traits among American college students, 1982–2009. *Social Psychological and Personality Science*, 1(1), 99-106. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1948550609355719>
- Twenge, J.M., Konrath, S., Foster, J.D., Keith Campbell, W. and Bushman, B.J. (2008). Egos inflating over time: A cross-temporal meta-analysis of the narcissistic personality inventory. *Journal of Personality*, 76(4), 875-902. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-6494.2008.00507.x>
- Wang, M., & Bodner, T. E. (2007). Growth mixture modeling: Identifying and predicting unobserved subpopulations with longitudinal data. *Organizational Research Methods*, 10(4), 635-656. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1094428106289397>

- Wendenburg, O. (2020). The effect of gratitude on individuals' effort – A field experiment. *Junior Management Science*, 5(4), 429-451.  
<https://doi.org/10.5282/jums/v5i4pp429-451>
- Weiner, B. (1985). An attributional theory of achievement motivation and emotion. *Psychological Review*, 92(4), 548-573. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-295X.92.4.548>
- Weiner, B., & Graham, S. (1989). Understanding the motivational role of affect: Life-span research from an attributional perspective. *Cognition and Emotion*, 3(4), 401-419.  
<https://doi.org/10.1080/02699938908412714>
- Weiss, D. J., Dawis, R. V., England, G. W., & Lofquist, L. H. (1977). Minnesota satisfaction questionnaire--Short form. Educational and Psychological Measurement.  
<https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/t08880-000>
- Weiss, D., Dawis, R. V., England, G. W., & Lofquist, L. H. Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire--Long Form. APA PsycTests. Washing, D.C., USL American Psychological Association; 1967. <https://doi.org/10.1037/t05540-000>
- Westerlaken, K. M., Jordan, P. J., & Ramsay, S. (2017). What about “MEE:” A measure of employee entitlement and the impact on reciprocity in the workplace. *Journal of Management and Organization*, 23(3), 392-404. <https://doi.org/10.1017/jmo.2016.5>
- Wood, A. M., Froh, J. J., & Geraghty, A. W. (2010). Gratitude and well-being: A review and theoretical integration. *Clinical psychology review*, 30(7), 890-905.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cpr.2010.03.005>

- Wood, A. M., Joseph, S., & Maltby, J. (2009). Gratitude predicts psychological well-being above the big five facets. *Personality and Individual Differences, 46*(4), 443-447.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2008.11.012>
- Yam, K. C., Klotz, A. C., He, W., & Reynolds, S. J. (2017). From good soldiers to psychologically entitled: Examining when and why citizenship behavior leads to deviance. *Academy of Management Journal, 60*(1), 373-396.  
<https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2014.0234>
- Zeelenberg, M., Van Dijk, W. W., Manstead, A. S., & vanr de Pligt, J. (2000). On bad decisions and disconfirmed expectancies: The psychology of regret and disappointment. *Cognition and Emotion, 14*(4), 521-541. <https://doi.org/10.1080/026999300402781>
- Zhao, H. A. O., Wayne, S. J., Glibkowski, B. C., & Bravo, J. (2007). The impact of psychological contract breach on work-related outcomes: a meta-analysis. *Personnel psychology, 60*(3), 647-680. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.2007.00087.x>
- Zitek, E. M., & Jordan, A. H. (2019). Psychological entitlement predicts failure to follow instructions. *Social Psychological and Personality Science, 10*(2), 172-180.  
<https://doi.org/10.1177/1948550617729885>
- Zitek, E. M., & Jordan, A. H. (2021). Individuals higher in psychological entitlement respond to bad luck with anger. *Personality and Individual Differences, 168*, 110306.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2020.110306>
- Zitek, E. M., & Vincent, L. C. (2015). Deserve and diverge: Feeling entitled makes people more creative. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 56*, 242-248.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jesp.2014.10.006>

Zitek, E. M., Jordan, A. H., Leach, F. R., & Monin, B. (2007). The right to wrong: Victim entitlement to behave immorally. In Poster session presented at the annual meeting of the Society for Personality and Social Psychology. Memphis, TN.

