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Academic Entitlement, Student Motivation, and Academic Outcomes

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ABSTRACT

There has been a recent influx of preliminary research examining Academic Entitlement (AE) and the corresponding implications. However, little is known about the antecedents and outcomes of entitled attitudes on the part of students. Initial findings suggest that those high in AE are more extrinsically motivated and have an external locus of control (Greenberger, Lessard, Chen, & Farruggia, 2008). Self-Determination Theory (SDT) provides a theoretical basis for understanding this constellation of characteristics and may prove useful in curbing AE. According to SDT, diminished levels of intrinsic motivation for tasks and increased non-self-determined motivation results in decreased task persistence, enjoyment in the activity, and performance (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Deci, Koestner, & Ryan, 1999). In the current investigation two studies were conducted to explore the relationships between AE, motivation, and academic performance. In the first study intrinsic motivation and amotivation mediated the relationship between AE and academic performance. Structural equation modeling was used in a second study, where the best fitting model included amotivation as a mediating variable in the relationship between AE and academic performance. This model is discussed as a coping-based model, whereby AE increases amotivation, which then decreases academic performance. The model identified through this work could be used to understand AE attitudes and potentially inform intervention strategies intended to deter AE attitudes and the associated behaviours.

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CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

Of late, there is considerable interest in the impact that the current generation of students will have on our world. Generally the outlook is negative; for example, it has been found that narcissistic tendencies, entitled attitudes, and uncivil behaviour may be on the rise amongst the current generation of students (Harvey & Martinko, 2009; Twenge, 2009; Twenge & Campbell, 2007; 2009; Twenge, Konrath, Foster, Campbell, & Bushman, 2008). Explanations for these findings range from problematic parenting to societal norms and structures (Givertz & Segrin, 2012; Harvey & Martinko, 2009; Twenge, 2009; Twenge et al., 2008; Twenge & Campbell, 2007; 2009). Regardless of the cause, post-secondary institutions are one location where these issues are likely to be visible.

The increase in education costs mixed with entitled attitudes may result in unrealistic expectations on the part of students. Specifically, post-secondary institutions serve as a location to gain knowledge and skills. Highly entitled students instead might feel that they are paying for their degree only to obtain a career, and not necessarily for the learning experience (Singleton-Jackson, Jackson, & Reinhardt, 2010). As such, this difference in perceived function could cause strain between students and teachers. There has been an influx of recent research on the topic of Academic Entitlement (AE) and what its implications may be in the near and long term. However, due to the preliminary nature of much of the research on AE it is difficult to fully appreciate the antecedents and consequences of these attitudes, but many have expressed concerns over the influence AE might have on the post-secondary education system (Clark, 2008; Jackson, Singleton-Jackson, & Frey, 2011;

Lippmann, Bulanda, & Wagenaar, 2009; Morrow, 1994; Singleton-Jackson et al., 2010).

While there is considerable evidence that AE represents a unique and meaningful construct (Achacoso, 2002; Chowning & Campbell, 2009; Greenberger et al., 2008; Jackson et al., 2011), it is important that a distinction is made between legitimate and illegitimate forms of entitlement on the part of students. As a historical term, entitlement would represent reasonable expectations one would have based on legal or normative scripts (Feather, 2003). In psychology the study of entitlement generally has a negative connotation due to its association with narcissism. More specifically, AE is thought to represent unrealistic expectations on the part of students, without necessarily deserving these expectations based on their behaviours. Certainly there are reasonable entitlements (or hygiene aspects) that students might expect, for instance it would be reasonable to expect that their professor is competent and that the learning environment is safe. However, Karpen (2014) argues that students cannot expect their post-secondary education to be modeled after a business transaction. For the purposes of this investigation AE would represent undeserving and unrealistic expectations on the part of students that could result in uncivil and dishonest practices (Achacoso, 2002; Singleton-Jackson et al., 2010).

In past investigations AE has been positively associated with performance avoidant, performance approach, and mastery avoidant learning orientations; while being negatively related to mastery approach learning orientation (Goodboy & Frisby, 2013; Greenberger, Lessard, Chen, & Farruggia, 2008; Jackson et al., 2011;

Kopp, Zinn, Finney, & Jurich, 2011; Vallade, Martin, & Weber, 2014; Warren, 2013). As well, positive relationships have been noted between AE, external locus of control, and extrinsic motivation (Achacoso, 2002; Greenberger et al., 2008; Kopp et al., 2011; Warren, 2013). In terms of outcomes, those higher in AE have been shown to have lower levels of effort, academic satisfaction, and academic performance (Achacoso, 2002; Cornell, 2014; Kopp et al., 2011; Miller, 2013; Olson, 2014; Jeffres, Barclay & Stolte, 2014); while exhibiting higher levels of academic dishonestly and incivility (Cornell, 2014; Goodboy & Frisby, 2013; Greenberger et al., 2008; Kopp & Finney, 2013)

Recently two models involving AE have been assessed. In one model perceptions of chance, influence from powerful others, consumerism, and performance avoidant learning orientation positively predicted AE, while mastery avoidant learning orientation was negatively related. In this model AE was then found to result in increased expectations of accommodation on the part of the students (Warren, 2013). In a second model, AE negatively influenced affective learning and expectancy beliefs, both of which were positive predictors of learning behaviours (Vallade et al., 2014). These two models seem to represent early support for two competing understandings of AE; one based largely on consumerist beliefs and another based on coping with the demands of post-secondary education. Despite these two initial inquires, currently there is not an explanatory model for the antecedents and outcomes associated with AE.

One aspect that has yet to be fully explored but may elucidate the causes and consequences of AE is motivation. Of the motivation models available, self-

determination theory (SDT) seems best suited to augment our understanding of AE, and the use of this theoretical approach may result in potential solutions for academic institutions. In particular, self-determined forms of motivation are associated with greater task persistence, learning, and academic performance (Black & Deci, 2000; Burton et al., 2006; Grolnick & Ryan, 1989; Mageau & Vallerand, 2003; Nix, Ryan, Manly, & Deci, 1999; Vansteenkiste, Simons, Lens, Sheldon, & Deci, 2004; Vansteenkiste, Timmermans, Lens, Soenens, & Van den Broeck, 2008). Furthermore, SDT has been used to explain self-handicapping behaviours and self-determined forms of motivation have been associated with mastery learning orientations (Harter, 1992; Riggs, 1992). As such, SDT may clarify how and why AE influences academic performance and behaviours.

The purpose of this inquiry was to develop an explanatory model for some of the variables associated with AE. To accomplish this goal, a two-study approach was implemented to systematically investigate the relationships between AE, motivation, academic behaviours, and academic performance. Based on the findings from the initial study, as well as the relevant AE and SDT literatures, competing models were specified and tested with the aim of better understanding the causes and outcomes associated with AE.

CHAPTER II
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In this section I provide a detailed review of the academic entitlement (AE), general entitlement, narcissism, and self-determination theory (SDT) literatures and provide theoretical support for bridging these aspects so that we may better understand AE and its influence on academic institutions. Using the past findings involving AE, general entitlement, narcissism, and self-determination theory, a theoretical model was developed as a means to inform an empirical investigation into the antecedents and outcomes associated with AE.

Academic Entitlement as a Unique Construct

Academic entitlement is a rather new construct, one that has theoretical overlap with similar constructs such as narcissism and general entitlement. Despite these conceptual similarities, researchers have found that AE represents a unique construct (Achacoso, 2002; Chowning & Campbell, 2009; Greenberger et al., 2008; Jackson et al., 2011). However, the overlap with narcissism and general entitlement provides a reasonable starting point for our understanding of AE, with a particular focus on the causes of these attitudes and their prevalence in our culture. To better understand the distinctiveness of AE we must first gain an understanding of the related constructs of interest.

General psychological entitlement has been an increasingly popular area in both psychology and the popular media (Campbell, Bonacci, Shelton, Exline, & Bushman, 2004); further, it has been found to have a positive relationship with AE (Chowning & Campbell, 2009; Greenberger et al., 2008; Kopp, Zinn, Finney, & Jurich, 2011). The word entitlement was historically used to represent legal or normative

scripts that a person would reasonably expect to occur; for example, one is entitled to humane treatment or fair procedures (Feather, 2003). This definition would represent a form of legitimate entitlement. More recently in the literature, psychological entitlement has been investigated and is thought to be characterized by more extreme attitudes, chiefly those centered on an expectation of receiving something for nothing (Campbell et al., 2004; Harvey & Martinko, 2009; Twenge & Campbell, 2009). It has been suggested that motivational strategies and rewards/punishment structure could be partly to blame for these entitled attitudes (Fisk, 2010). Furthermore, psychological entitlement has been linked to such outcomes as troubled interpersonal relationships (Twenge & Campbell, 2009), counterproductive workplace behaviours (Fisk, 2010), and general dissatisfaction (Byrne & Miller, 2010; Harvey & Martinko, 2009; Naumann, Minsky, & Sturman, 2002b; Twenge & Campbell, 2009).

Narcissism is also another area closely aligned with AE. Miller and Campbell (2008) note that the definition of the construct has become murky due to the clinical diagnosis of narcissistic personality disorder and the social-personality based manifestation of narcissism. Of the two options, the social-personality understanding of narcissism is most likely to clarify our understanding of AE, and as a result represents the definition that is used throughout this investigation. The social-personality conceptualization of narcissism is represented by a grandiose sense of self; including high levels of self-esteem, emotional resilience, and antagonistic interpersonal interactions (Miller & Campbell, 2008; Twenge & Campbell, 2009).

Like general entitlement, narcissism has been shown to have a positive relationship with AE (Chowning & Campbell, 2009; Greenberger et al., 2008). This particular form of narcissism appears to be drastically increasing in North American culture; some of the researchers investigating this trend have suggested that this increase has made narcissistic behaviours and attitudes normative – resulting in an escalation-type effect (Twenge & Campbell, 2009). Some authors have speculated that increased social narcissism in North America is the result of overly accommodating parenting (Givertz & Segrin, 2012); (Greenberger et al., 2008; Twenge, 2009; Twenge & Campbell, 2009), prevalence of social media (Twenge & Campbell, 2009), and socio-cultural structures (e.g., religious beliefs, financial institutions, education, popular media, etc.) to name a few (Twenge & Campbell, 2007; 2009). Furthermore, it has been suggested that the net result of this narcissism 'epidemic' could be as innocuous as interpersonal difficulties or as extreme as the debt crisis faced by the United States (Twenge & Campbell, 2009). These findings will be explored in more detail later in this document, as the overlap with AE could provide theoretical insight into the causes and outcomes of these types of attitudes.

Narcissism, Machiavellianism, and Psychopathy are regarded as the constructs that make up the dark triad of personality characteristics (Paulhus & Williams, 2002). Although to date there is some evidence that AE is positively related to psychopathy and narcissism (Turnipseed & Cohen, 2015), it is possible that AE may also be related to behaviours typically used to describe Machiavellianism such as deception and manipulation of others for personal gain

(Christie, Geis, & Berger, 1970). This is especially fitting with findings that suggest that AE students might be those that see education as a means of obtaining the most (e.g., the highest grade possible) for the least amount of input (e.g., little to no effort) and are willing to rely on dishonest strategies to achieve this goal (Achacoso, 2002; Singleton-Jackson et al., 2010).

With an understanding of these more general constructs, we are better able to recognize and appreciate the utility of AE as a separate but related construct. Although there is no single agreed upon definition for AE, it appears to be a multi-dimensional construct characterized by the following: belief that academic rewards should be given regardless of merit or achievement; externalization of responsibility in regards to academic achievement; and unrealistic expectations (Jackson et al., 2011). The most noteworthy differentiating characteristic between AE and the previously discussed constructs is the context specific nature of AE (Greenberger et al., 2008). For example, based on the recent AE literature it seems plausible that a student high in AE could exhibit low levels of narcissism or entitlement in other environments. While it is true that there might be overlap for some individuals in general entitlement and AE, simply using general entitlement to understand this phenomenon would not fully address the problem. Consequently, AE seems to be a unique and necessary construct required to clarify some of our current educational hurdles (Achacoso, 2002; Chowning & Campbell, 2009; Greenberger et al., 2008; Jackson et al., 2011). A reliance on the literature in these related areas can assist in our understanding of AE, while AE specific measurement is likely to provide a more nuanced understanding of these issues in our education system.

Measurement of Academic Entitlement

Research involving Academic Entitlement (AE) is very much in its infancy. Due to the preliminary nature of this construct, a considerable amount of work has been focused on defining, measuring, and placing the construct in a nomological network. Despite this focus, to date there does not appear to be a clear measure or measurement model that has emerged as the ideal conceptualization of AE. Instead, there has been some debate regarding the dimensionality of the construct, slowing our ability to generate knowledge about the causes and outcomes of AE.

In the first published AE measurement article, a single factor measure was used that was comprised of 15 items (Greenberger et al., 2008). The measure demonstrated good reliability in the samples that Greenberger et al. (2008) examined and the measure appeared to be related but different from other theoretically associated constructs. Despite these encouraging findings, little information is provided about the development of the measure and the assessment of the factor structure of the construct. This led some researchers to question the unidimensional nature of AE and attempt to measure the construct using newly developed questionnaires (Chowning & Campbell, 2009; Jackson et al., 2011; Kopp et al., 2011).

In an unpublished dissertation, Achacoso (2002) created and used an AE instrument with a suggested 2-factor structure, characterized by entitlement expectations and entitlement negotiations. This measure too has demonstrated good reliability and intuitive associations with theoretically compatible constructs (Achacoso, 2002; Ciani, Summers, Easter, & Sheldon, 2008b). Unfortunately, like the

previous attempt at quantifying AE, little information is provided about the development strategies (e.g., item development, data analytic strategies) so it is difficult to fully assess the quality of this instrument despite its use in more recent investigations (e.g., Ciani et al., 2008b).

Like Achacoso (2002), Chowning and Campbell (2009) found that a 2-factor measurement model best represented AE; however, with their measure they found the two factors represented externalized responsibility and entitled expectations. In this instance, the development of the measure was more thoroughly documented, although some of the procedural decisions were questionable. For example, they opted to implement a principal components analysis with an orthogonal rotation to determine the factor structure and they relied exclusively on a scree plot to determine the number of factors to be extracted. Although this approach appears to be superior to the previous measurement development strategies, a more ideal tactic would have been a common factor model using an oblique rotation – because the factors are likely to be correlated in the real world (Gorsuch, 1997); further, there are more advanced techniques available to determine the number of factors to be extracted (O'connor, 2000; Velicer, 1976). Use of these strategies may have resulted in a different factor structure.

In an attempt to clarify the dimensionality of the AE construct, Jackson, Singleton-Jackson and Frey (2011) included a combination of items from the recently developed measures and conducted exploratory and confirmatory factor analytic techniques. They found that a 4-factor model best fit their data and resulted in expected relationships with other theoretical variables of interest. Because their

primary aim was to understand the dimensionality of AE based on the existing measures, they suggested that those investigating AE should continue to perfect the measurement strategies so that future research can more accurately reflect the underlying latent structure of the domain.

Most recently, two investigations into the measurement of AE have been completed, both taking different approaches but arriving at similar conclusions. In the first case, Kopp, Zinn, Finney and Jurich (2011) took a top down approach to developing a new AE instrument. They began by relying on an earlier investigation involving student entitlement where five themes were noted (Dubovsky, 1986; Kopp et al., 2011):

1. Knowledge is a right and should require minimal effort.
2. Others provide the knowledge as needed.
3. Difficulties acquiring knowledge are the fault of the teacher or system, not student.
4. Students should control classroom policy.
5. Positive outcomes are warranted because of the tuition that has been paid.

Based on these theoretical themes they developed 42 items and tested variations of this 5-factor model using two large samples. Although they found good fit for their 5-factor model, they also tested a bi-factor model whereby they noted that much of the variance was attributable to a single factor. They then reduced the number of items to the 8 that best represented this single factor and found excellent fit for this model in both of their samples. They continued their investigation using only the single factor model and found expected relationships with theoretical

variables of interest. Although the single factor model shows promise, the strategies employed to obtain it warrant some caution. By selecting a single factor model based on the variance in their bi-factor model they may have inadvertently relied on a factor largely representing common method variance instead of AE (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Lee, 2003). The fact that the single factor model was related to the theoretical constructs as hypothesized gives some evidence that this is not the case; nevertheless, this could undermine the utility of the single factor measure of AE. Since the initial development, further evidence has been found for the structural validity and reliability of this instrument (Kopp & Finney, 2013).

Jackson, Singleton-Jackson, Frey and McLellan (2013), took a bottom up approach to developing a measure of AE and found a similar factor structure to the 5-factor model proposed by Kopp et al. (2011). They relied on existing items from prior measurement tools, as well as some new items based on focus groups with students (Singleton-Jackson et al., 2010); they found a 6-factor model comprised of 40-items where 5 of the 6 factors were strikingly similar to those outlined by Kopp et al. (2011). The factors found were: preferential treatment, consumer expectations, effort expectations, professor expectations, achievement negotiation, and accommodation. It should be noted that the 6th factor was a weaker factor (i.e., lower loadings with some cross-loadings). Again, it is interesting that both of these independent investigations resulted in similar factor structures – lending some validity to these measurement models and suggesting that AE is a multi-dimensional construct. Further, it is possible that AE may represent a multi-dimensional

construct, with a higher order single dimension. This bi-factor model found support by Kopp et al. (2011) and may best reflect the literature in this area to date.