<https://doi.org/10.1037/e514412014-465>

Zitek, E. M., Jordan, A. H., Monin, B., & Leach, F. R. (2010). Victim entitlement to behave selfishly. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 98(2), 245-255.

<https://doi.org/10.1037/a0017168>

Zuckerman, M. (1979). Attribution of success and failure revisited, or: The motivational bias is alive and well in attribution theory. *Journal of Personality*, 47(2), 245-287.

<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-6494.1979.tb00202.x>

## Appendices

### Appendix A – List of items in the Rationalized Entitlement Measure, Time of Generation, and Their Respective Sources

Item	First Used In	Source	Notes
I always contribute the most overall.	Prestudy	Original	
Other people are usually more at fault than I am.	Sample 2	Original	
Other people seem to make more mistakes than me overall.	Sample 2	Original	
When working in teams, I usually end up doing more than anyone else.	Prestudy	Original	
People tend to take advantage of my good nature.	Prestudy	Original	
People generally treat me worse than I deserve.	Prestudy	Original	
People generally don't take into account the things that make me special.	Prestudy	Original	
The system is rigged against me.	Sample 2	Perceived Victimhood Scale (Armaly & Enders, 2021)	original item: "The system works against people like me."
I deserve things to go my way in life.	Sample 1	Psychological Entitlement Scale (Campbell et al., 2004)	original item: "Things should go my way."
I deserve to know what's going on around me.	Prestudy	Original	
I have earned the right to receive what I want.	Sample 2	Original	

## Appendix B – Screenshot of Open Science Framework Preregistration

The screenshot displays the OSF Registries interface for a preregistration titled "Dissertation Entitlement Experiments". The top navigation bar includes "OSF REGISTRIES" with a dropdown arrow, and links for "Add New", "My Registrations", "Help", "Donate", "Join", and "Login". The main header area features the title "Dissertation Entitlement Experiments" in large white text on a dark blue background. Below the header, there are dropdown menus for "Public registration" and "Updates", along with icons for help, bookmark, and share.

The left sidebar contains a navigation menu with the following items: "Overview" (selected), "Metadata", "Files", "Resources", "Wiki", "Components" (0), "Links" (0), "Analytics", "Comments" (0), and "Open practice resources" (with a question mark icon). Under "Open practice resources", there are links for "Data", "Analytic code", "Materials", "Papers", and "Supplements".

The main content area is titled "Study Information" and includes a hamburger menu icon. It contains a "Hypotheses" section with four numbered hypotheses (1a-1d) and a "Design Plan" section. The hypotheses describe the relationship between entitlement and various outcomes (job satisfaction, turnover intent, perceived overall justice, and effort) moderated by accountability and gratitude. The design plan section is currently empty.

The right sidebar contains metadata for the preregistration:

- Contributors:** Richard Reed
- Description:** Studies 1 and 2 of Chapter 3 of my dissertation.
- Registration type:** OSF Preregistration
- Date registered:** March 10, 2024
- Date created:** March 10, 2024
- Associated project:** [osf.io/bn8fd](https://osf.io/bn8fd)
- Internet Archive link:** <https://archive.org/details/osf-registrations-s4yqr-v1>
- Category:** Hypothesis
- Registration DOI:** <https://doi.org/10.17605/OSF.IO/S4YQR>
- Subjects:**

## Appendix C – Accountability Vignettes used in Chapter 3, Study 1

### High Accountability Group:

#### *Summary:*

**You are given a new job at work. You can either put in little effort and get a free vacation, or you can put in more work and increase your chances of being promoted. Your boss will hold you accountable for your work, and expects you to present your results to the whole office. Your effort will have a large impact on you and all of your coworkers, so everyone will be paying close attention.**

#### *Full Scenario:*

The following is a hypothetical situation but represents a current trend in management, which is to empower employees at all levels of a company to review the performance of the organization as a whole. Please take as much time as you need to imagine yourself in the following scenario, as this may have very real implications for employees elsewhere.

Arriving at work at your usual time, you find your boss already waiting for you.

Not quite sure what to expect, you hurriedly set your things down and take a deep breath. As you enter your boss's office, you see three unfamiliar faces in expensive suits. Your boss quickly introduces you to the three strangers visiting from headquarters.

“Welcome, please take a seat. We are here to try a new method of performance review. We have taken the top performers at every level of the organization and selected one person from each office to provide feedback on the performance of the whole office.”

“We chose you to be that person. You will be spending the next two weeks on paid leave from your current assignment to create a report evaluating how the office is doing and any recommendations you have for improvement. All of your current tasks will be taken care of so you can focus on this report.”

You spend the rest of the day training with the corporate visitors on how to create your report. By the end of the day, you realize you could do a really thorough job in the two weeks you have, but it would take a lot of work. On the other hand, you get the impression this is pretty subjective, so no one would really know if you didn't put in much work. You could finish a report in less than a week that won't impress anyone, but will keep you out of trouble and still have a week of paid vacation.

At the end of the day, as you are gathering your things to go home, your boss approaches you.

“Hey, good job today. I know this is all a bit unorthodox, so just give it your best shot. I have been swamped with busy work lately, so I am really curious to hear your thoughts on how we can improve things around here. I scheduled a meeting for you to present your report to the whole office. We are all counting on you.”

**Control Group (No Influence on Accountability):***Summary:*

**You are given a new job at work. You can either put in little effort and get a free vacation, or you can put in more work and increase your chances of being promoted. Your effort could have an impact on you and your coworkers, but you aren't sure how closely people are paying attention.**

*Full Scenario:*

The following is a hypothetical situation but represents a current trend in management, which is to empower employees at all levels of a company to review the performance of the organization as a whole. Please take as much time as you need to imagine yourself in the following scenario, as this may have very real implications for employees elsewhere.

Arriving at work at your usual time, you find your boss already waiting for you.

Not quite sure what to expect, you hurriedly set your things down and take a deep breath. As you enter your boss's office, you see three unfamiliar faces in expensive suits. Your boss quickly introduces you to the three strangers visiting from headquarters.

"Welcome, please take a seat. We are here to try a new method of performance review. We have taken the top performers at every level of the organization and selected one person from each office to provide feedback on the performance of the whole office."

"We chose you to be that person. You will be spending the next two weeks on paid leave from your current assignment to create a report evaluating how the office is doing and any recommendations you have for improvement. All of your current tasks will be taken care of so you can focus on this report."

You spend the rest of the day training with the corporate visitors on how to create your report. By the end of the day, you realize you could do a really thorough job in the two weeks you have, but it would take a lot of work. On the other hand, you get the impression this is pretty subjective, so no one would really know if you didn't put in much work. You could finish a report in less than a week that won't impress anyone, but will keep you out of trouble and still have a week of paid vacation.

At the end of the day, as you are gathering your things to go home, your boss approaches you.

"Hey, good job today. I know this is all a bit unorthodox, so just give it your best shot."

**Low Accountability Group:***Summary:*

**You are given a new job at work. You can either put in little effort and get a free vacation, or you can put in more work and increase your chances of being promoted. Your boss doesn't think this new project is a good idea, and won't be paying any attention to your work. He wants to get it over with as quickly as possible and get everyone back to work.**

*Full Scenario:*

The following is a hypothetical situation but represents a current trend in management, which is to empower employees at all levels of a company to review the performance of the organization as a whole. Please take as much time as you need to imagine yourself in the following scenario, as this may have very real implications for employees elsewhere.

Arriving at work at your usual time, you find your boss already waiting for you.

Not quite sure what to expect, you hurriedly set your things down and take a deep breath. As you enter your boss's office, you see three unfamiliar faces in expensive suits. Your boss quickly introduces you to the three strangers visiting from headquarters.

"Welcome, please take a seat. We are here to try a new method of performance review. We have taken the top performers at every level of the organization and selected one person from each office to provide feedback on the performance of the whole office."

"We chose you to be that person. You will be spending the next two weeks on paid leave from your current assignment to create a report evaluating how the office is doing and any recommendations you have for improvement. All of your current tasks will be taken care of so you can focus on this report."

You spend the rest of the day training with the corporate visitors on how to create your report. By the end of the day, you realize you could do a really thorough job in the two weeks you have, but it would take a lot of work. On the other hand, you get the impression this is pretty subjective, so no one would really know if you didn't put in much work. You could finish a report in less than a week that won't impress anyone, but will keep you out of trouble and still have a week of paid vacation.