Despite the uncertainty in measuring AE, considerable advancements have been made in understanding the construct. Based on the findings to date, a hierarchical model may be useful, but the simplicity of a single general AE factor may provide a more precise way of directly investigating AE. We turn next to some of the AE findings based on the existing measurement tools, and how these findings might be applied to better understand the antecedents and outcomes of AE.

Recent Academic Entitlement Findings

As alluded to previously, evidence has been found that both general entitlement and narcissism have positive relationships with AE (Chowning & Campbell, 2009; Greenberger et al., 2008; Kopp et al., 2011; Turnipseed & Cohen, 2015; Wasieleski, Whatley, Briihl, & Branscome, 2014); these findings have been used to demonstrate the uniqueness of AE as a construct. Outside of these direct measurement comparisons, researchers have found correlational connections between AE and a host of variables including: personality and family characteristics, academic characteristics, student attributions, and student motivation. Despite the largely correlational nature of these findings, many of the studies have reported consistent findings, suggesting that there is a relatively reliable profile that is associated with AE.

AE and Personality Characteristics. In terms of personality aspects and their relationship to AE, one of the more challenging areas of study has been self-esteem. In some of the preliminary studies it was noted that AE had a negative relationship

with self-esteem – the strongest relationship being with academic self-esteem (Chowning & Campbell, 2009; Greenberger et al., 2008). More recently, Kopp et al. (2011) brought these findings into question; by using a different measurement tool they found that AE had a positive relationship with self-esteem. This finding makes sense when considered in relation to the narcissism and general entitlement literature where it has been suggested that these constructs are related to higher levels of self-esteem (Twenge & Campbell, 2009). In addition, it has been noted that AE is positively related to grandiosity on the part of students, again suggesting that those individuals with high levels of AE are likely to think highly of themselves (Chowning & Campbell, 2009). While the findings to date are equivocal, it would seem that recent evidence and theory suggests that students with high levels of AE are likely to have higher levels of perceived self-worth (Kopp et al., 2011). Latent populations of AE development could provide an alternative explanation for these discrepancies. More specifically, there could be different types of AE development pathways; based on the sample that is being used, these population differences could influence the relationship between AE and presumed antecedent variables.

With this in mind, Chowning and Campbell's (2009) results pertaining to the big five personality characteristics provide further detail about the aspects that are associated with AE. Specifically, they found that AE was negatively related to agreeableness, conscientiousness, and extroversion, but positively related to neuroticism. There is also evidence that AE is positively related to an exaggerated sense of deservingness on the part of students (Achacoso, 2002). Fitting with these findings, in a qualitative investigation it has been noted that students expressed that

they felt entitled to behave rudely or disrespectfully to others (faculty/students) because they were 'paying customers' (Clark & Springer, 2007). Taken together, it seems that students high in AE are likely to be less conscientious and agreeable while feeling that they are more deserving than others.

In terms of social/inter-personal variables, researchers have found correlations between AE factors, emotional intelligence (Jackson et al., 2011), and social commitment (Greenberger et al., 2008). Specifically, those demonstrating high accommodation expectations exhibited lower social skills, optimism, and general emotional intelligence (Jackson et al., 2011). Other dimensions of AE have demonstrated positive relationships with appraisal of emotions, social skills, optimism, general emotional intelligence, and social commitment (Greenberger et al., 2008; Jackson et al., 2011). These findings suggest that those seeking accommodation may exhibit lower levels of emotional intelligence. Conversely, those pursuing rewards for effort, attempting to control their learning environment, and those who view education as a product might have higher emotional intelligence and employ that in the pursuit of their academic expectations. This provides some evidence that AE development pathways may differ based on student individual characteristics and expectations.

Another individual difference that has often been included in AE research is the finding that men and women differ on AE. In two instances it was found that males had higher levels of AE than females (Boswell, 2012; Ciani, Summers, & Easter, 2008a) while in another the opposite was noted (Achacoso, 2002). The meaning of this result is unclear given the typically larger number of females in the

studies to date and the variability in the findings. However, historically it has been noted that men generally have a greater sense of general entitlement across contexts (Desmarais & Curtis, 1997; Foster, Keith Campbell, & Twenge, 2003).

When these personality and individual difference aspects are considered as a whole, some interesting and consistent patterns rise to the surface. Extrapolating on these patterns, in terms of personality, those higher in AE are likely to feel that they are better than others and deserving of preferential treatment. They are also likely to be less conscientious and less agreeable, while feeling deserving of doing what they can to get what they want. These patterns seem to represent some of the individual characteristics exhibited by those high in AE, but they do not necessarily tell us how these individuals became entitled or how they may act in academic settings.

AE and Family Characteristics. To date, there has been little study of what causes AE. One investigation by Greenberger et al. (2008) looked specifically at the role of parents and the family in the formation of AE in students. What they found was that increasingly demanding parental expectations, frequency of parental social comparisons, and the more parents used rewards were all positively related to AE in students. More recently others have found AE to be positively related to helicopter parenting, authoritarian parenting, and permissive parenting (Cornell, 2014; Stafford, 2013). Helicopter parenting refers to parents who intensely monitor their child, especially their scholastic pursuits. In theory, these findings would suggest that parents of students high in AE might have higher expectations for their child's performance, frequently compare their child to others, monitor their child's

progress, and do not employ authoritative parenting styles. It is likely that these parental aspects play a role in the motivational characteristics of the students and as a result may impact their sense of entitlement and performance (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Specifically, students may rely on AE attitudes and behaviours as a means of coping when they lack the ability to meet these parental expectations.

AE and Attributions/Motivation. Given their findings about parental strategies and AE, it is not surprising that Greenberger et al. (2008) also found a positive relationship between extrinsic motivation and AE. To date, this appears to be the only investigation of the relationship between AE and motivation. However, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are often empirically and theoretically connected to locus of control, since autonomy and control are two important aspects of the self-determination theory of motivation (Deci et al., 1999; Deci & Ryan, 2000; Vallerand, 2000). Typically, individuals with higher levels of external locus of control (ELOC) are less likely to be intrinsically motivated (and vice versa). Self-determination theory will be discussed in more detail later; however, it is important that the connection between locus of control and motivation is made because it can assist in creating theoretical connections between AE and motivation.

Broadly speaking, an ELOC would represent when an individual feels that scenarios are not in their control, while an internal locus of control (ILOC) is when an individual feels that they are able to control their circumstances (Findley & Cooper, 1983; Phares, 1976). Again, this connection may prove important, as there is considerable evidence that AE has a specific pattern of relationships with a host of individual attribution constructs. In particular, positive relationships have been

found between AE and ELOC based on luck, ELOC based on others, and ELOC based on contextual factors (Achacoso, 2002; Kopp et al., 2011; Warren, 2013). Furthermore, researchers have found a negative relationship between ILOC and AE (Achacoso, 2002; Chowning & Campbell, 2009).

Outside of direct investigations of attributions and motivation, some researchers have looked at self-efficacy and self-regulation as they relate to AE. Self-efficacy is thought to represent an individual's assessment of their ability to accomplish tasks/goals. In the case of academic self-efficacy, this construct represents the students' perceived ability to complete scholastic tasks and reach their academic goals (Bong, 2004; Gist & Mitchell, 1992). Although a somewhat nebulous construct, self-regulation is thought of as cognitive and behavioural strategies – including modification of the environment and application of effort – employed by individuals to achieve their goals (Pintrich, 2000; Schunk & Zimmerman, 1998; Zimmerman, 2008). In one study, it was noted that AE was negatively related to self-efficacy (Boswell, 2012), which coincides with Achacoso's (2002) finding that AE beliefs were negatively related to self-regulation. One peculiarity has been noted in Achacoso's investigation: self-regulation was positively related to AE attitudes. Kopp et al. (2011) recently challenged this finding by arguing that the results and theoretical implications were counter-intuitive. Specifically, a student who has entitled attitudes should not be higher in self-regulation because self-regulation implies that the student is an active participant in their education experience. They attributed this discrepancy to measurement issues

and suggested that improved measurement tactics are needed to understand the relationship between self-regulation and AE.

When considered as a whole, the findings regarding motivation, attributions, and self-regulatory patterns as they relate to AE provide us with a relatively clear idea of how these constructs fit together. It seems that students high in AE should have a higher level of ELOC (across multiple academic circumstances), which likely results in a positive relationship with extrinsic motivating factors and a negative relationship with intrinsic motivation. The reliance on extrinsic motivators may cause the students to have lower levels of self-efficacy and self-regulation in their academic pursuits. The result of these characteristics is best explained by examining some of the academic variables that have been shown to relate to AE.

AE and Academic Characteristics. To better understand the influence that AE has on students, researchers have investigated a number of learning based constructs and their relationship with AE. These variables include individual characteristics like learning styles and effort, as well as behavioural outcomes like academic dishonesty, grades, and academic behaviours. These findings shed some light on the outcomes one might expect from students high in AE and they also show the perspective that these students take on the learning experience.

Learning orientation has been one of the most frequently studied areas relating to AE and the findings have been fairly consistent. There are 4 general learning orientations: mastery, mastery avoidance, performance, and performance avoidance. Mastery oriented students approach learning as a pursuit to obtain new knowledge, skills, or abilities. Students who exhibit mastery avoidance would avoid

learning situations where they might be perceived as incompetent. Performance oriented students would focus on achieving positive external evaluations. Those with a performance avoidant learning orientation would attempt to avoid negative external evaluations (Bong, 2001; Elliot & McGregor, 2001; Finney, Pieper, & Barron, 2004). Students high in AE generally have lower levels of mastery learning orientation (Goodboy & Frisby, 2013; Greenberger et al., 2008; Jackson et al., 2011; Kopp et al., 2011), while having higher levels of performance avoidance (Jackson et al., 2011; Kopp et al., 2011; Warren, 2013) and performance learning orientations (Goodboy & Frisby, 2013; Jackson et al., 2011; Vallade, Martin, & Weber, 2014; Warren, 2013); to date there has been one study that found mastery avoidance to be positively related to AE (Warren, 2013).

In addition to learning styles, AE has been shown to have a negative relationship with effort (Achacoso, 2002; Cornell, 2014; Kopp et al., 2011), interest in learning (Vallade et al., 2014), academic satisfaction (Miller, 2013; Olson, 2014), goal perseverance (Jones, 2013), study behaviours (Vallade et al., 2014), and academic performance (Jeffres, Barclay, & Stolte, 2014). As well, AE has been found to be positively related to academic dishonesty (Cornell, 2014; Greenberger et al., 2008), incivility (Goodboy & Frisby, 2013; Kopp & Finney, 2013), and morality (Cornell, 2014). Taken together, these findings suggest that in academic contexts those high in AE are less likely to be engaged in the learning process and are more likely to implement negative behaviours.

To investigate how these negative behaviours might manifest themselves in actual situations, Chowning and Campbell (2009) had students respond to vignettes

of realistic school based situations and found that students high in AE were more likely to endorse inappropriate behavioural tactics to achieve their academic goals. This finding corroborates the results of other qualitative investigations, where it has been noted that students view their education from a consumer perspective; that is, they would act to get the best grade possible for the least expense (Clark, 2008; Singleton-Jackson et al., 2010). Interestingly, cross-sectional inquiries into whether students become more academically entitled over time suggest that this is not the case; although in one instance it was noted that 4th year students had the highest levels of AE (Ciani et al., 2008b). A longitudinal approach would likely clarify this, as faculty and administrators might be perpetuating these consumer-based ideas of education through inadvertent reinforcement of AE behaviours/beliefs in earlier years, possibly bolstering AE in students over time.

The findings involving the relationship between AE and academic characteristics provides us with a reasonable outline of what higher levels of AE might look like in practice. A student with high AE would be less interested in attempting to master a topic area, but instead would be focused on external performance indicators. This emphasis on external performance, combined with a consumer based ideological understanding of education may result in dishonest strategies and inappropriate behavioural tactics (e.g., cheating on exams, plagiarizing, not participating in group work, etc.), while providing less effort in scholastic pursuits. This pattern also fits well with the personality antecedents and family characteristics that seem to influence AE levels. Further, these findings are consistent with the motivational patterns that have been noted; specifically, the

focus on external performance in learning styles on the part of those high in AE fits well with the notion that they are also likely to be high in extrinsic motivation.

Entitlement and Narcissism as a Means of Understanding Academic Entitlement

Since we are still in the early stages of studying AE, based on the literature to date it is difficult to fully appreciate the antecedents and outcomes of AE. However, because of the close relationship between AE, general entitlement, and narcissism, these literatures can potentially fill in some of these gaps. For instance, evidence from these literatures relating to the development, maintenance, and consequences of entitled beliefs could be used to expand our understanding of AE. It should be noted that the relationships discussed pertaining to entitlement and narcissism might not manifest in the same way for AE, but the theoretical foundations can be used to better understand AE. In turn, it may be possible to generate a theoretical model of how AE develops and how it influences educational outcomes.

Relevant Entitlement Findings. General entitlement, being the construct most closely associated with AE, provides an opportunity to extrapolate on the existing research as it may apply to AE in education settings. Entitlement research in itself is a newer area of study and has often been discussed in relation to narcissism; in fact, the Narcissism Personality Inventory (NPI) is thought to be comprised of a separate entitlement sub-factor, which has been used to validate existing entitlement measures (Campbell et al., 2004; Raskin & Terry, 1988). Consequently, entitlement is often assumed to have a positive relationship with narcissism, and these factors together represent a general definition of what Twenge and Campbell (2008) call 'generation me'. They go on to say that individuals in 'generation me' are

characterized by higher levels of self-esteem, anxiety, and an external locus of control. Although these two constructs will be discussed independently, the idea of combining entitlement and narcissism as an assemblage of factors that embody 'generation me' represents a useful heuristic for understanding these constructs in tandem.

Beyond Twenge and Campbell's conceptualization, those studying entitlement have found similar results across multiple contexts for the construct on an individual basis. In workplace settings, entitled individuals have demonstrated lower levels of job satisfaction and higher levels of conflict in the workplace (Harvey & Martinko, 2009; Huseman, Hatfield, & Miles, 1985; King & Miles, 1994). In addition, those who are entitled in the workplace are less likely to view their efforts in terms of reciprocity; in other words, they feel that they deserve rewards from the organization in the absence of accomplishing tasks (Huseman, Hatfield, & Miles, 1987; Naumann, Minsky, & Sturman, 2002a; 2002b). Outside of the workplace specific findings, Campbell et al. (2004) found that individuals high in entitlement had lower levels of agreeableness and emotional stability. They also found that those higher in entitlement were more competitive, selfish, and aggressive (Campbell et al., 2004).

General entitlement as a construct is founded on the idea that those who are entitled expect something for nothing. Lerner (1987) argued that what an individual within society feels that they are entitled to is contingent upon their experiences with societal structures. Given the reported increase in these tendencies, it is not surprising to see that considerable thought has been given to age and cohort effects

as they relate to entitlement (e.g., Foster et al., 2003; Twenge & Campbell, 2007; 2009). That is to say, there appears to be a confluence of factors, at both individual and societal levels, that are directly influencing the entitled expectations held by individuals. It has been argued that social networks (e.g., Facebook, Twitter, etc.), modern communication technology (e.g., text messaging, web forums, etc.), reality based media, and overly catering parental strategies may contribute to an increased sense of entitlement amongst the youth of today (Foster et al., 2003; Twenge & Campbell, 2009). It is implied that these mechanisms give individuals a false sense of importance and expertise (absent the requisite knowledge and skills), which might result in an inflated self-concept and unrealistic expectations. In addition, Foster et al. (2003) suggested that aging brings with it greater experience and realistic impressions of one's capabilities; as a result, as individuals age they should be less likely to exhibit narcissistic or entitled attitudes because they are less inclined to have inflated views of their abilities or importance. This provides some insight into strategies that might deter academic entitlement; that is, giving students experiences where they are made aware of their abilities and the corresponding social expectations could decrease their levels of AE.

Models of Entitlement. Within the entitlement literature some attempts have been made to create working models to explain and study this phenomenon. Some of these researchers focused on the causes of entitled attitudes, while others concentrated on the outcomes of entitled attitudes, and finally some attempted to distinguish entitlement from similar concepts. Some of these models are based exclusively on prior research and theory, while others use data to test specific

hypotheses outlined in their models. As a result, some of the models that exist in the literature are firmly theoretical in origin while others carry both theoretical and empirical support. Though the distinction between empirically validated versus not empirically tested models is important, both model types may prove useful in understanding AE. In the context of the current investigation, these general entitlement models were consulted when specifying the AE models to be tested.

One of the first conceptual models used to understand entitlement focused on the dimensions of entitlement as they pertain to reciprocity (Naumann, Minsky, & Sturman, 2002a; 2002b). In this theoretical model, 'entitled perceptions' by the individual and their estimation of 'required reciprocity' represents the individuals' level of 'entitlement'. Naumann, Minsky and Sturman (2002) tie this theory to the existing work that has found that inappropriately entitled employees are less satisfied with their work and more inclined to rely on counter-productive behaviours (Huseman et al., 1987; King & Miles, 1994). They go on to suggest that the inappropriately entitled employee is one that has highly entitled perceptions (i.e., expects a lot) and low levels of reciprocity (i.e., they are unwilling to give of themselves to obtain their expectations). This model has some compelling theoretical implications. In particular, it is possible that the subjective nature of perceived entitlement could result in incidents where individuals feel entitled to a desired outcome, which is not warranted by social conventions. Furthermore, in situations where the individual feels they have provided payment for an outcome, the perceived level of required reciprocity may already be nil – that is, they have already paid their way. This conceptualization is particularly relevant to AE as it has

been noted that students tend to consider themselves to be customers of the academic institution and suggest that, as such, they deserve a certain baseline grade (Singleton-Jackson et al., 2010).