At the end of the day, as you are gathering your things to go home, your boss approaches you. "Hey, good job today. I know this is all a bit unorthodox, so just give it your best shot. I have been swamped with busy work lately, so I'm glad I don't have to do this performance review thing. I know no one is going to look at it. Just email it to HR when it's done and we can all get back to work."

**Appendix D – Supplemental Analysis of Chapter 3: Study 1 Using Planned Contrast Codes  
to Compare Conditions Against the Control Group**

*Supplemental Analysis for Study 1: Job Satisfaction Regression with Entitlement and Accountability Condition Interaction*

DV: Job Satisfaction	Without Controls			With Controls			Accounting for PA&NA		
	Coef	Std. Err.	<i>p</i>	Coef	Std. Err.	<i>p</i>	Coef	Std. Err.	<i>p</i>
Aggregate Entitlement	0.04	0.04	0.329	0.04	0.04	0.309	0.01	0.03	0.760
Control Condition vs. High Accountability Condition	0.08	0.04	0.047	0.08	0.04	0.048	0.07	0.03	0.050
Low Accountability vs. Control Condition	0.18	0.04	0.000	0.17	0.04	0.000	0.13	0.03	0.000
Entitlement x Control_vs_High Interaction	0.03	0.05	0.583	0.03	0.05	0.603	0.01	0.05	0.824
Entitlement x Low_vs_Control Interaction	0.05	0.05	0.362	0.05	0.05	0.283	0.05	0.04	0.312
Age				0.00	0.00	0.794	-0.01	0.00	0.041
Gender				-0.13	0.06	0.021	-0.15	0.05	0.002
Race				0.03	0.07	0.627	0.03	0.06	0.639
Tenure				0.00	0.00	0.564	0.00	0.00	0.629
SES				0.01	0.02	0.418	0.00	0.01	0.796
Positive Affect							0.28	0.03	0.000
Negative Affect							-0.13	0.04	0.002
Intercept	3.79	0.13	0.000	3.72	0.20	0.000	3.43	0.20	0.000

*Note.* N=336. All variables included in interactions have been grand mean centered. For "Gender", male=1, all else=0. For "Race", White=1, all else=0. To isolate the impact of increase accountability, for the Control v High Accountability variable, Control group is coded -1 and High Accountability group is coded 1; for the Low Accountability vs. Control variable, Low Accountability is coded -1 and Control group is coded 1.

*Supplemental Analysis for Study 1: Job Satisfaction Regression with Entitlement Subdimensions and Accountability Condition Interaction*

DV: Job Satisfaction	Without Controls			With Controls			Accounting for PA&NA		
	Coef	Std. Err.	p	Coef	Std. Err.	p	Coef	Std. Err.	p
Rationalized Expectations	0.09	0.03	0.002	0.08	0.03	0.007	0.02	0.03	0.436
Self-Serving Attributions	0.01	0.04	0.879	0.02	0.04	0.502	0.05	0.03	0.097
Perceived Victimization	-0.06	0.03	0.027	-0.07	0.03	0.022	-0.06	0.03	0.022
Control Condition vs. High Accountability Condition	0.07	0.04	0.076	0.07	0.04	0.088	0.06	0.03	0.068
Low Accountability vs. Control Condition	0.18	0.04	0.000	0.17	0.04	0.000	0.13	0.03	0.000
Expectations x Control_vs_High Interaction	-0.01	0.04	0.878	0.00	0.04	0.921	-0.02	0.03	0.616
Attributions x Control_vs_High Interaction	0.09	0.05	0.065	0.10	0.05	0.055	0.10	0.05	0.026
Victimization x Control_vs_High Interaction	-0.07	0.04	0.074	-0.07	0.04	0.070	-0.06	0.04	0.081
Expectations x Low_vs_Control Interaction	0.05	0.04	0.183	0.05	0.04	0.181	0.05	0.03	0.120
Attributions x Low_vs_Control Interaction	0.04	0.05	0.401	0.05	0.05	0.337	0.08	0.04	0.072
Victimization x Low_vs_Control Interaction	-0.05	0.04	0.171	-0.05	0.04	0.189	-0.07	0.03	0.028
Age				0.00	0.00	0.962	-0.01	0.00	0.033
Gender				-0.11	0.06	0.048	-0.15	0.05	0.003
Race				0.04	0.06	0.558	0.03	0.06	0.623
Tenure				0.00	0.00	0.738	0.00	0.00	0.664
SES				-0.01	0.02	0.539	-0.02	0.01	0.138
Positive Affect							0.28	0.03	0.000
Negative Affect							-0.12	0.04	0.004
Intercept	3.72	0.13	0.000	3.78	0.20	0.000	3.46	0.20	0.000