Feather (2003) discussed entitlement as a model in an attempt to distinguish the construct from deservingness. In this model deservingness was described as: earned or achieved outcomes based on behaviours; and entitlement was noted as an expectation of positive outcomes absent of behavioural input. Across two studies, Feather found that effort was a key component for individuals when determining if someone was deserving of an outcome. For example, when effort was given in a political campaign, winning was considered deserved, but without effort it was not considered deserved. From this work a model of entitlement versus deservingness was developed, wherein entitlement was characterized by expected positive outcomes based on social rules, regardless of the efforts that are taken by the individual. These social rules could vary based on the context and circumstances under investigation, for instance social rules in a business context could greatly differ from those in a household or in an academic setting.

Taking a more empirical approach, Harvey and Martinko (2009) proposed and assessed a model of entitlement that focused on the influence that the construct indirectly had on job satisfaction and conflict with coworkers. They found that both 'need for cognition' and a 'self-serving attribution style' mediated the relationship between entitlement and job satisfaction, as well as coworker conflict. In this study, need for cognition represented the individual's desire to obtain and process information about the incident. In the case of self-serving attributions, higher levels

of entitlement led to an increase in self-serving attributions, which resulted in decreased job satisfaction and increased conflict with coworkers. Regarding need for cognition, they note that increased entitlement was related to decreased need for cognition, which was then negatively related to self-serving attributions in the model. In addition, entitlement had positive relationships with employee turnover and conflict with coworkers. Taken as a whole, this model implies that entitled individuals may try to rationalize situations using a self-serving bias and then attribute their circumstances to personally beneficial causes (e.g., poor work performance being perceived as the fault of coworker incompetence); the consequences of this tactic seem to be: interpersonal conflicts, decreased workplace satisfaction, and a desire to leave the organization. These findings are useful in understanding AE; since entitled students are likely to rely on external attributions (Achacoso, 2002; Kopp et al., 2011; Warren, 2013), this may result in dissatisfaction with the learning process and professors, potentially causing students to leave the institution.

Of the models that have been developed, Zitek, Jordan, Monin and Leach (2010) presented one of the few that directly examines the development course of entitled attitudes. Relying on a series of experiments, Zitek et al. explored feelings of unfairness as they pertain to entitled attitudes and selfish behaviours. They found that the relationship between perceived unfair circumstances and selfish behaviours was mediated by entitlement. In more detail, those in an unfair condition were more likely to hold entitled attitudes and as a result were more likely to enact selfish behaviours. They go on to theorize that repeated occurrences

of perceived unfairness, that is experiences running contrary to expectations, could result in a pervasive sense of entitlement in individuals. This model of understanding entitlement could be directly applicable to AE; students have a developed set of expectations and when these expectations are thwarted this could be perceived as an unfair outcome, consequently they would react by feeling a sense of entitlement and behaving in a selfish manner. As a hypothetical example, a student who is engaged in learning the course materials might witness what they feel is an unfair advantage given to a fellow student (e.g., a grade increase on a test because the other student had a perfect attendance record). For the student who is working to learn the material but not achieving at the level they feel that they deserve, this perceived unfairness might result in the student acting on this perceived unfairness in entitled ways. For instance, the student might cheat on a subsequent test and rationalize this behaviour based on this perceived unfairness. Or in a less severe case, the student might ask the professor for a grade improvement because he/she too has had perfect attendance. In both examples, the student will hold entitled attitudes – i.e., deserving something for nothing – that results in entitled behaviours.

Fisk (2010), in an attempt to understand entitlement in the workplace, reviewed and synthesized the literature in this area and attempted to create a working theoretical model. Like Zitek et al. (2010), Fisk discusses entitled behaviours as a response to a perceived wrong; where the individual expects the best possible outcome, without the effort required to meet this expectation, often resulting in a feeling of being wronged. She asserts that counterproductive work

behaviours are the direct result of these attitudes. In terms of the basis for these entitled expectations, she argues that an indulgent organizational culture and recruiting strategies causes employees to have unrealistic beliefs about their worth and to have entitled attitudes. Fisk goes on to suggest that a solution to this approach would be to rely on consistent and effective contingent reward/punishment schemes. She contends that appropriate behavioural modification strategies could, over time, decrease entitled attitudes and the related counterproductive work behaviours. Although on the surface, this approach seems both elegant and useful, it is possible that these strategies could falter, and in fact increase the propensity of entitled attitudes. According to self-determination theory (SDT), firm contingent behavioural modification strategies deter intrinsic motivation and satisfaction (Deci & Ryan, 2000). More to the point, these behavioural strategies may work in the short term but could strengthen the perceived unfairness on the part of the individual over time. Certainly, this approach could be useful but further research is needed to clarify the relationship between reward tactics, motivation, and entitlement. Furthermore, such behaviour modification strategies may be unrealistic in post-secondary academic settings where it would be difficult to consistently administer these tactics across classes and situations.

More recently, Givertz and Segrin (2012) theorized and tested whether parental control strategies influenced student entitlement and self-efficacy. Their theoretical suppositions were based on past research where it has been found that intrusive/controlling parenting negatively influence the sense of competence and

self-efficacy in children (Barber & Harmon, 2002; Barber, Olsen, & Shagle, 1994), while also being positively related to narcissism and a sense of grandiosity (Capron, 2004; Miller & Campbell, 2008). Using this work, they constructed and tested a model, where controlling parental strategies were associated with higher levels of psychological entitlement and lower levels of self-efficacy. Running counter to Fisk (2010), they theorize that the best strategies to decrease entitlement would be to create environments with flexibility, cohesion, and positive communication. They go on to suggest that these types of environments should result in increased internal locus of control, satisfaction, and self-efficacy (Givertz & Segrin, 2012). This competing approach to addressing entitlement fits nicely with existing motivation theory (i.e., SDT) and could provide an explanation for entitlement in academic settings – that is, a focus on external consequences may perpetuate feelings of entitlement in students. Further research is needed though, to understand whether firm behavioural modification strategies or more flexible tactics would be best suited to understanding and altering academic entitlement.

Relevant Narcissism Findings. Although narcissism does not represent as direct an analog to AE as general entitlement, it does appear to be closely related to these constructs. It is possible that narcissism, in some cases, may act as a pre-determining factor in AE. As a result, research involving narcissism and models that explain its origins and outcomes may assist in the construction of a theoretical model for AE. In the literature there have been reliable findings pertaining to the way that narcissistic individuals behave, view themselves, and interact with others.

In terms of behaviour, those high in narcissism are likely to have higher levels of Machiavellianism, suggesting that these individuals are focused on their own personal gains and are willing to manipulate others to achieve their goals (McHoskey, 1995). Others have corroborated this finding, by noting that narcissists focus their efforts on performance despite possible social consequences (Campbell, 2005; Campbell, Rudich, & Sedikides, 2002; Morf, 1994; Morf & Rhodewalt, 1993). Beyond these performance aspirations, narcissists tend to be socially bold (Emmons, 1984), extroverted (Bradlee & Emmons, 1992; Miller & Campbell, 2008), and high in self-esteem (Miller & Campbell, 2008). Narcissists also tend to be younger and individualistic in their self-construal – though this finding could be influenced by cultural factors inherent in western nations (Foster et al., 2003).

In addition, narcissists display a propensity to act impulsively, specifically for short-term gains, as well as being prone to sensation seeking behaviours (Jones & Paulhus, 2011; Miller et al., 2009; Vazire & Funder, 2006). Sometimes, these impulsive behaviours can be aggressive (Miller et al., 2009; Vazire & Funder, 2006) and often narcissists are willing to engage in risky behaviours if it may result in positive feedback (Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001). It is not surprising, then, that narcissists tend to be extrinsically motivated unless the outcome will provide ego-boosting feedback (Haradkiewicz & Elliot, 1998; Morf, Weir, & Davidov, 2000). Put another way, they do not seem to pursue the mastery of material but instead positive feedback, for the sake of ego augmentation. This focus on performance, combined with impulsivity and risk taking behaviours might lead to dishonest behaviours – like cheating in academic assessments – in the pursuit of short term

benefits to the individual's self-esteem (Miller et al., 2009; Nathanson, Paulhus, & Williams, 2006; Vazire & Funder, 2006). In terms of applications in academic settings, narcissistic attitudes could result in counter-productive behaviours that disrupt the learning process.

These types of behaviours appear to be based on the need of the narcissist to maintain a high level of esteem. It has been found that narcissists tend to be overconfident in their abilities and they often pursue opportunities to demonstrate their perceived superiority (Campbell & Goodie, 2004; Robins & John, 1997). In fact, this need appears to be so pronounced that narcissists will over-claim that they accurately know information that does not exist (Paulhus, Harms, Bruce, & Lysy, 2003). Furthermore, when presented with a situation where they are given negative feedback, they will often rely on socially disruptive tactics (e.g., self-promoting, discounting, or avoiding difficult tasks) to protect their unrealistic sense of self (Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001; Robins & John, 1997; Vazire & Funder, 2006). Baumiester and Vohs (2001) liken this pursuit of positive feedback to an addictive cycle, where the narcissist experiences cravings for positive feedback, withdrawal effects, and baseline tolerance levels for positive feedback. In other words, narcissists will actively pursue positive feedback and will act out if they do not attain this need. In addition, the baseline for positive feedback will escalate over time, forcing the narcissist to constantly pursue more grandiose forms of positive feedback (Baumeister & Vohs, 2001). This dangerous form of escalation could be a point of concern in academic settings, as a narcissistic student may constantly pursue unsustainable levels of positive feedback at any cost.

Based on the characteristics associated with narcissistic attitudes and inflated perspectives of self-worth, it is not difficult to imagine some of the social difficulties that can arise when interacting with individuals high in narcissism. Narcissistic individuals primarily focus on performance and have little concern for pro-social activities (Campbell et al., 2002); when they are put in a situation where others outperform them they will often rely on ad hominem remarks to bolster their own self-perception (Morf & Rhodewalt, 1993). As noted earlier, their proclivity towards impulsivity, risk taking, and aggression makes them challenging to address. These issues are magnified by increased social boldness and a tendency to actively self-promote – even when they are told by experts that they are wrong (Emmons, 1984; Morf, 1994). These attitudes and behaviours can result in self-handicapping tactics, that reduce their social status as well as their ability to perform successfully (Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001). Although narcissism seems to represent a more extreme (and pervasive) sense of entitlement than is often conceived by AE, it is quite possible that these characteristics carry over to students who hold entitled attitudes. One can envision a situation where a narcissistic student is also high in AE, but it does not necessarily follow that all students high in AE would share these characteristics. Nevertheless, taken as an extreme example of AE, the narcissism literature provides a grim depiction, where a narcissistic student would focus on performance for the sake of their ego, and is willing to do whatever it takes to meet this goal.

Models of Narcissism. In the narcissism literature there has been extensive investigations into the individual differences and outcomes related to narcissistic

tendencies. However, few have discussed theoretical or empirical models for the causes of, and outcomes that result from narcissism. This may be due to the contextual and longitudinal factors that play a role in the transmission and perpetuation of narcissistic attitudes. The application of the existing models to AE may assist in our understanding of extreme manifestations of AE in academic settings. In the context of the current investigation, these narcissism models were consulted when specifying the AE models to be tested.

One of the first models of narcissism that was discussed involved the tendencies to maintain positive self-evaluations based on situational and interpersonal characteristics (Morf & Rhodewalt, 1993). They relied on the self-evaluation maintenance model to theorize about the processing a narcissist undergoes to maintain positive evaluations of their abilities. In self-evaluation maintenance theory, an individual's perspective of him or herself is thought to be influenced by both comparison with others and reflection on past achievement; where the psychological closeness (or similarity) and relevance of a comparison target will increase the impact of comparisons (Tesser, 1988). Morf and Rhodewalt (1993) hypothesized that narcissists would rely on defensive self-evaluation maintenance tactics to sustain the positive opinions they hold about themselves. They found that when narcissists are presented with an ego threat, they evaluate others more negatively and attribute the success of others to negative personal characteristics. When applied to AE, this conceptualization fits well with the unfairness model of entitlement discussed by Zitek et al. (2010), where overly positive views of academic abilities are the result of extensive efforts to regulate

self-evaluations. Consequently, when faced with ego threat situations and superior performing comparison targets, the individual may defer to a feeling of unfairness (i.e., discounting the accomplishments of others and relying on external attributions for their own performance), ultimately perpetuating a sense of entitlement.

More recently, Morf and Rhodewalt (2001) extended their conceptualization of narcissism in an attempt to account for the seemingly paradoxical behaviour enacted by narcissists when engaging with others. They were concerned with the challenge narcissists are faced with in maintaining high self-opinions despite information to the contrary, especially given prior findings that narcissists have difficulty discerning their real from ideal self (Rhodewalt & Morf, 1995). They suggest that narcissists publicize their perceived superiority in the hope of obtaining positive responses from others; however, over time this tactic results in adverse social effects. Morf and Rhodewalt expanded on this by discussing how self-promotion strategies will often be coupled with self-handicapping as a means of actively preserving high self-opinions. When given tasks, narcissists will actively seek scenarios where they are confident in their ability to succeed and avoid situations where failure seems possible. Interestingly, it has also been noted that interpersonally competitive students are more likely to be performance oriented and adopt work avoidance strategies (Harackiewicz, Barron, Carter, Lehto, & Elliot, 1997). This theoretical understanding of narcissism also illuminates some of the challenges that may be faced with entitled students. In particular, it may be difficult to adjust the expectations of students who avoid difficult work but pursue easy assessments, while also enacting self-handicapping strategies (e.g., not attempting

to learn the information) to deflect negative evaluations. These types of behaviours and cognitive externalization strategies might deeply entrench students in the belief that they deserve positive evaluations and any counter-indicating information could be discounted as the result of external causes. One approach may be to refocus the student on mastering materials as opposed to achievement.

In the same vein as Morf and Rhodewalt (1995), Vazire and Funder (2006) were curious about the types of behaviours narcissists engage in to obtain the positive evaluations that they seek. Relying on meta-analytic strategies, they argue that narcissists rely on short-term solutions to resolve self-concept threats, because of deficiencies in their ability to control their impulses. They go on to suggest that increased impulsivity on the part of narcissists results in behaviours that undermine their pursuit of positive evaluations over time. As a result, in their model, self-handicapping and self-promotion are indirectly related to narcissism through impulsivity.

Miller et al. (2009) directly challenged this model, arguing that while narcissism is related to impulsivity, it is not the primary driver of the self-defeating behaviours exhibited by narcissists. They tested a number of mediation models involving narcissism and other personality characteristics, and found that narcissism was directly related to impulsivity, but impulsivity did not mediate the relationship between narcissism and self-defeating behaviours. On the contrary, they found that the relationship between narcissism and self-defeating behaviours was mediated by agreeableness, extraversion, and conscientiousness; where higher levels of narcissism were related to lower agreeableness and increased

extroversion, which then was related to increased self-defeating behaviours. These findings highlight some of the ongoing difficulties in understanding the mechanisms that underlie the relationship between narcissism and self-defeating behaviours; certainly, additional research in this area is warranted. Even with the preliminary findings, it could be that similar dynamics are at play in terms of students high in entitlement. For example, it seems possible that inappropriately entitled students, due to a grandiose sense of self, may fall victim to self-defeating behaviours in their academic pursuits which ultimately perpetuate the feelings of unfairness that kindle their sense of entitlement. Further work will be required to fully understand if this relationship exists in AE and which variables might mediate the relationship between entitled attitudes and self-defeating behaviours.

Of the narcissism models that have been investigated, Campbell, Goodie and Foster's (2004) inquiry into the relationships between narcissism, risk taking, over confidence, and performance, might prove the most useful in informing the impact that AE has on academic performance. They hypothesized that the over-confidence and risk taking exhibited by narcissists would indirectly influence performance. They tested their hypotheses using two different models. In their first model they found that over-confidence and risk taking both separately mediated the relationship between narcissism and performance, where increased narcissism was related to increased over-confidence and risk taking, which then resulted in decreased performance. In their second model, they were interested in examining the components that led to over-confident performance expectations. They found that two paths appear to inflate expectations; first, narcissists seem to exhibit an

internal schema of high performance expectations, which informs the way in which they predict future performance and address performance assessments. The second path involves internalizing positive performance feedback to inform future performance assessments. Consequently, the narcissist bets on their natural ability when guessing their performance at tasks and they dismiss information suggesting that their scores are lower than their perceived ability. This model also fits with Zitek et al.'s (2010) unfairness model of entitlement. In essence, the narcissist assumes they should perform at a high level and discount evidence to the contrary. As an example, in this extreme form of AE the student may think they deserve an 'A' grade without studying – though the professor might view this as an expectation of a good grade without the requisite effort. Put another way, the student expects something they feel they inherently deserve, while others see this as expectation of receiving something for nothing. However, their over-confidence and risk taking (e.g., not studying) would undermine their actual performance. When applied to AE, students with entitled perceptions may use similar cognitive strategies to maintain unrealistic expectations of their performance, which may result in decreased overall performance.

Theoretical Understandings of Academic Entitlement

Beyond the initial investigations involving AE, theoretical discussions about the nature of student entitlement have been pursued. Some of this work has taken on a philosophical tone, questioning the role academic institutions play in the development of AE; others have focused on tactics that might be used to confront entitled attitudes. While these approaches do not provide empirical grounds to

address entitled attitudes and behaviours, they do provide a starting point when it comes to considering how academic institutions might consider AE in the future.

Buckley, Novicevic, Halbesleben and Harvey (2008) discussed student expectations as they relate to entitled attitudes and beliefs. For example, it has been found that students and teachers typically have incongruent opinions about assessment and effort requirements in course work (Pollio & Beck, 2000). According to Buckley et al. (2008), these types of discrepancies in expectations are likely to undercut the education process. They proposed a 3-stage model of student expectation formation; in the first stage, students assess initial information and determine whether it fits with their schema for classroom learning. Here they suggest that an ideal structure incorporates resource-rich technology, teaching orientations that emphasize learning over performance, and a dynamic (i.e., interactive) course management system. In the second stage, the teacher is provided with an intervention opportunity, where he or she can attempt to manage the expectations of the students and address potential discrepancies. Presumably, a dynamic course structure would allow more flexibility in addressing possible discrepancies between student and teacher expectations. In the third stage, the student derives their expectations for the class, which will ultimately determine whether they are learning or performance oriented in their approach to the course (Buckley, Novicevic, Halbesleben, & Harvey, 2004). In summary, this model tracks a trajectory from previous beliefs to student expectations that will inform their actions, suggesting that there may be opportunities in this process to deter AE.

Buckley et al. (2008) go on to suggest two approaches that might capitalize on these opportunities, ideally increasing the quality of education and decreasing entitled attitudes/behaviours on the part of students. They endorse realistic course previews (which they liken to realistic job previews) and expectation lowering procedures as useful strategies. In terms of course previews, they suggest discussing the expectations of the teacher and student, clarifying in advance how the course will proceed. In terms of expectation lowering procedures, they recommend discussing typical attitudes students might hold about course work and outlining the problems with unrealistic expectations. As an example, they state that teachers might discuss how students generally do not feel that they have to contribute to their learning; here the teacher should outline how these types of expectations will impede their learning and their performance.

Clark (2008) took a similar stance, suggesting that entitled behaviours on the part of students is the by-product of a 'dance of incivility' between students and teachers. This interchange is perpetuated by unrealistic expectations/actions and missed engagement opportunities, which cause students and faculty stress, resulting in a cycle of incivility. She argues that both teachers and students need to rely on perspective taking and self-reflective processes to combat feelings of entitlement and superiority. To accomplish this, Clark outlined four strategies for decreasing incivility and entitlement in students. First, she advises teachers to create and communicate reasonable policies and procedures for the classroom. Second, teachers should address inappropriate behaviour directly and fairly. Third, teachers should make students a part of the classroom norms and procedures.

Finally, teachers should provide an open forum for discussion and conversation between students and the teacher (Clark, 2008).

Gibbs and Iacovidou (2004) distinguished between achievement and accomplishment. Specifically, they argue that students are legitimately entitled to achievement based on performance, but accomplishment is weighed on the ability to learn and overcome obstacles. Thus, students are only legitimately entitled to the grade that they earn through performance (which might be influenced by an array of factors) but this does not mean that accomplishment should be ignored. To this point, they contend that accomplishment and a life-long learning focus should be the goals of higher education. They advocate for learning communities where the focus should be on mastery learning orientations and general improvement over time. They suggest that the fundamental goal of education should be having students become better people. They note that a focus on achievement may challenge these goals and lead to entitled individuals. They suggest that teachers and students should share the responsibility of the learning community, and in developing overall criteria for success. In a nutshell, their solution to entitlement amongst students and weakened education programs is to focus on mastery based learning orientations, open dialog between students, and have teachers develop wisdom in students while exhibiting wisdom themselves (Gibbs & Iacovidou, 2004).

Finally, in a brief report, Twenge (2009) outlined some of the difficulties in teaching students from 'generation me'. In this report she mentions some tactics that may be useful in discouraging entitled attitudes and behaviours by students. First, she warns that teachers should not compromise on the quality of assessments.

This theme carries to her second point: that teachers should not alter course materials or assessments for individuals, as this is likely to increase entitlement throughout the class – possibly creating an escalation of demands. However, she does advocate for making course materials accessible and directed to the needs of the class by creating dynamic and interactive learning environments. Finally, she recommends that teachers give frequent constructive feedback, but avoid feedback that may foster overconfidence – that is, provide feedback that is meaningful and encourages improvement from the student (Twenge, 2009).

Across all of these approaches, there seems to be some overlapping ideas, the most pervasive being that student expectations should be addressed using techniques that are reliant on a humanistic pupil control ideology. Pupil control ideologies are thought to fall from custodial to humanistic, where a humanistic teacher would view learning as a community process involving cooperation and flexibility. On the opposite end of the continuum a custodial teacher would view learning as an autocratic and rigid transmission of information from an expert (Hoy, 2001; Willower, Eidell, & Hoy, 1967). Corroborating the suggestions made to quell entitlement in students, past research suggests that a humanistic approach is beneficial to both students and teachers (Hoy, 2001; Lunenburg & Schmidt, 1989). This also fits nicely with self-determination theory, where flexibility, autonomy, and constructive feedback are likely to improve student motivation to learn for the sake of learning (Black & Deci, 2000; Deci et al., 1999; Deci & Ryan, 2000; Vallerand, 2000). Conveniently, these strategies/attitudes on the part of the teacher might act as an excellent remedy to AE by simultaneously addressing Gibbs and Iacovidou's

(2004) concerns about student outcomes, decreasing student entitlement, as well as increasing the intrinsic motivation of students to learn.

Self-Determination Theory of Motivation

While few have investigated how motivation relates to AE, motivation appears to be an important theoretical aspect in understanding AE. Throughout the history of motivation research there have been numerous theories; of these, self-determination theory (SDT) has in recent years come to the forefront. Although, sometimes the results and predictions seem bizarre – with some even labeling the theory the 'quantum mechanics' of human behaviour (Pink, 2011) – the theory has demonstrated its utility over many years of study (Deci et al., 1999; Deci & Ryan, 2000; Vallerand, 2000; Vallerand, Pelletier, & Koestner, 2008). In this section, I examine the SDT literature as it relates to AE. Through this process I acknowledge the differences between SDT and competing theories of motivation and the advantages this theory provides in understanding AE.

Deci and Ryan (2000) described SDT as an organismic-dialectical meta-theory, where basic human needs are thought to be the catalyst for motivation and behaviour. Self-determination theory represents a continuum of motivation moving from amotivation (an absence of motivation), to extrinsic motivation, and then intrinsic motivation. In this conceptualization of motivation the primary focus is on the continuum from extrinsic to intrinsic, where intrinsic motivation represents the desire to work on a task merely for the enjoyment of the task itself; and extrinsic motivation represents a desire to work on a task for some external rationale. According to SDT, this continuum of human motivation is guided by three basic

human needs: autonomy, competence, and relatedness. The importance of these aspects of human needs cannot be understated, since without an environment that nurtures these needs, self-determined motivation is unlikely to occur. Based on this theory, optimal intrinsic motivation occurs when an individual: feels able to regulate their own actions (autonomy), feels a sense of mastery (competence) in their ability to complete a task, and feels connected to a larger social group (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Vallerand et al., 2008).

In the SDT framework, extrinsic motivation progressively moves closer to intrinsic motivation based on the type of regulation – that is, the level of self-determination perceived by the individual. External regulation is thought of as the most distal, where actions are directed exclusively by rewards and punishment. This is followed by introjected regulation, where behaviour is dictated by a perception of what ought to be done. Next, identified regulation represents when the individual identifies with the importance of the task. Finally, integrated regulation represents when the individual both identifies with the importance of the behaviours and fully integrates it into their life (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Fairchild, Horst, Finney, & Barron, 2005). Further, it is understood that not all situations require or will result in intrinsic motivation. For example, a student may need to clean off his or her desk before working on an assignment; this type of rote task is not likely to instill a sense of intrinsic motivation, nor would it require such motivation. Changes in motivation are thought to occur over multiple iterations and interactions, resulting in increased internalization over time (Vallerand et al., 2008) – matching with the dialectic understanding of SDT. It should also be noted that the SDT model is closely aligned

with perceived locus of control, where an external locus of control (ELOC) is related to non-self-determined forms motivation while an internal locus of control (ILOC) is associated with self-determined forms of motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Pelletier, Dion, Tuson, & Green-Demers, 1999). This intuitively fits with SDT, since an ILOC would suggest that the individual feels more in control of their circumstance – or more self-determined – and the reverse would be true in the case of an ELOC.

Perhaps the greatest advantage SDT has over competing theories of motivation is its flexibility in application. Deci and Ryan (2000) contrasted SDT with other theories of motivation based on innate drives, personality, and operant conditioning strategies; they then outlined some of the advantages of using basic human needs (i.e., autonomy, competence, and relatedness) to understand and predict motivation. They argue that theories based on drives unnecessarily exclude the basic psychological needs of human beings; thus, once a drive is thwarted the motivation is lost. In contrast, basic psychological needs cause interest and perceived importance, which motivate task persistence over time. Regarding personality, they argue that this line of work resulted in a fixation with individual differences, whereas SDT suggests that these underlying needs are innate and universal; consequently, SDT provides a higher order framework that is better suited to understanding motivation regardless of personality variations. Finally, in the case of operant conditioning, considerable research has found that a reliance on contingent rewards and punishment – while sometimes effective in the short-term – generally have negative effects on motivation, well-being, and performance in the long-term (e.g., Burton, Lydon, D'Alessandro, & Koestner, 2006; Deci et al., 1999;

Grolnick & Ryan, 1989; Nix, Ryan, Manly, & Deci, 1999; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Vansteenkiste, Lens, & Deci, 2006). In addition, SDT has been widely used to explain and examine motivation in academic settings (e.g., Fairchild et al., 2005; Fortier, Vallerand, & Guay, 1995; Harter, 1992; Miquelon, 2005; Ryan, Connell, & Grolnick, 1992; Vansteenkiste et al., 2006) and as a result is ideally suited to expand our theoretical understanding of AE.

Much of the work involving SDT has focused on the level of autonomy provided for goal setting and goal attainment. The use of external rewards/punishment as a means of controlling behaviour has consistently been found (across contexts) to decrease intrinsic motivation, interest in tasks, well being, task persistence, and learning; whereas, when individuals are given more autonomy, by reduced reliance on behavioural control strategies, the opposite is found (Black & Deci, 2000; Burton et al., 2006; Deci et al., 1999; Grolnick & Ryan, 1989; Mageau & Vallerand, 2003; Nix et al., 1999; Vansteenkiste, Simons, Lens, Sheldon, & Deci, 2004; Vansteenkiste, Timmermans, Lens, Soenens, & Van den Broeck, 2008). In the case of competence: positive, meaningful, and constructive feedback that focuses on process improvement is more likely to foster closer approximations of intrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Mueller & Dweck, 1998). Lastly, warm and caring environments with close interpersonal relationships are more likely to encourage self-determined types of motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2000; La Guardia & Patrick, 2008; Ryan, Stiller, & Lynch, 1994). Consequently, although the level of autonomy, competence, and relatedness for any given task can vary based on the circumstance and environment, those that result in closer

approximations of intrinsic motivation (i.e., self-determined types of motivation) generally result in superior outcomes (Deci et al., 1999; Deci & Ryan, 2000).

One of the biggest advantages of incorporating SDT into a model of AE is that it would provide theoretical ground for understanding how this construct may relate to academic achievement, as well as many other important outcomes of the education process (e.g., task persistence). Fortier, Vallerand and Guay (1995) tested a structural model of SDT and scholastic achievement and found that academic competence and self-determination positively predicted autonomous academic motivation, which then was positively related to academic achievement (across various types of classes in a school year). Further, it has been found that classroom experiences that are more self-determined result in increased depth of processing, learning persistence, and overall performance when tested (Vansteenkiste et al., 2004). Black and Deci (2000) found that greater autonomy in classes resulted in higher performance; in particular, those with lower levels of self-regulation benefited the most from an autonomy-supporting environment.

It has also been found that even when controlling for ability, perceptions of competence and perceptions of autonomy are positively related to student engagement and performance across multiple content areas (Miserandino, 1996). Miserandino discusses why capable children report lower levels of competency, which was then related to lower levels of performance; she suggests that the educational process may diminish the innate curiosity of students through overly controlling environments that deter the development of perceived competence. In addition, others have consistently found that intrinsic goals and more self-

determined types of motivation are related to better scholastic performance (Burton et al., 2006; Flink, Boggiano, & Main, 1992; Vansteenkiste et al., 2008). Taken as a whole, the research involving SDT and academic performance suggests that the more self-determined the students' motivation, the better they will perform in their scholastic pursuits over time.

In addition to explaining the impact AE might have on achievement, the close relation between SDT and learning orientations provides an opportunity to understand why entitled students tend to be performance-oriented as opposed to mastery-oriented. Researchers have found that students who view their abilities as modifiable tend to be more motivated and outperform those who feel that their abilities are a fixed characteristic. Furthermore, praise or rewards for performance tend to encourage this fixed mindset, while praise for effort promotes a more malleable mindset in individuals (Blackwell, Trzesniewski, & Dweck, 2007; Dweck, 2006; 2007; Mueller & Dweck, 1998). Students with the belief that ability is malleable tend to set goals that are mastery-oriented and that challenge them to grow, while the opposite is true for those with fixed views of ability. Further, the students who maintain fixed views and set performance-oriented goals, often fall into habits of learned helplessness and self-defeating behaviours, characterized by an avoidance of tasks that might challenge their sense of competence (Elliot & McGregor, 2001; Elliott & Dweck, 1988; Grant & Dweck, 2003; Kamins & Dweck, 1999; Riggs, 1992).

Riggs (1992) took this a step further by theorizing that these resulting self-handicapping behaviours are likely a protective function of the perceived

competence component outlined in SDT; where opportunities for meaningful positive feedback may improve this perceived deficiency. In addition, Harter (1992) theorized about a direct relationship between competence (as depicted in SDT) and mastery-orientations. In her model, students begin with a natural mastery urge, which results in behaviours. These behaviours are then given feedback from various sources, which when combined with the students' affective response culminates in the students' perceived competence. This competence assessment then informs the students' motivational orientation moving forward. As a result, during the feedback stage in this model, aspects of autonomy (the context in which feedback is given), competency (the type of feedback that is provided), and relatedness (the way in which feedback is provided) play a direct role in the motivational orientation that the student will take to the learning process. There is ample reason to believe that research and theory involving implicit views about ability fit nicely with SDT. By integrating these literatures we see that useful feedback regarding effort is likely to promote self-determined motivation for tasks, which ultimately encourages students to improve and grow their abilities over time.

When integrating these lines of motivation research with the existing literature on entitlement, some intriguing possibilities become apparent. In particular, Zitek et al.'s (2010) unfairness model of entitlement when incorporated with SDT may elucidate both the origins and outcomes of entitlement. For example, a performance-orientation would represent a focus on achievement; any circumstance that did not result in the desired level of achievement for the student may induce a feeling of unfairness (based on their preconceived expectations). This

perceived unfairness would then play out in the types of academic behaviours the student pursues, which based on SDT and mindset research is likely to result in less self-determined types of motivation and self-handicapping techniques. This may then result in a cyclical process where self-handicapping techniques result in undesirable performance outcomes that perpetuate feelings of unfairness and ultimately strengthen the level of entitlement in the student. Fortunately, if this model were to find empirical support, student motivation may provide an opportune starting point for modifying this cycle of entitled attitudes. Based on SDT, creating circumstances and an environment that encourages more self-determined styles of motivation, may alter the students' learning orientations over time. This change could then result in more malleable views of competence, which would be less susceptible to instances of perceived unfairness; potentially decreasing entitlement in the student and improving their performance over time.

Models of Academic Entitlement.

Recently there have been two attempts to assess models that include AE. In one instance AE and grade orientations were used as reflective measures to represent a latent variable entitled instrumental focus. Instrumental focus was negatively related to affective learning and expectancy beliefs, both of which were then positively related to learning behaviours (Vallade et al., 2014). The implications of this model seem to be that academic entitlement decreases both student views of learning and academic expectations; where both expectations and views on learning act as positive contributors to learning behaviours (i.e., time spent learning/learning habits and engagement in productive learning activities). As such,

this model could be viewed as support for a coping approach, where AE acts as a means of decreasing expectations and purported satisfaction as a buffer for potential performance deficiencies.

In an unpublished dissertation, Warren (2013) found good fit for a model describing some of the predictors and outcomes of AE. Specifically, AE beliefs were positively related to perceptions of chance, influence from powerful others, consumerism, and performance avoidant learning orientation; while AE beliefs were negatively related to mastery avoidant learning orientation. In this model AE mediated the relationship between the prior list of variables and policy beliefs regarding accommodation, where AE beliefs increased expectations of accommodation on the part of students. The variables predicting AE in this model provide some support for a consumer-based understanding of AE, where influence from powerful others (e.g., professors) and consumerism inform AE beliefs, which then influence the students beliefs that the academic institutions should make accommodations for them.

As exhibited by these two models, there seems to be growing evidence for two alternative approaches to understanding AE. In the consumer pathway, students high in AE are thought to be those seeking accommodations based on the expectation that they are paying customers for a product (Singleton-Jackson et al., 2010; Warren, 2013). These students may act out when they do not receive the 'product' or grade that they feel they deserve, causing difficulties and disruptions in the learning process (Cain, Romanelli, & Smith, 2012). The expectations of these students may hamper the ability of educators to properly engage the students and

cause difficulties in the student-professor relationship (Cain et al., 2012; Frisby, Goodboy, & Buckner, 2014; Karpen, 2014; Olson, 2014).