*Note.* N=336. All variables included in interactions have been grand mean centered. For "Gender", male=1, all else=0. For "Race", White=1, all else=0. To isolate the impact of increase accountability, for the Control v High Accountability variable, Control group is coded -1 and High Accountability group is coded 1; for the Low Accountability vs. Control variable, Low Accountability is coded -1 and Control group is coded 1.

*Supplemental Analysis for Study 1: Turnover Intent Regression with Entitlement and Accountability Condition Interaction*

DV: Turnover Intent	Without Controls			With Controls			Accounting for PA&NA		
	Coef	Std. Err.	p	Coef	Std. Err.	p	Coef	Std. Err.	p
Aggregate Entitlement	0.09	0.07	0.154	0.07	0.07	0.302	0.08	0.06	0.187
Control Condition vs. High Accountability Condition	-0.06	0.07	0.361	-0.05	0.07	0.469	-0.02	0.06	0.796
Low Accountability vs. Control Condition	-0.16	0.07	0.025	-0.15	0.07	0.032	-0.09	0.06	0.179
Entitlement x Control_vs_High Interaction	-0.08	0.10	0.401	-0.06	0.10	0.514	-0.03	0.09	0.753
Entitlement x Low_vs_Control Interaction	-0.15	0.09	0.095	-0.15	0.09	0.104	-0.12	0.08	0.167
Age				0.00	0.01	0.359	0.01	0.00	0.279
Gender				0.01	0.10	0.950	0.03	0.09	0.704
Race				-0.09	0.12	0.428	-0.08	0.11	0.464
Tenure				-0.01	0.01	0.178	-0.01	0.01	0.054
SES				-0.01	0.03	0.820	0.02	0.03	0.453
Positive Affect							-0.34	0.06	0.000
Negative Affect							0.49	0.08	0.000
Intercept	1.73	0.23	0.000	2.17	0.37	0.000	2.02	0.37	0.000

*Note.* N=336. All variables included in interactions have been grand mean centered. For "Gender", male=1, all else=0. For "Race", White=1, all else=0. To isolate the impact of increase accountability, for the Control v High Accountability variable, Control group is coded -1 and High Accountability group is coded 1; for the Low Accountability vs. Control variable, Low Accountability is coded -1 and Control group is coded 1.

*Supplemental Analysis for Study 1: Turnover Intent Regression with Entitlement Subdimensions and Accountability Condition Interaction*