As an alternative, it is possible that students use AE as a coping strategy in circumstances where they are presented with seemingly unobtainable expectations, combined with feelings of lack of control and lack of ability. Under this understanding inappropriate parenting (Cornell, 2014; Greenberger et al., 2008; Stafford, 2013) may contribute to these perceived expectations which result in a fear of failure – as exemplified by a decrease in mastery learning orientation and an increase in performance avoidant learning orientation (Goodboy & Frisby, 2013; Greenberger et al., 2008; Jackson et al., 2011; Kopp et al., 2011; Warren, 2013). In this pathway the student may demonstrate characteristics not unlike an identity moratorium, where they are less inclined to persevere to achieve these external goals (Jones, 2013), and consequently they may rely on uncivil behaviours in an attempt to mitigate their perceived inability to control the situation (Goodboy & Frisby, 2013; Kazoun, 2013; Kopp & Finney, 2013). In turn, this approach would result in dissatisfaction with the education process, possibly increasing the student's sense of AE moving forward.

AE and Motivation Theoretical Model. With an understanding of the relevant findings across the AE, general entitlement, and narcissism literatures, an overarching theoretical model for AE based on these findings is depicted in Figure 1. It is important to note that both of the previously outlined models of AE could fit under this larger theoretical model, but reflect different reasons or desired outcomes. That is, the course of the AE effects outlined might reflect common

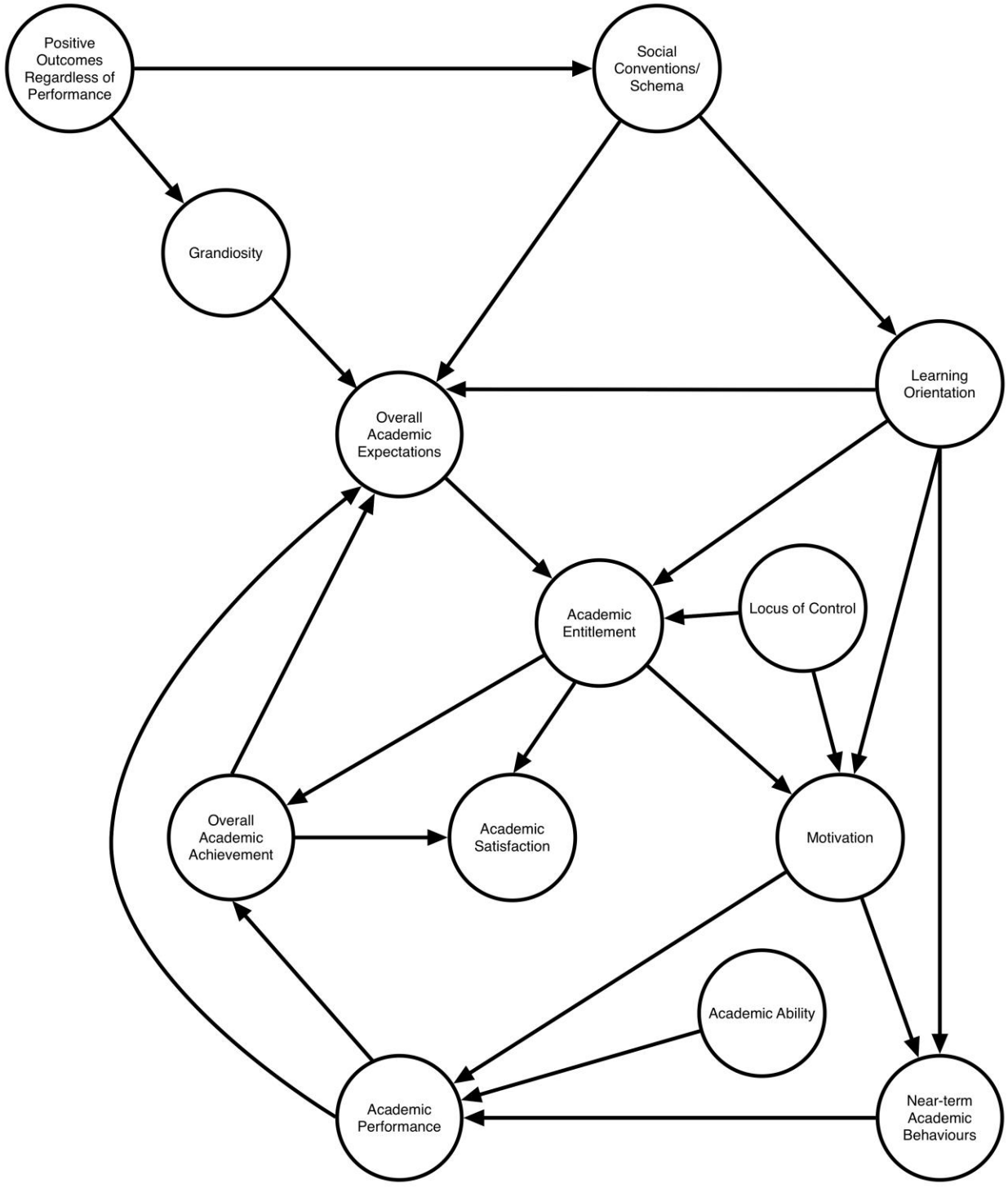
manifestations of AE, but they should adhere to a consistent theoretical framework despite the underlying sample being examined. Further, since this area of research is in early stages, this model should be considered alterable and expandable. This model represents a working theoretical framework for understanding and addressing entitled attitudes held by students. Following from this, when being empirically assessed, it would seem reasonable to investigate competing models that tackle the potential pathways of AE attitudes on the part of students.

In terms of AE antecedents in this model, positive past experiences, regardless of performance, dictates the students' perceived grandiosity and social schema for academic settings; which could be conceptualized as a composite of grandiosity, deservingness, and narcissistic tendencies (Fisk, 2010; Naumann, Minsky, & Sturman, 2002a; Twenge & Campbell, 2009). From here academic expectations are informed by a function of the students learning orientation (Greenberger et al., 2008; Jackson et al., 2011; Kopp et al., 2011; Warren, 2013), social conventions (e.g., classroom structure, environmental control, etc.), schema for classroom experiences (Frisby et al., 2014; Givertz & Segrin, 2012; Twenge, 2009), and their perceived grandiosity. Their perceptions of overall achievement is informed by AE attitudes but reflects a reciprocal path of perceived fairness where it also influences academic expectations (Buckley et al., 2004; Fisk, 2010; Miller, 2013; Zitek, Jordan, Monin, & Leach, 2010), and the students' level of satisfaction with the education process (Harvey & Martinko, 2009). Learning orientations directly influence AE (Greenberger et al., 2008; Jackson et al., 2011; Kopp et al., 2011) and student motivation (Harackiewicz, Barron, & Elliot, 1998; Harackiewicz, Barron,

Carter, Lehto, & Elliot, 1997; Haradkiewicz & Elliot, 1998; Harter, 1992; Riggs, 1992); while locus of control also directly influences AE (Greenberger et al., 2008; Warren, 2013) and student motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

In terms of outcomes, AE directly influences academic achievement perceptions and academic satisfaction (Miller, 2013; Olson, 2014). Motivation acts a mediator between AE and academic behaviours and academic performance. In this case, higher AE would relate to increased non-self-determined motivation but decreased self-determined motivation, resulting in less effective academic behaviours (e.g., self-handicapping) and decreased academic performance (Black & Deci, 2000; Burton et al., 2006; Flink et al., 1992; Fortier et al., 1995; Komarraju, Karau, & Schmeck, 2009; Vansteenkiste et al., 2004; 2008). Beyond these effects, it is assumed that academic ability (i.e., cognitive ability) will directly contribute to student academic performance. Academic performance would then inform the students' perceptions of academic achievement (and in turn fairness of evaluation), possibly perpetuating AE in students (Jones, 2013).

Figure 1. Initial Theoretical Understanding of AE.



The Current Study and Hypotheses

Based on the existing AE, entitlement, narcissism, and SDT literatures I have generated a working theoretical model of AE. In this model, some of the paths to and from AE are founded in past empirical research, while others are based largely on theoretical propositions. A systematic approach, that targets components of this model could greatly enhance our understanding of AE and provide opportunities to ameliorate the issues presented by this phenomenon. To this end, I conducted multiple investigations to explore some of the relationships outlined in the model, with the aim of creating an empirically founded preliminary model of AE.

Study #1 Purpose. In the first stage, I explored the relationships between AE, learning orientations, motivation, academic behaviours, and academic performance. Multiple mediation models (using different motivational sub-domains) were assessed; specifically, investigating the relationship between AE, motivation, and academic behaviours/achievement.

Study #1 Correlational Hypotheses. Based on prior findings it was expected that AE would be positively related to performance-oriented learning orientations, while being negatively related to mastery-oriented learning orientations (Greenberger et al., 2008; Jackson et al., 2011; Kopp et al., 2011). Furthermore, it was expected that AE would be positively related to non-self-determined forms of motivation, but negatively related to self-determined forms of motivation (Achacoso, 2002; Greenberger et al., 2008; Kopp et al., 2011). Lastly, it was expected that AE would be negatively related to academic performance and productive academic behaviours (Boswell, 2012; Kopp et al., 2011).

Study #1 Model Hypotheses. Based on the theoretical model previously outlined, it was hypothesized that AE would indirectly impact academic behaviours and performance through motivation. More specifically, it was thought that AE would be negatively related to self-determined motivation and positively related to non-self-determined motivation (Greenberger et al., 2008); self-determined motivation would then be positively related to productive behaviours and performance, whereas non-self-determined motivation would then be negatively related to productive behaviours and performance (Black & Deci, 2000; Burton et al., 2006; Kopp et al., 2011; Vansteenkiste et al., 2004).

CHAPTER III

STUDY #1 DESIGN AND METHODLOGY

Study #1 Sample and Procedures

In the first portion of this study an archival dataset that included 607 students (mean age = 21.5, *SD* = 4.72; 82% female; 74% Caucasian) was used to explore the relationship between AE, motivation, learning orientations, and performance. Students were recruited for this study using the University of Windsor department of psychology participant pool. Access to the study was provided through the participant pool and all responses were collected using a personal computer. To control for potential order effects, six alternative arrangements of the questionnaires were generated and participants were randomly assigned to one of the survey packages using a preset software script. All procedures were reviewed and approved by the University of Windsor Research Ethics Board; all data were collected and stored using a secure server.

Study #1 Measures

Academic Entitlement. The Academic Entitlement Scale (AES) was used to measure AE (Greenberger et al., 2008). This measure is comprised of 15 items with a 6-point Likert-type scale ranging from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree', and it is thought to represent general academic entitlement (Greenberger et al., 2008). Past research involving the AES has found data from it to have good reliability, with internal consistency coefficients ranging between .82 and .89 (Greenberger et al., 2008; Menon & Sharland, 2011); further, this measure has been found to be related

as predicted with theoretically relevant variables (Greenberger et al., 2008; Menon & Sharland, 2011).

Academic Motivation. The Academic Motivation Scale (AMS) is a measure of motivation in academic settings and is comprised of 28 items that are thought to measure motivation based on the tenets of SDT (Vallerand & Blssonnette, 1992). This measure incorporates a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 'does not correspond at all' to 'corresponds exactly'. The AMS is thought to include seven total subscales which are: intrinsic motivation to know, intrinsic motivation to accomplish things, intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation, identified regulation, external motivation, introjected motivation, and amotivation (Fairchild et al., 2005; Vallerand et al., 1992). In past research this measure has demonstrated good reliability, with internal consistency coefficients ranging between .81 and .86 (Fairchild et al., 2005; Vallerand et al., 1992; Vallerand et al., 1993). In terms of validity, results using the AMS have consistently matched with a host of theoretically expected relationships (Fairchild et al., 2005; Miquelon, 2005; Vallerand et al., 1993).

Academic Self-efficacy. The College Academic Self-Efficacy Scale (CASES) is thought to be a measure of the confidence of students' in their abilities in academic settings (Owen & Froman, 1988). The complete questionnaire is comprised of 33 items, where respondents are to rank their confidence in their ability to carry out academic related behaviours. A reduced 10-item version of this measure was used in this investigation (Jackson et al., 2013). This measure is anchored on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 'lots' to 'little' and is thought to represent a single

general academic self-efficacy factor (Carifio & Rhodes, 2002; Owen & Froman, 1988). The full version of this measure has demonstrated good reliability in the past with reported reliability coefficients ranging between .85 and .92 (Lampert, 2007; Owen & Froman, 1988). Regarding validity, the CASES has been found to relate positively to general self-efficacy, self-confidence, and academic performance (Carifio & Rhodes, 2002).

Student Behaviours and Performance. To gauge academic performance, participants were asked to report their cumulative grade point average (GPA). Students were provided an open textbox and then all scores were converted to a 13-point scale. The corresponding percentages for the 13-point and 4-point scale can be found in Table 1. To measure student study behaviours, students were asked the following question: 'about how many hours do you spend in a typical 7-day week preparing for class (studying, writing, doing homework, lab work, analyzing data, rehearsing, and other academic activities)'. This item was anchored on an 8-point scale using hourly ranges, the possible response options were: 0, 1-5, 6-10, 11-15, 16-20, 21-25, 26-30, 30 or more. This item was taken from the National Survey of Student Engagement (NSSE), which is a nationally used collection of measures designed to quantify student engagement in post-secondary institutions (NSSE, 2011).

Learning Orientations. The Achievement Goal Questionnaire (AGQ) is thought to assess the learning orientations students have towards academic pursuits (Elliot & McGregor, 2001). The AGQ consists of 4 subscales, which are: mastery-approach (students who desire to improve for the sake of mastery), mastery-avoidance

(students who attempt to avoid forgetting/misunderstanding information), performance-approach (students whose efforts focus on maximizing performance), and performance-avoidance (students who attempt to avoid poor performance). This measure is made up of 12 items (3 items per subscale) and is anchored on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 'not at all true of me' to 'very true of me' (Bong, 2001; Elliot & McGregor, 2001; Finney et al., 2004). In the past, data from the AGQ has demonstrated reasonable reliability with coefficients ranging from .73 to .88 (Bong, 2001; Jackson et al., 2011). The AGQ has also demonstrated reasonable validity; where appropriate relationships between the factors and theoretically associated constructs have consistently been found (Bong, 2001; Elliot & McGregor, 2001; Finney et al., 2004; Jackson et al., 2011).

Table 1. Percentage Ranges and Corresponding Grade Points.

13-Point Scale	4-Point Scale	Percentage
13	4	96
12	3.9	90
11	3.7	83
10	3.3	78
9	3.0	75
8	2.7	72
7	2.3	68
6	2.0	65
5	1.7	62
4	1.3	58
3	1	55
2	.7	52
1	0	42
0	0	22

Note. Grade points and corresponding percentages represent the conversion from 13-point and 4-point scales to percentage values.

CHAPTER IV

STUDY #1 RESULTS

Study #1 Data Analysis

Strategy. In the first study, Multiple Regression Analysis (MRA) was used to explore potential mediation models for Academic Entitlement (AE), motivation, and academic performance. In addition, bivariate correlations between the other included constructs were computed prior to investigating these models. Means, standard deviations, and internal consistency coefficients (measured using Cronbach's α) for all of the measures can be found in Table 2 – all of the measures demonstrated reasonable reliability, with coefficients ranging from .77 to .94. Given the exploratory nature of this investigation, numerous comparisons were examined; as such an alpha of .01 was used as a cutoff for all significance tests to guard against possible type-I errors.

Table 2. Study #1 Means, Standard Deviations, and Reliability Coefficients.

	Mean	SD	α
AE (Greenberg et al., 2008)	35.08	10.54	.86
Self-Efficacy	36.28	6.13	.82
Performance Approach	14.71	4.78	.94
Performance Avoidance	9.85	4.71	.83
Mastery Avoidance	12.48	4.74	.90
Mastery Approach	16.86	3.19	.85
Amotivation	6.35	3.89	.89
Identified Regulation	23.83	3.62	.77
Introjected Motivation	21.18	5.38	.89
External Regulation	23.14	4.38	.83
Motivation to Know	22.24	4.45	.90
Motivation to Accomplish	19.71	5.15	.87
Motivation to Experience	16.68	5.58	.86
Academic Behaviors	4.23	1.71	--
Academic Performance	8.86	1.93	--

Note. Cronbach's Alpha Coefficients = α.

Assumptions. A final sample size of 607 was used for the analyses. Prior to proceeding with the analyses the assumptions associated with Multiple Regression Analysis (MRA) were tested. Normality was assessed for each outcome measure through the inspection of histograms. All of the measures except the amotivation dimension of motivation were found to have approximately normal distributions. The amotivation dimension was skewed positively, consequently a log transformation was applied and all analyses were conducted with the log transformed and non-log transformed version of amotivation. The results were similar for both approaches (i.e., the same coefficients were significant for each approach and all of the coefficients were nearly identical) so the non-log transformed version of amotivation is reported in the results. It should also be noted that because the sample collected is large, the analyses should be relatively robust to violations of this assumption (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003; Stevens, 2012; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). The assumption of linearity was assessed using scatter plots, and the assumption of homeoscadasticity of errors was evaluated using scatter plots of the residuals – both assumptions were found to be tenable. The assumption of absence of multi-collinearity was addressed by examining the tolerance; independence of errors was addressed by the Durbin Watson test, in all cases those scores fell below 3 and above 1 and as such were deemed acceptable. Finally, the assumption that there are no outliers/influential observations was addressed by consulting standardized residuals, Mahalanobis distance, Cook's distance, and standardized DFFIT values. All analyses were run with and without outliers (no influential cases were found) being removed, there were no substantive

differences in the results when excluding these cases and as such all the reported results include the entire dataset.

Study #1 Findings

Correlations. Bivariate correlations were used to explore the relationships between AE and the other measured constructs of interest (Table 3). In terms of motivation, AE was negatively related to intrinsic motivation to know but positively related to external regulation (external motivation) and amotivation. Regarding learning orientations, AE was positively related to performance avoidant and mastery avoidant learning orientations, while being negatively related to the mastery approach orientation. Academic behaviours (reported hours studying) were negatively related to amotivation, but positively related to: self-efficacy, mastery approach, intrinsic motivation to know, intrinsic motivation to accomplish, intrinsic motivation to experience, and academic performance. Academic performance was negatively related to AE, introjected motivation, external regulation, amotivation, and mastery avoidance; but positively related to self-efficacy, performance approach, intrinsic motivation to know, and intrinsic motivation to accomplish. These correlations were used to inform the mediation models that were tested in the subsequent step of the study. Consequently, amotivation, intrinsic motivation to know, and external regulation were used as mediating variables between AE and both academic performance and academic behaviour.

Table 3. Study #1 Correlations.

	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1. AE	***-.11***	.08	**.26**	**.14**	***-.12***	**.21**	.05	.07	**.18**	**-.16**	-.08	-.00	-.01	**-.15**
2. Self-Efficacy	--	**.21**	-.09	**-.27**	**.25**	**-.31**	**.19**	.05	-.02	**.41**	**.34**	**.33**	.21	**.38**
3. Perf. App.	--	--	**.43**	.02	**.22**	-.09	*.13*	**.27**	**.19**	**.17**	**.23**	**.19**	*.12*	**.23**
4. Perf. Avoid.	--	--	--	**.33**	.05	**.16**	.05	**.29**	**.19**	-.05	.04	.09	.05	-.06
5. Mast. Avoid.	--	--	--	--	**.15**	**.19**	.03	**.16**	.05	-.02	.01	.03	.00	**-.17**
6. Mast. App.	--	--	--	--	--	**-.22**	**.26**	**.25**	.07	**.47**	**.42**	**.36**	**.23**	.06
7. Amotivation	--	--	--	--	--	--	**-.38**	**-.20**	-.05	**-.44**	**-.36**	**-.20**	**-.16**	**-.14**
8. Identified	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	**.44**	**.55**	**.40**	**.38**	**.27**	.10	-.00
9. Introjection	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	**.40**	**.42**	**.61**	**43**	.09	***-.11***
10. Ext. Reg.	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	.04	**.14**	.05	.02	***-.12***
11. To Know	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	**.77**	**.71**	**.20**	**.17**
12. To Accom.	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	**.70**	**.19**	**.13**
13. To Exp.	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	**.13**	.04
14. Behaviours	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	**.24**
15. GPA	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

Note. Coefficients significant at less than .01 are bolded and italicized, coefficients significant at less than .001 are bolded and underlined; AE = Academic Entitlement, Perf. App. = Performance Approach, Perf. Avoid. = Performance Avoidance, Mast. Avoid. = Mastery Avoidance, Identified = Identified Regulation, Introjection = Introjected Motivation, Ext. Reg. = External Regulation, To Know = Intrinsic Motivation to Know, To Accom. = Intrinsic Motivation to Accomplish, To Exp. = Intrinsic Motivation to Experience, Ability = Cognitive Ability, Behaviors = Reported Hours Studying, Exp. GPA = Expected Grade Point Average in a course, GPA = Overall Grade Point Average.

Mediation Models. All of the mediation models were examined through mediated regression analysis (Cohen et al., 2003; Hayes, 2013), with the following variables included in the models: AE, amotivation, intrinsic motivation to know, external regulation, and both behaviours (student study habits) and academic performance. The raw weights, *t*-statistics, significance values, and confidence intervals for each path in the statistically significant models can be found in Table 4, visual representations of the these models (with corresponding raw path coefficients) can be found in Figures 2 and 3.

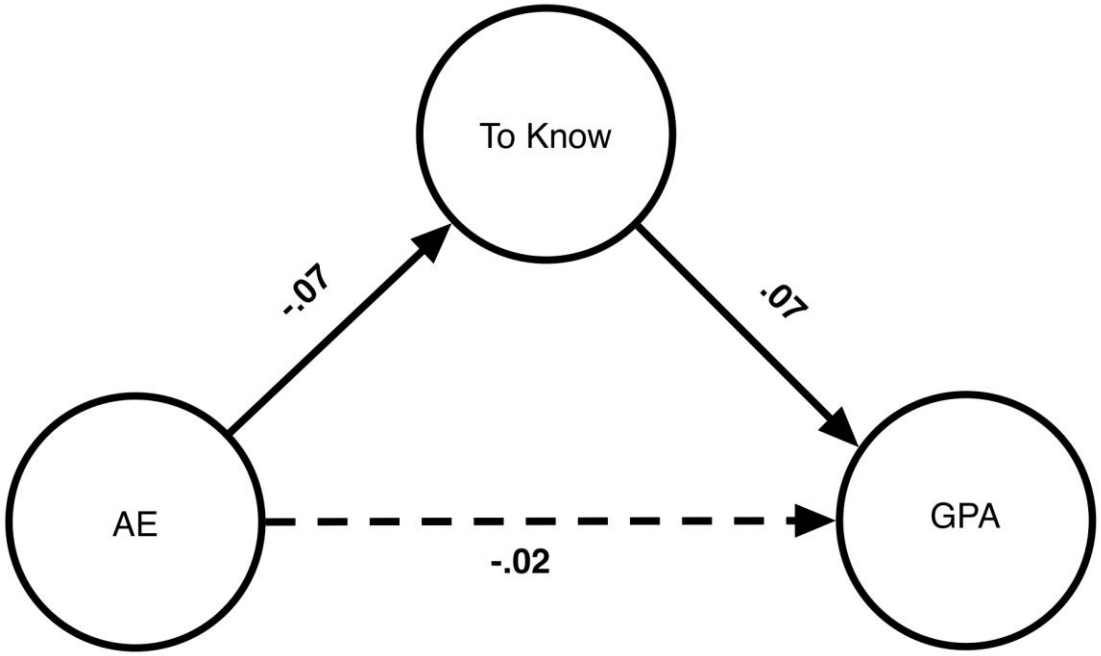
Only the models involving amotivation and intrinsic motivation to know represented significant mediation models, effects were assessed using kappa-squared values (Preacher & Kelley, 2011). Kappa-squared is an effect size that measures the proportion of the maximum possible indirect effect permitted by the design and data. This standardized effect measure ranges from 0 (no effect) to 1 (maximum possible effect), where Preacher and Kelley suggest interpreting the effects as small (.01), medium (.09), and large (.25). None of the mediation models with behaviours as the outcome variable were statistically significant. In terms of predicting GPA, AE was positively related to amotivation, while amotivation was negatively related to GPA ($\mathbf{K^2}$= .02); AE was positively related to intrinsic motivation to know, which was then positively related to GPA ($\mathbf{K^2}$= .03). Taken together, these results demonstrated that AE has a small sized effect on GPA through motivation, where amotivation decreases GPA and intrinsic motivation to know increases GPA.

Table 4. Study #1 Significant Mediation Models.

	Coefficient	*SE*	*p*	*CI*
AE → To Know	-.07	.017	<.001	-.10 – -.04
To Know → GPA	.07	.018	<.001	.03 – .10
AE → GPA	-.02	.007	.004	-.03 – -.01
AE → To Know → GPA	-.03	.007	<.001	-.04 – -.01
AE → Amotivation	.08	.015	<.001	.05 – .11
Amotivation → GPA	-.05	.020	.008	-.09 – -.01
AE → GPA	-.02	.008	.004	-.03 – -.01
AE → Amotivation → GPA	-.03	.008	<.001	-.04 – -.01

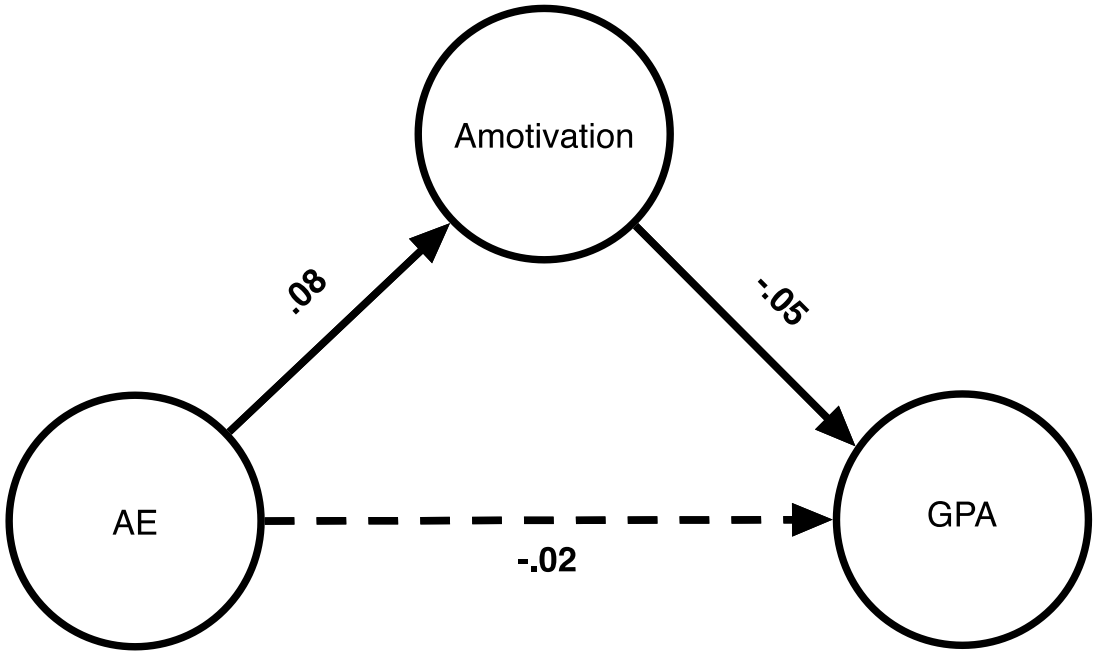
Note. *Coefficient* = raw coefficient, *p* = Significance value, *SE* = Standard Error, *CI* = 95% Confidence Interval.

Figure 2. Mediation Model for AE and Intrinsic Motivation To Know.



Note. All path coefficients reflect raw weights. All reported paths are significant at $p<.01$.

Figure 3. Mediation Model for AE and Amotivation.



Note. All path coefficients reflect raw weights. All reported paths are significant at $p<.01$.

Study #1 Brief Discussion and Study #2 Purpose.

As predicted, AE was positively related to performance avoidant learning orientation and negatively related to mastery approach learning orientation. Counter to past findings, AE was not significantly related to performance approach learning orientation, but it was positively related to mastery avoidance learning orientation. While these findings differ slightly from those found in past studies, generally the pattern is consistent. Academic entitlement seems to be reliably characterized by a desire to avoid performance failures, while exhibiting a disinterest in mastering content. How these learning orientations manifest may vary by latent populations that represent differing purposes for holding entitled attitudes.

As predicted, AE was indirectly related to academic performance through motivation; however, the hypothesis that AE would be indirectly related to behaviours through motivation was not supported. As anticipated, AE was positively related to non-self-determined motivation (amotivation), which was then negatively related to academic performance. Also, AE was negatively related to self-determined motivation (intrinsic motivation to know), which was then positively related to academic performance. Though the expected patterns were found for academic performance, they were only found for these two dimensions of motivation – while there was a significant relationship found between AE and external regulation, it did not yield a significant mediation model. Based on these findings, it appears that the indirect influence of AE on academic performance may vary based on the motivational attributes of the student. It is possible that students high in AE and

amotivation might represent a relatively common but troubling instance where they are unable to cope with their academic circumstances and thus resort to ineffective behaviours and ultimately poorer academic performance. Alternatively, it seems that an intrinsic motivation to know might act as a deterrent to student entitlement – which is potentially derived from consumer-based ideas/experiences – and in turn results in superior academic performance.

Taken together, the results from this initial inquiry depict possible scenarios that could represent potential AE antecedents and outcomes. As discussed earlier, there is evidence that students may use entitled attitudes as a means of buffering for a lack of ability or desire (coping pathway); alternatively, these tendencies might be a symptom of a consumer-based approach to education (consumer pathway). To further complicate matters, it is possible that the rationale for AE attitudes/behaviours could not only vary by latent populations but also overlap across these groups. An improved understanding of these possible pathways could assist in clarifying the most common aspects of AE and provide useful information for addressing AE related concerns in the future.

Study #2 Purpose. In the second investigation I used the information obtained from the previous study to specify and test competing models of AE using structural equation modeling. Consistent with the existing literature and the theoretical model outlined earlier, three competing models were tested. The competing models were generated based on two conceptual pathways to AE; specifically, AE functioning as a means of seeking consumer based accommodations vs. AE acting as a coping strategy for those ill equipped to perform at the post-secondary level.

Study #2 Model Hypotheses. Structural equation modeling is a theory testing approach to data analysis, where model fit is directly assessed and then the proposed paths are given a weight and corresponding significance test (Kline, 2010). As such, a primary aim of this study is to determine a suitably fitting model of AE. Based on the findings from the initial inquiry and past research (Greenberger et al., 2008), it was expected that AE would be indirectly related to academic performance through amotivation and/or intrinsic motivation to know. Specifically, AE would have a positive relationship to amotivation, which would then be negatively related to academic performance. It was expected that AE would be indirectly related to academic performance through intrinsic motivation to know; where AE would be negatively related to intrinsic motivation to know, which would then be positively related to academic performance. Lastly, it was expected that AE would be informed by learning orientations, where performance orientations would increase AE and mastery approaches would decrease AE (Goodboy & Frisby, 2013; Greenberger et al., 2008; Jackson et al., 2011; Kopp et al., 2011; Vallade et al., 2014; Warren, 2013).

CHAPTER V

STUDY #2 DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Study #2 Sample and Procedures

A convenience sample of 872 students (mean age = 20.7, *SD* = 3.77; 81% female; 64% Caucasian) completed this study. Students were recruited using the University of Windsor department of psychology participant pool and course credit was awarded to students who participated in the study. Access to the study was provided through the participant pool and all responses were collected using a personal computer. To control for potential order effects, participants were randomly assigned the order in which the surveys were presented. Students were asked about their academic performance, their grading expectations, and demographic information prior to starting the questionnaire package. All procedures and measures were reviewed and approved by The University of Windsor Research Ethics Board prior to collecting data.

Study #2 Measures

Academic Entitlement. The Academic Entitlement Questionnaire (AEQ) is thought to exclusively measure AE, providing a direct assessment of the AE construct (Kopp et al., 2011). The AEQ is an 8-item measure using a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree'. The AEQ has demonstrated good reliability (internal consistency coefficients between .81 - .84) and construct validity – assessed through confirmatory factor analysis using multiple samples (Kopp et al., 2011; Kopp & Finney, 2013). In addition, the AEQ has

been shown to relate in expected ways to theoretically relevant constructs (Kopp et al., 2011; Kopp & Finney, 2013).

Academic Environment. Participants completed the shortened version of the Learning Climate Questionnaire (LCQ) to assess their perception of the academic environment at their institution (Williams & Deci, 1996). The LCQ was developed to assess the degree of perceived autonomy support by instructors in academic settings (Williams & Deci, 1996). The shortened LCQ is a 6-item single factor measure anchored on a 5-point Likert-type scale where response options range from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree'(Ntoumanis, 2005; Williams & Deci, 1996). In past research the LCQ has exhibited good internal consistency, with coefficients ranging from .92 to .96 (Black & Deci, 2000; Marsh, Craven, & McInerney, 2008; Ntoumanis, 2005; Williams & Deci, 1996). Concerning validity, the measure has resulted in theory consistent findings across multiple studies (Black & Deci, 2000; Marsh et al., 2008; Ntoumanis, 2005; Williams & Deci, 1996).

Academic Motivation. Like the first study, the Academic Motivation Scale (AMS) was used to quantify academic motivation (Vallerand & Blssonnette, 1992). The AMS is a commonly used measure of motivation in academic settings and has demonstrated good reliability and validity in past studies (Fairchild et al., 2005; Miquelon, 2005; Vallerand et al., 1993).

Locus of Control. The Personal Efficacy (PE) subscale from the Spheres of Control Scale (SCS) was used to measure participants' perceived locus of control (Paulhus, 1983). The SCS is made up of 30 items and 3 factors: personal efficacy, interpersonal control, and sociopolitical control. For the purposes of this study only

the PE subscale was used, since it best reflects 'perceived control' as it would be conceptualized in an academic setting. This scale contains 10 items each and are anchored on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 'disagree' to 'agree' (Paulhus, 1983). Higher scores on this measure are thought to reflect higher levels of internal locus of control. This measure has been used in past investigations involving AE and it has shown reasonable reliability (.75 - .77) in past research (Chowning & Campbell, 2009; Paulhus, 1983).

Academic Satisfaction. The Academic Major Satisfaction Scale (AMSS) was used to measure academic satisfaction (Nauta, 2007). The AMSS is a 6-item instrument thought to measure student satisfaction in their current academic major, it is anchored on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree' (Nauta, 2007). In past research this measure has demonstrated good reliability (.90 - .94) and has been found to relate as predicted with other relevant constructs of interest (Jadidian & Duffy, 2012; McIlveen, Beccaria, & Burton, 2013; Nauta, 2007).