DV: Turnover Intent	Without Controls			With Controls			Accounting for PA&NA		
	Coef	Std. Err.	p	Coef	Std. Err.	p	Coef	Std. Err.	p
Rationalized Expectations	-0.12	0.05	0.017	-0.12	0.05	0.019	-0.04	0.05	0.419
Self-Serving Attributions	0.03	0.06	0.613	0.00	0.07	0.945	-0.03	0.06	0.642
Perceived Victimization	0.20	0.05	0.000	0.21	0.06	0.000	0.16	0.05	0.002
Control Condition vs. High Accountability Condition	-0.04	0.07	0.552	-0.03	0.07	0.711	0.00	0.06	0.957
Low Accountability vs. Control Condition	-0.15	0.07	0.027	-0.15	0.07	0.036	-0.08	0.06	0.195
Expectations x Control_vs_High Interaction	-0.08	0.07	0.236	-0.07	0.07	0.341	-0.04	0.06	0.558
Attributions x Control_vs_High Interaction	0.00	0.09	0.975	-0.01	0.09	0.874	-0.03	0.08	0.700
Victimization x Control_vs_High Interaction	0.07	0.07	0.312	0.08	0.07	0.298	0.07	0.07	0.321
Expectations x Low_vs_Control Interaction	-0.15	0.07	0.030	-0.15	0.07	0.034	-0.14	0.07	0.035
Attributions x Low_vs_Control Interaction	0.01	0.09	0.941	0.00	0.09	0.979	-0.06	0.08	0.494
Victimization x Low_vs_Control Interaction	0.03	0.07	0.607	0.04	0.07	0.583	0.08	0.06	0.192
Age				0.00	0.01	0.631	0.01	0.00	0.210
Gender				-0.03	0.10	0.801	0.03	0.09	0.787
Race				-0.10	0.12	0.412	-0.07	0.11	0.481
Tenure				-0.01	0.01	0.234	-0.01	0.01	0.063
SES				0.03	0.03	0.266	0.05	0.03	0.097
Positive Affect							-0.33	0.06	0.000
Negative Affect							0.46	0.08	0.000
Intercept	1.89	0.24	0.000	2.03	0.37	0.000	1.96	0.37	0.000

*Note.* N=336. All variables included in interactions have been grand mean centered. For "Gender", male=1, all else=0. For "Race", White=1, all else=0. To isolate the impact of increase accountability, for the Control v High Accountability variable, Control group is coded -1 and High Accountability group is coded 1; for the Low Accountability vs. Control variable, Low Accountability is coded -1 and Control group is coded 1.

*Supplemental Analysis for Study 1: Perceived Overall Justice Regression with Entitlement and Accountability Condition Interaction*

DV: Perceived Overall Justice	Without Controls			With Controls			Accounting for PA&NA		
	Coef	Std. Err.	p	Coef	Std. Err.	p	Coef	Std. Err.	p
Aggregate Entitlement	-0.11	0.08	0.184	-0.12	0.09	0.179	-0.13	0.08	0.101
Control Condition vs. High Accountability Condition	0.29	0.09	0.001	0.30	0.09	0.001	0.25	0.08	0.002
Low Accountability vs. Control Condition	0.38	0.09	0.000	0.38	0.09	0.000	0.29	0.08	0.000
Entitlement x Control_vs_High Interaction	0.15	0.12	0.201	0.16	0.12	0.197	0.11	0.11	0.314
Entitlement x Low_vs_Control Interaction	0.26	0.11	0.027	0.26	0.12	0.028	0.21	0.10	0.047
Age				0.00	0.01	0.933	-0.01	0.01	0.022
Gender				0.00	0.13	0.999	-0.04	0.11	0.744
Race				-0.03	0.15	0.824	-0.05	0.13	0.682
Tenure				0.00	0.01	0.948	0.01	0.01	0.531
SES				-0.01	0.04	0.873	-0.04	0.03	0.213
Positive Affect							0.43	0.07	0.000
Negative Affect							-0.69	0.10	0.000
Intercept	5.72	0.29	0.000	5.81	0.47	0.000	6.09	0.46	0.000

*Note. N= 336. All variables included in interactions have been grand mean centered. For "Gender", male=1, all else=0. For "Race", White=1, all else=0. To isolate the impact of increase accountability, for the Control v High Accountability variable, Control group is coded -1 and High Accountability group is coded 1; for the Low Accountability vs. Control variable, Low Accountability is coded -1 and Control group is coded 1.*

*Supplemental Analysis for Study 1: Perceived Overall Justice Regression with Entitlement Subdimensions and Accountability Condition Interaction*

DV: Perceived Overall Justice	Without Controls			With Controls			Accounting for PA&NA		
	Coef	Std. Err.	p	Coef	Std. Err.	p	Coef	Std. Err.	p
Rationalized Expectations	0.11	0.06	0.085	0.12	0.07	0.070	0.01	0.06	0.887
Self-Serving Attributions	-0.04	0.08	0.635	-0.02	0.08	0.829	0.02	0.08	0.751
Perceived Victimization	-0.21	0.06	0.001	-0.25	0.07	0.000	-0.18	0.06	0.005
Control Condition vs. High Accountability Condition	0.27	0.09	0.002	0.26	0.09	0.003	0.23	0.08	0.004
Low Accountability vs. Control Condition	0.37	0.09	0.000	0.37	0.09	0.000	0.28	0.08	0.000
Expectations x Control_vs_High Interaction	0.17	0.09	0.049	0.17	0.09	0.057	0.13	0.08	0.108
Attributions x Control_vs_High Interaction	0.01	0.12	0.920	0.04	0.12	0.761	0.06	0.11	0.557
Victimization x Control_vs_High Interaction	-0.12	0.09	0.193	-0.13	0.09	0.176	-0.12	0.08	0.174
Expectations x Low_vs_Control Interaction	0.23	0.09	0.012	0.22	0.09	0.016	0.20	0.08	0.016
Attributions x Low_vs_Control Interaction	0.02	0.11	0.830	0.02	0.11	0.824	0.10	0.10	0.303
Victimization x Low_vs_Control Interaction	-0.04	0.08	0.639	-0.04	0.09	0.666	-0.10	0.08	0.208
Age				0.00	0.01	0.681	-0.01	0.01	0.020
Gender				0.03	0.13	0.830	-0.04	0.12	0.736
Race				-0.03	0.15	0.817	-0.06	0.13	0.639
Tenure				0.00	0.01	0.850	0.00	0.01	0.633
SES				-0.05	0.04	0.181	-0.07	0.03	0.053
Positive Affect							0.43	0.07	0.000
Negative Affect							-0.66	0.10	0.000
Intercept	5.61	0.30	0.000	6.01	0.47	0.000	6.19	0.46	0.000

*Note.* N=336. All variables included in interactions have been grand mean centered. For "Gender", male=1, all else=0. For "Race", White=1, all else=0. To isolate the impact of increase accountability, for the Control v High Accountability variable, Control group is coded -1 and High Accountability group is coded 1; for the Low Accountability vs. Control variable, Low Accountability is coded -1 and Control group is coded 1.

*Supplemental Analysis for Study 1: Effort Regression with Entitlement and Accountability Condition Interaction*

DV: Effort	Without Controls			With Controls			Accounting for PA&NA		
	Coef	Std. Err.	p	Coef	Std. Err.	p	Coef	Std. Err.	p
Aggregate Entitlement	0.21	0.06	0.002	0.20	0.07	0.003	0.15	0.06	0.019
Control Condition vs. High Accountability Condition	0.25	0.07	0.000	0.26	0.07	0.000	0.26	0.07	0.000
Low Accountability vs. Control Condition	0.39	0.07	0.000	0.38	0.07	0.000	0.34	0.07	0.000
Entitlement x Control_vs_High Interaction	0.16	0.09	0.080	0.16	0.09	0.095	0.14	0.09	0.110
Entitlement x Low_vs_Control Interaction	-0.01	0.09	0.872	-0.02	0.09	0.824	-0.02	0.08	0.815
Age				0.00	0.01	0.339	0.00	0.00	0.693
Gender				-0.01	0.10	0.913	-0.04	0.09	0.686
Race				-0.18	0.12	0.116	-0.18	0.11	0.093
Tenure				0.00	0.01	0.589	0.00	0.01	0.870
SES				0.04	0.03	0.192	0.02	0.03	0.503
Positive Affect							0.37	0.06	0.000
Negative Affect							0.00	0.08	0.975
Intercept	2.83	0.23	0.000	2.60	0.36	0.000	1.95	0.37	0.000

*Note.* N= 336. All variables included in interactions have been grand mean centered. For "Gender", male=1, all else=0. For "Race", White=1, all else=0. To isolate the impact of increase accountability, for the Control v High Accountability variable, Control group is coded -1 and High Accountability group is coded 1; for the Low Accountability vs. Control variable, Low Accountability is coded -1 and Control group is coded 1.