Academic Self-efficacy. Consistent with the first study, the reduced College Academic Self-Efficacy Scale (CASES) was used to measure academic self-efficacy (Owen & Froman, 1988; Jackson et al., 2013). To reiterate, past studies have found the full measure to have suitable reliability and validity; making the CASES an appropriate measure of self-efficacy in academic settings for the purposes of this investigation (Carifio & Rhodes, 2002; Lampert, 2007; Owen & Froman, 1988).

Learning Orientations. The Achievement Goal Questionnaire (AGQ) was again used to measure learning orientations (Elliot & McGregor, 2001). As noted earlier,

past studies have shown this measure to be both a reliable and valid means of quantifying student learning orientations in academic settings (Bong, 2001; Elliot & McGregor, 2001; Finney et al., 2004; Jackson et al., 2011).

Academic Behaviours. The Academic Goal Progress Scale (AGPS) was used to gauge student academic behaviours overall (Lent et al., 2005). This measure asks students about their efforts and progress toward a variety of academic goals. This 6-item measure uses a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 'no progress at all' to 'excellent progress'. In past research this measure has demonstrated good reliability with alpha coefficients ranging from .84 to .90 (Lent et al., 2005; Lent, Singley, Sheu, Schmidt, & Schmidt, 2007). Regarding the validity of the AGPS, past research has shown that it is related to theoretically relevant variables (e.g., self-efficacy, outcome expectations, environmental support, and academic satisfaction) in expected ways (Lent et al., 2005; 2007).

In keeping with the initial study, academic behaviours were also assessed using the following question: 'About how many hours do you spend in a typical 7-day week preparing for class (studying, writing, doing homework, lab work, analyzing data, rehearsing, and other academic activities)'. This item is anchored on an 8-point scale using hourly ranges, specifically the possible response options were: 0, 1-5, 6-10, 11-15, 16-20, 21-25, 26-30, 30 or more. This item was taken from the National Survey of Student Engagement (NSSE), which is a nationally used collection of measures designed to quantify student engagement in post-secondary institutions (NSSE, 2011).

Academic Performance and Performance Expectations. Academic performance was measured by asking students to provide their grade point average (GPA) as a percentage. Also, participants were asked to provide their expected GPA as a percentage.

Academic Ability. The Shipley Institute of Living (SILS) was used to measure academic (cognitive) ability (Shipley, 1940). This measure has been shown to correlate with WAIS (Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale) scores and is thought to measure general intellectual functioning (Weiss & Schell, 1991; Zachary, Crumpton, & Spiegel, 1985). The SILS is comprised of two sub-scales, one measuring 'vocabulary' (40 items) and the other measuring 'abstraction' (20 items); scores on these sub-scales are combined to form a single total score for cognitive ability (Shipley, 1940). Psychometric investigations of this measure have found it to be a reliable and valid means of quantifying intelligence (Goodman, Streiner, & Woodward, 1974; Shipley, 1940; Szyhowski, 2008; Watson et al., 1992; Weiss & Schell, 1991; Zachary et al., 1985).

CHAPTER VI

STUDY #2 RESULTS

Study #2 Data Analysis

Strategy. In the second study, Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was used to test competing theoretical models regarding the relationships between AE, motivation, academic performance, and other constructs of interest. The models were specified based on consideration of the past findings in the literature and the results of the prior study; as well, since this endeavor represented an initial attempt at AE model comparison, the correlations from the current dataset were also consulted. Means, standard deviations, and internal consistency coefficients can be found in Table 5. An alpha of .01 was used as a cutoff for all exploratory correlational significance tests, while an alpha cutoff of 0.05 was used for the predictors in the specified models. For all of the models the following guidelines were considered when assessing model fit: *excellent model fit* was defined as Comparative Fit Index (CFI) values greater than .95 and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) values less than .06, and *adequate model fit* was set at CFI values greater than .90 and RMSEA values less than .08 (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

Table 5. Study #2 Means, Standard Deviations, and Reliability Coefficients.

	Mean	SD	α
AE (Kopp, 2011)	20.11	8.13	.84
Self-Efficacy	34.71	6.67	.85
Personal Locus of Control	51.76	7.56	.75
Learning Climate	64.98	15.16	.93
Academic Satisfaction	33.98	8.41	.94
Goal Progress	36.37	6.95	.89
Performance Approach	12.82	5.08	.95
Performance Avoidance	9.59	4.44	.83
Mastery Avoidance	12.79	4.43	.88
Mastery Approach	16.14	3.44	.85
Amotivation	7.41	4.31	.86
Identified Regulation	23.36	3.67	.73
Introjected Motivation	20.74	5.11	.85
External Regulation	22.89	4.17	.77
Motivation to Know	21.17	4.55	.87
Motivation to Accomplish	19.06	5.20	.86
Motivation to Experience	15.38	5.63	.85
Ability	56.71	9.40	--
Academic Behaviors	4.17	1.75	--
Expected Performance (GPA)	77.75	7.31	--
Academic Performance (GPA)	75.30	8.32	--

Note. Cronbach's Alpha Coefficients = α.

Sample and Assumptions. Of the 872 participants who completed the study 82 were removed because they completed the study in an unreasonably short period of time. Specifically, 16.33 minutes was used as a cutoff, allocating 5s per question and 1 minute for instructions – this resulted in a reduced sample of 790 participants. Subsequently, 59 participants who failed 2 of the 3 included validity checks were removed from the sample resulting in an effective sample size of 731.

Regarding the assumption of normality, univariate outliers and multivariate outliers were addressed by relying on standard deviations and Mahalanobis distance values respectively, while multivariate normality was assessed using tests of multivariate kurtosis. First, univariate normality was assessed for each measure through the inspection of histograms, all of the measures except the amotivation dimension of motivation were found to have approximately normal distributions. Like the first study, the amotivation dimension was skewed positively, consequently a log transformation was applied and all correlational analyses were conducted with the log transformed and non-log transformed version of amotivation. Like the first study, the results were similar for both approaches (i.e., the same coefficients were significant for each approach and all of the coefficients were nearly identical) so the non-log transformed version of amotivation was used for all further analyses. Beyond this, the cognitive ability measure (SILS) had 5 extreme outliers (SD > |3.5|), correlational analyses were run with and without these cases, it was noted that their removal made a substantial difference in the pattern of relationships. Consequently, these cases were removed from further analyses. All other univariate outliers found were run under similar circumstances and it was noted that there were no

substantial differences in the results, so they were included for all further analyses. After addressing univariate normality concerns, the multivariate normality assumption was found to be tenable. This resulted in a final sample size of 726 for all analyses. Maximum likelihood estimation was used to impute missing data.

Measurement Model Assessment. Prior to testing the structural models all potential measurement models were assessed. The same goodness of fit criteria were used for the measurement models. At this stage modification indices were consulted to potentially improve model fit if theoretically and practically meaningful covariances could be added to the residuals. Covariances between residuals were deemed appropriate under the following circumstances: items in direct sequence, similar item wording, and similar item directionality (i.e., negative wording). Altogether, 4 AEQ, 2 GPS, 2 AMSS covariances between residuals were added; At this stage of assessment the measurement model for self-efficacy (CASES), locus of control (PE), and learning climate (LCQ) did not result in adequate model fit. As a result these measures were omitted from the structural models as they did not meet the requirements for model fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Kline, 2010). Measures with single indicators (e.g., GPA) and cognitive ability were treated as manifest variables in the structural models.

Study #2 Findings

Correlations. All bivariate correlation coefficients between the constructs in study #2 can be found in Table 6. Similar to the first study, AE was positively related to performance avoidant learning orientation and negatively related to mastery approach learning orientation. However, in this sample AE was not significantly

related to mastery avoidant learning orientation, but it was positively related to performance approach learning orientation. While these findings differ slightly from the first study they do coincide with relationships found in past studies. Like the first study, AE was negatively related to intrinsic motivation to know but positively related to amotivation. In terms of personality and social variables, AE was negatively related to self-efficacy, internal locus of control, and learning climate. As well, AE was negatively related to: academic satisfaction, goal progress, cognitive ability, academic performance expectations, and academic performance.

Academic behaviours (reported hours studying) were negatively related to amotivation, but positively related to: self-efficacy, internal locus of control, goal progress, mastery approach, identified motivation, introjected motivation, intrinsic motivation to know, intrinsic motivation to accomplish, intrinsic motivation to experience, academic expectations, and academic performance. Academic performance was negatively related to AE and amotivation, but was positively related to: self-efficacy, internal locus of control, learning climate, academic satisfaction, goal progress, performance approach, identified motivation, intrinsic motivation to know, and intrinsic motivation to accomplish. Academic performance and academic performance expectations had a very strong positive correlation – nearing singularity. As well, they exhibited nearly identical patterns of relationships with the other constructs.

Table 6. Study #2 Correlations.

	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
1. AE	***-.10***	**-.34**	**-.14**	**-.16**	**-.14**	**.14**	**.28**	.08	***-.10***	-.06	-.00	.07	**-.12**	-.07	.01	**.33**	**-.20**	-.04	**-.13**	**-.13**
2. Self-Efficacy	--	**.47**	**.28**	**.25**	**.52**	**.18**	***-.12***	**-.23**	**.22**	**.19**	.10	.02	**.31**	**.25**	**.21**	**-.35**	**.14**	**.19**	**.43**	**.36**
3. LoC	--	--	**.20**	**.30**	**.38**	.08	**-.19**	**-.22**	**.27**	**.25**	**.14**	.09	**.29**	**.28**	.09	**-.38**	**.13**	**.19**	**.25**	**.18**
4. Climate	--	--	--	**.28**	**.29**	.00	-.04	-.08	**.25**	**.20**	**.15**	.05	**.28**	**.28**	**.22**	**-.21**	***.10***	.08	**.18**	**.15**
5. Acd. Sat.	--	--	--	--	**.34**	.08	-.09	**-.20**	**.16**	**.17**	.04	.00	**.21**	**.17**	***.11***	**-.38**	.06	.08	**.16**	**.14**
6. Goal Prog.	--	--	--	--	--	**.28**	-.02	**-.19**	**.26**	**.28**	**.19**	**.15**	**.35**	**.37**	**.22**	**-.39**	**.16**	**.34**	**.50**	**.54**
7. Perf. App.	--	--	--	--	--	--	**.45**	.06	**.17**	**.22**	**.26**	**.26**	***.11***	**.23**	**.13**	-.08	.08	**.20**	**.34**	**.26**
8. Perf. Avoid.	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	**.35**	.03	.09	**.27**	**.14**	.00	**.13**	**.15**	**.15**	.01	.10	.02	.04
9. Mast. Avoid.	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	**.21**	***.10***	**.19**	***.11***	.02	.02	.03	**.16**	.02	.01	-.09	-.04
10. Mast. App.	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	**.40**	**.29**	**.15**	**.44**	**.40**	**.28**	**-.32**	.06	**.21**	**.12**	.03
11. Identified	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	**.49**	**.54**	**.40**	**.47**	**.29**	**-.35**	-.00	**.18**	**.15**	**.13**
12. Introjection	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	**.38**	**.43**	**.67**	**.43**	***-.11***	-.01	***.11***	.02	.02
13. Ext. Reg.	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	.05	**.21**	.06	-.09	-.06	.07	.05	.06
14. To Know	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	**.69**	**.66**	**-.31**	.07	**.18**	**.21**	**.14**
15. To Accom.	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	**.61**	**-.24**	.03	**.22**	**.21**	**.16**
16. To Exp.	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	***-.11***	.02	**.13**	.09	.03
17. Amotivation	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	***-.10***	**-.16**	**-.28**	**-.22**
18. Ability	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	.06	**.26**	**.28**
19. Behaviors	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	**.31**	**.26**
20. Exp. GPA	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	**.79**
21. GPA	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

Note. Coefficients significant at less than .01 are bolded and italicized, coefficients significant at less than .001 are bolded and underlined; AE = Academic Entitlement, LoC = Locus of Control, Acd. Sat. = Academic Satisfaction, Goal Prog. = Goal Progress, Perf. App. = Performance Approach, Perf. Avoid. = Performance Avoidance, Mast. Avoid. = Mastery Avoidance, Identified = Identified Regulation, Introjection = Introjected Motivation, Ext. Reg. = External Regulation, To Know = Intrinsic Motivation to Know, To Accom. = Intrinsic Motivation to Accomplish, To Exp. = Intrinsic Motivation to Experience, Ability = Cognitive Ability, Behaviors = Reported Hours Studying, Exp. GPA = Expected Grade Point Average in a course, GPA = Overall Grade Point Average.

Model Specification. Based on past findings and the results from the first study, 3 models were specified (Figures 4-6). For the sake of clarity, all of the models depicted include only the structural aspects of the models. These models were specified using the accumulation of past findings and the two theoretical AE pathways outlined earlier. More specifically, past general entitlement, narcissism, and AE models were consulted during model specification and were used in conjunction with the results from the first study to develop the models that were tested. This led to the specification of a combined motivation model, a consumer-based understanding of AE model, and a coping-based understanding of AE model. The combined model included amotivation and intrinsic motivation to know, as well as all of the paths outlined in the individual models listed below (Figure 4). Based on prior research, in all of the models learning orientations were specified as higher order constructs which informed AE and motivation (Harackiewicz, Barron, Carter, Lehto, & Elliot, 1997; Haradkiewicz & Elliot, 1998). In particular, learning orientations were thought of as more firmly established attitudes about the education process, where AE and motivational aspects could be altered based on these preconceived attitudes.

In the consumer-based model (Figure 5), consistent with the literature, performance avoidant, performance approach, and mastery approach learning orientations were set to influence AE (Goodboy & Frisby, 2013; Greenberger et al., 2008; Jackson et al., 2011; Kopp et al., 2011; Vallade et al., 2014; Warren, 2013), intrinsic motivation to know (Elliott & Dweck, 1988; Harackiewicz, Barron, & Elliot, 1998; Harackiewicz, Barron, Carter, Lehto, & Elliot, 1997; Haradkiewicz & Elliot,

1998; Harter, 1992; Riggs, 1992), and academic behaviours. Based on the findings from study #1, the relationship between AE and academic performance was mediated by intrinsic motivation to know. Intrinsic motivation to know was also specified to directly influence student behaviours. Cognitive ability and academic behaviours were specified to directly influence academic performance. As well, AE was set to directly influence goal progress and academic satisfaction (Jones, 2013; Miller, 2013; Olson, 2014); while academic performance was set to also directly influence goal progress which then informed academic satisfaction (Lent et al., 2005; 2007).

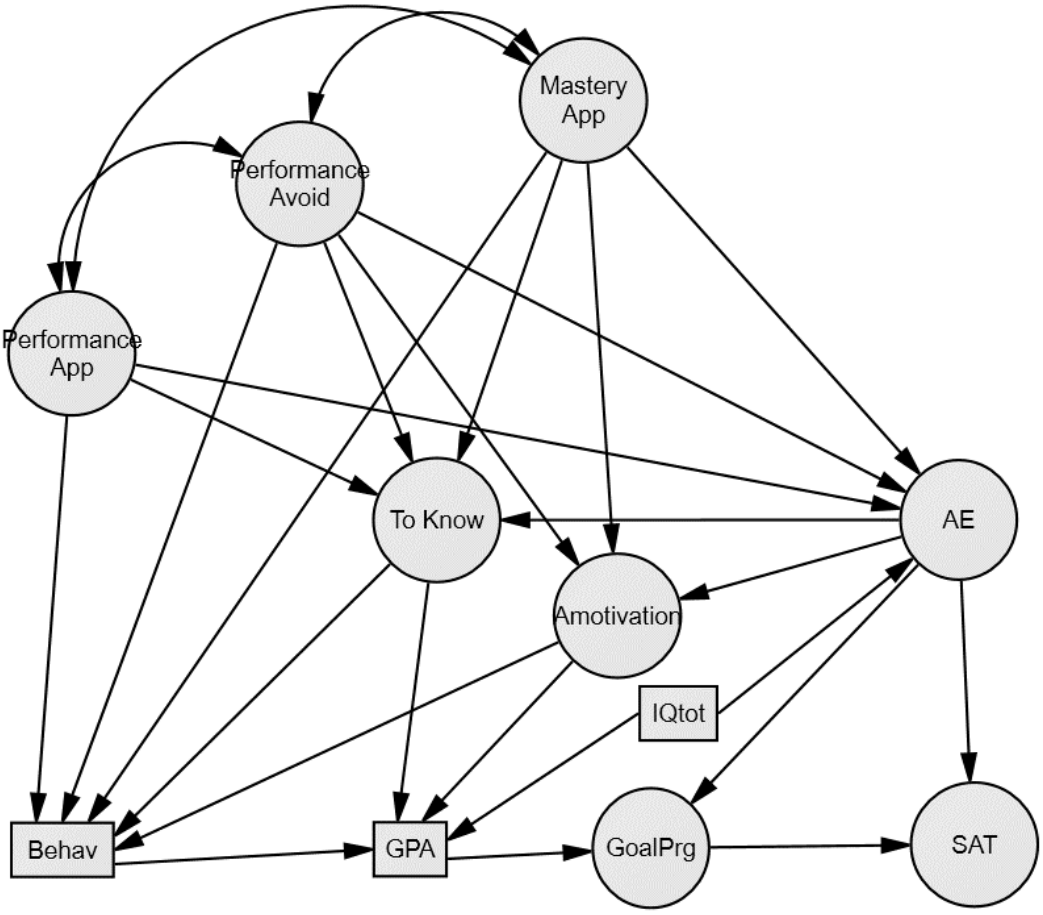
In the coping-based model (Figure 6), mastery and performance avoidant learning orientations were set to directly influence AE (Goodboy & Frisby, 2013; Greenberger et al., 2008; Jackson et al., 2011; Kopp et al., 2011), amotivation (Elliott & Dweck, 1988; Harackiewicz, Barron, & Elliot, 1998; Harackiewicz, Barron, Carter, Lehto, & Elliot, 1997; Haradkiewicz & Elliot, 1998; Harter, 1992; Riggs, 1992), and academic behaviours. Cognitive ability was also set to directly influence AE. Consistent with the first study, the relationship between AE and academic performance was mediated by amotivation. Amotivation was also specified to directly influence student behaviours. As well, AE was set to directly influence goal progress and academic satisfaction (Jones, 2013; Miller, 2013; Olson, 2014). Cognitive ability and academic behaviours were specified to directly influence academic performance. Lastly, academic performance was set to also directly influence goal progress, which then was set to influence academic satisfaction (Lent et al., 2005; 2007).