*Supplemental Analysis for Study 1: Effort Regression with Entitlement Subdimensions and Accountability Condition Interaction*

DV: Effort	Without Controls			With Controls			Accounting for PA&NA		
	Coef	Std. Err.	p	Coef	Std. Err.	p	Coef	Std. Err.	p
Rationalized Expectations	0.07	0.05	0.155	0.05	0.05	0.336	-0.02	0.05	0.639
Self-Serving Attributions	0.17	0.06	0.007	0.18	0.07	0.009	0.22	0.06	0.001
Perceived Victimization	-0.03	0.05	0.599	-0.02	0.06	0.713	-0.03	0.05	0.548
Control Condition vs. High Accountability Condition	0.25	0.07	0.000	0.25	0.07	0.000	0.25	0.07	0.000
Low Accountability vs. Control Condition	0.39	0.07	0.000	0.37	0.07	0.000	0.32	0.07	0.000
Expectations x Control_vs_High Interaction	0.07	0.07	0.296	0.08	0.07	0.256	0.07	0.07	0.298
Attributions x Control_vs_High Interaction	0.10	0.09	0.288	0.09	0.09	0.350	0.08	0.09	0.347
Victimization x Control_vs_High Interaction	-0.02	0.07	0.803	-0.01	0.07	0.891	0.01	0.07	0.913
Expectations x Low_vs_Control Interaction	0.07	0.07	0.338	0.07	0.07	0.303	0.08	0.07	0.206
Attributions x Low_vs_Control Interaction	-0.06	0.09	0.496	-0.06	0.09	0.519	-0.02	0.08	0.765
Victimization x Low_vs_Control Interaction	-0.04	0.07	0.549	-0.05	0.07	0.486	-0.07	0.06	0.257
Age				0.00	0.01	0.419	0.00	0.00	0.576
Gender				-0.03	0.10	0.757	-0.08	0.10	0.385
Race				-0.19	0.12	0.107	-0.20	0.11	0.071
Tenure				0.01	0.01	0.530	0.00	0.01	0.680
SES				0.01	0.03	0.700	-0.01	0.03	0.841
Positive Affect							0.40	0.06	0.000
Negative Affect							0.01	0.08	0.938
Intercept	2.76	0.24	0.000	2.73	0.37	0.000	2.02	0.37	0.000

*Note.* N=336. All variables included in interactions have been grand mean centered. For "Gender", male=1, all else=0. For "Race", White=1, all else=0. To isolate the impact of increase accountability, for the Control v High Accountability variable, Control group is coded -1 and High Accountability group is coded 1; for the Low Accountability vs. Control variable, Low Accountability is coded -1 and Control group is coded 1.

**Appendix E – Gratitude Writing Prompts used in Chapter 3, Study 2**

For each group, the first two paragraphs are displayed on one page in Qualtrics, and the second paragraph is displayed on the following page.

**Control (No Change):**

As part of this study, you will be asked to write two essays about events in your life. Please take at least five minutes for each essay. As you are writing, please focus on recalling events as specifically as you can and remembering your feelings at the time as vividly as possible.

First, please describe your morning routine in detail. Are there any activities you do every morning? Most mornings? Make sure to describe your surroundings and how engaging in these activities makes you feel. Again, please take your time writing this essay.

Now, please describe your earliest memory today. What was happening? Make sure to describe why you think you remember this event and how you felt at the time. Again, please take at least five minutes to write this essay.

**Decreased Gratitude:**

As part of this study, you will be asked to write two essays about events in your life. Please take at least five minutes for each essay. As you are writing, please focus on recalling events as specifically as you can and remembering your feelings at the time as vividly as possible.

First, please describe your morning routine in detail. Are there any activities you do every morning? Most mornings? Make sure to describe your surroundings and how engaging in these activities makes you feel. Again, please take your time writing this essay.

Now, please describe a time when someone took a precious object from you. What was it specifically and who took it from you? Make sure to describe what made the object so special and how having it taken away made you feel.

**Increased Gratitude:**

As part of this study, you will be asked to write two essays about events in your life. Please take at least five minutes for each essay. As you are writing, please focus on recalling events as specifically as you can and remembering your feelings at the time as vividly as possible.

First, please describe your morning routine in detail. Are there any activities you do every morning? Most mornings? Make sure to describe your surroundings and how engaging in these activities makes you feel. Again, please take your time writing this essay.

Now, please describe a time when someone gave you a cherished gift. What was the gift specifically and who gave it to you? Make sure to describe what made the gift so special and how receiving it made you feel.