Model Fit. The combined motivation model resulted in an adequate fit, however the separate coping and consumer models both resulted in excellent model fit, suggesting that these data were best represented by one of the reduced (and more specific) models. The fit indexes were nearly identical for the consumer and coping models; consequently the model characteristics (i.e., path significance and corresponding weights) were examined to determine the most suitable model. In the combined model, when amotivation was included, intrinsic motivation to know did not significantly predict academic behaviours and GPA. In the coping-based model the portions of the model specific to AE resulted in larger standardized path weights than in the consumer-based model. For example, the standardized path from AE to the motivational characteristic in the model was substantially lower in the consumer model (-.10 vs. .35), and the standardized weight of the motivational characteristic on performance was also lower (.08 vs. -.15). Consequently, not only did the coping-based model result in excellent model fit, it also resulted in a more useful explanatory model, directly corresponding with the theoretical aspects outlined during model specification. Based on these pieces of information the coping-based approach was selected as the best fitting model for these data (Figure 6).

In the coping-based model, as hypothesized, performance avoidance was positively related to AE, while mastery approach was negatively related to AE; both of these factors were then positively related to academic behaviours. Of the learning orientations in the model, only the mastery approach path was significantly related to amotivation, resulting in a negative relationship. As predicted, the relationship

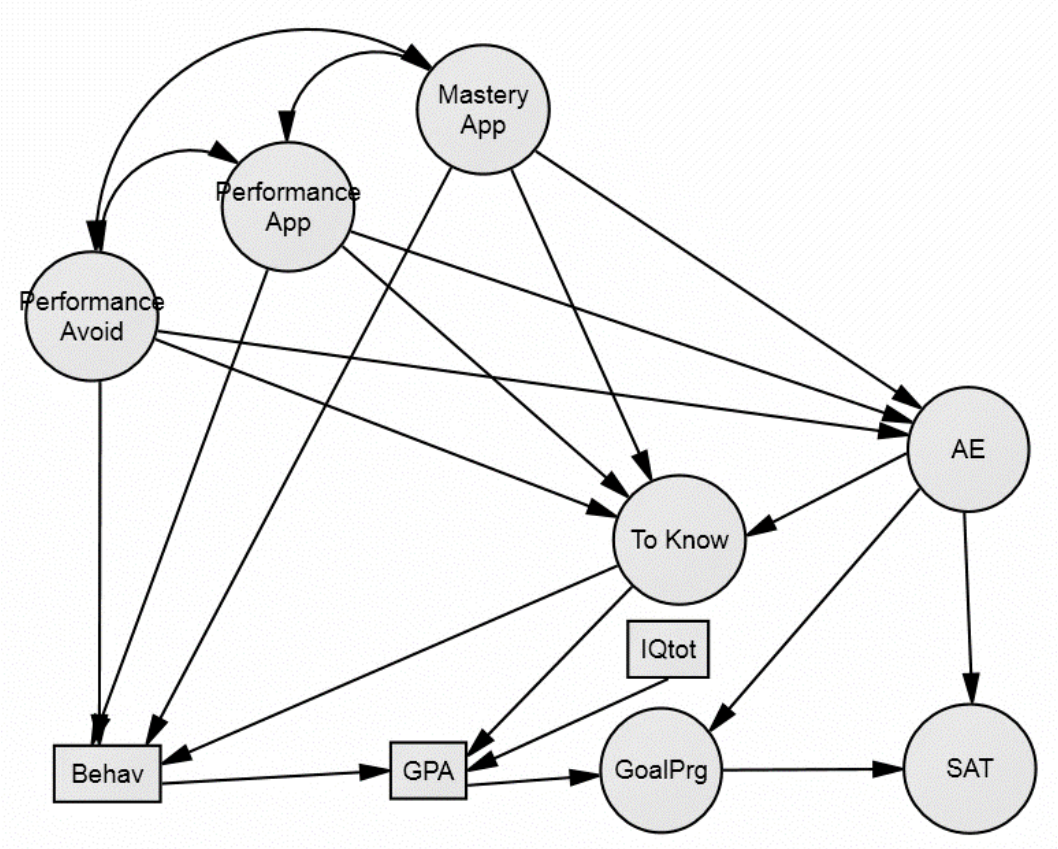
between AE and academic performance was mediated through amotivation; specifically, AE was positively related to amotivation, which was then negatively related to academic behaviours and performance. Cognitive ability was negatively related to AE, but positively related to academic performance. Academic performance was then positively related to goal progress, while AE was negatively related to goal progress. Finally, goal progress was positively related to academic satisfaction while AE was negatively related to goal progress.

Figure 4. Model #1 AE Model with Intrinsic Motivation To Know and Amotivation.



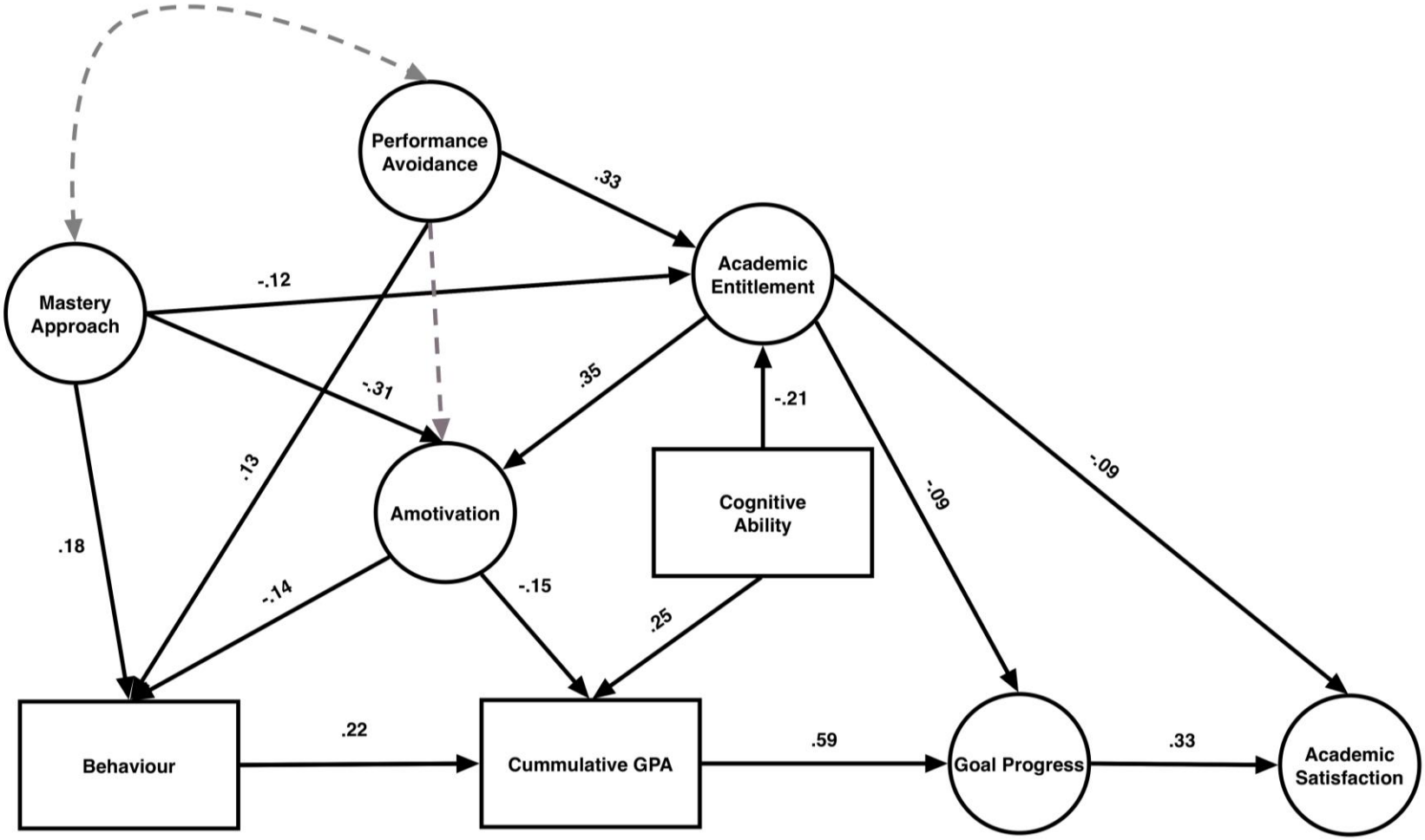
Note. Behav = Academic Behaviours (study hours), GPA = Grade Point Average, Performance App = Performance Approach, Performance Avoid = Performance Avoidance, Mastery App = Mastery Approach, To Know = Intrinsic Motivation To Know, IQtot = Cognitive Ability, AE = Academic Entitlement, GoalPrg = Goal Progress, SAT = Academic Satisfaction.

Figure 5. Model #2 Consumer Based AE with Intrinsic Motivation To Know.



Note. Behav = Academic Behaviours (study hours), GPA = Grade Point Average, Performance App = Performance Approach, Performance Avoid = Performance Avoidance, Mastery App = Mastery Approach, To Know = Intrinsic Motivation To Know, IQtot = Cognitive Ability, AE = Academic Entitlement, GoalPrg = Goal Progress, SAT = Academic Satisfaction.

Figure 6. Model #3 Coping Based Model of AE with Amotivation.



Note. All paths with coefficients are significant at an alpha of $p < .05$. All dashed lines reflect non-significant paths.

Table 7. Study #2 Model Fit for Specified Competing Models

Model	χ^2	*df*	CFI	RMSEA	C.I.
1. Combined Motivation Model	1765.61	749	.94	.04	.04 – .05
2. Consumer Model Int. Motivation	1396.45	604	.95	.04	.04 – .05
3. Coping Model Amotivation	1184.10	504	.95	.04	.04 – .05

Note. Int. = Intrinsic, *df* = Degrees of Freedom for the model, CFI = Comparative Fit Index, RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation, C.I. = RMSEA 95% Confidence Interval.

CHAPTER VII

DISCUSSION

Through both of these studies learning orientations were related to AE; however, the pattern of these relationships varied slightly across the two studies. As predicted, in both of the studies AE was positively related to performance avoidant learning orientation but negatively related to mastery learning orientation. In the second study, as expected from prior work, AE was positively related to performance approach learning orientation. Similarly, there was equivocal support for a positive relationship between AE and mastery avoidant learning orientation (which was only found in the first study). The results from the second study match directly with past findings, where AE was related to higher levels of performance approach and performance avoidant learning orientations, but lower levels of mastery approach learning orientation.

As expected, in both studies, motivation did mediate the influence AE had on academic performance. Counter to the predictions, in the first study the mediation models for academic behaviours were non-significant. Across the studies it was found that AE was positively related to non-self-determined motivation (amotivation), which was then negatively related to academic performance. As well, AE was negatively related to self-determined motivation (intrinsic motivation to know), which was positively related to performance. It is important to note that these were the only two motivational facets that exhibited this mediation effect and that overall the effects were relatively small. One explanation for only finding effects for intrinsic motivation to know and amotivation could be that those high in AE are

primarily lacking motivation to engage in the learning experience. As such, they intuitively would be less likely to possess an intrinsic motivation to learn new materials. Put another way, possessing an intrinsic motivation to learn could act as a deterrent to academically entitled attitudes and behaviours.

Regarding effect sizes, even a small effect on overall academic performance is likely to represent a meaningful impact. Given that these results involved overall reported GPA and relied upon a unidimensional measure of AE, it is possible that sub-dimensions of AE might have a more pronounced impact on more precise indicators of academic performance. In particular, it is conceivable that this effect could be larger when examined in specific situational contexts over shorter periods of time (e.g., single exam scores, direct teacher evaluation of work, group work evaluations, etc.). Beyond greater precision in determining AE effects, even a relatively small decrease in overall student GPA is likely to reflect a meaningful impact from the perspective of the student and the institution.

Outside of these hypothesized relationships, through exploration it was found that self-efficacy (in both studies), locus of control, learning climate, and grade expectations were negatively related to AE. Taken together, these findings suggest that individual characteristics specific to perceptions of control and ability to achieve are negatively related to AE, which likely contributes to lower grade expectations. From a more distal perspective the negative relationship with learning climate provides some evidence that perceptions of the classroom environment decrease as levels of AE increase.

As a whole, the results of these studies provide evidence that, in general, students high in AE are likely to feel less able to accomplish academic tasks, while possibly blaming external forces (e.g., the instructor) for their shortcomings. These students seem to be less focused on learning and more concerned with either achieving positive external outcomes, or at least avoiding the appearance of incompetence. Unfortunately, this may translate into poor motivational tactics that undermine learning and performance.

AE Model Implications

The findings from the first study were further tested in a larger structural model, which resulted in excellent model fit. This model provides novel evidence for the causes, direct effects, and indirect effects of AE on the education process. Based on this model, AE and amotivation are a result of increased concern over performing poorly and decreased concern over mastering course material. Both of these aspects seem to directly increase student reported study time – likely because students are either interested in learning the material or because they do not want to be viewed as incompetent due to poor academic results. Working in conjunction with concerns over looking incompetent, students high in AE are also less likely to have the cognitive ability required to meet their performance goals. Consequently, these students are less likely to be engaged in the learning process, as evidenced by decreased studying and decreased overall academic performance. Reductions in study time and academic performance then directly influence the students' behaviours that result in them achieving their academic goals, ultimately reducing their satisfaction in the academic process. Throughout this process, feelings of

academic entitlement reduce the students' perceptions of meeting their academic goals, further reducing their satisfaction with the academic experience.

The current model contributes to our existing understanding of AE by providing a framework for some of the causes and outcomes related to AE. As well, this model provides theoretical insight into the pathways that might instill and augment AE over time. More specifically, the negative relationship between AE and cognitive ability, in conjunction with decreased mastery learning orientation and increased performance learning orientation, provides novel evidence that AE can act as a by-product of lower ability and fear of failure. Further, this model provides unique evidence that the relationship between AE and academic performance is mediated by amotivation; whereby AE increases the amotivation of students, while indirectly decreasing their academic performance. This new information provides an intuitive platform for understanding the formation of AE and the detrimental impact it can have on the learning experience.

Similar to models in the narcissism literature (Campbell & Goodie, 2004; Miller et al., 2009; Morf & Rhodewalt, 1993; Vazire & Funder, 2006) and related findings in SDT (Harter, 1992; Riggs, 1992), AE seems to function as a buffer or coping mechanism for ego threats related to academic performance, that are directly informed by a fear of failure and lack of academic ability. Furthermore, this model nicely aligns with prior research, where it has been noted that students who are less mastery oriented, with lower perceived ability felt that the course content was less relevant to them (Summers, Schallert, & Ritter, 2003). Taken together, it would seem that students lower in ability, with decreased interest in mastering the

course material (while being concerned about failing), are more likely to be high in AE, while being less motivated to learn the course material.

In more detail, students high in AE may not value the education process as a means of gaining knowledge, but instead see it as a means to prove their worth. This would explain how lower cognitive ability and fear of performance failure directly increase AE, which then decreases the desire to engage in the academic process. This discounting (or coping) mechanism is then likely to contribute to self-handicapping strategies – for example, decreased study time as a means of psychologically protecting from ego threats related to potential academic failures. This set of strategies then directly and indirectly (through poor study habits) results in decreased performance. This would then cause disappointment with goal progress, resulting in overall dissatisfaction with the academic process. Keeping in mind that these perceptions of progress and satisfaction are already directly reduced as a discounting mechanism through AE – whereby entitled attitudes allow the student to blame external sources for their dissatisfaction and lack of goal progress. This is likely a cyclical process, where poor performance, lack of progress, and dissatisfaction increase the reliance on this AE-based set of coping mechanisms over time.

Practical Implications

Using this coping-based model to understand AE allows new possibilities in diagnosing the causes of AE and potentially addressing educational difficulties that arise as a result. While some have suggested measuring for AE prior to admittance and then potentially denying entrance to extreme cases (Cain et al., 2012), this

approach does not directly address more general and pervasive forms of AE. Nor should educators feel pressure to accommodate AE attitudes/behaviours by decreasing academic standards or providing undeserved/unrealistic assistance to students (Twenge, 2009). Instead a possible solution to common forms of AE may be to focus on mastery-based approaches to teaching that downplay external metrics as a means of quantifying success. That is not to say that grades should not be calculated and used for selection/assessment; instead, in classroom environments, downplaying the role of external metrics of performance could assist in decreasing the students' focus on fear of failure and increase their desire to master course materials.

An additional component to this process might be to temper academic expectations, while highlighting the potential uses of knowledge and skills that can be acquired through coursework. It is often the case that students would like to feel a sense of growth and development, with the expectation that legitimate entitlements (or hygiene characteristics) related to the education process will be met (Karpen, 2014). For example, students should reasonably expect a safe learning environment, competent instructors, accessible staff, and an environment that cultivates personal growth. Unrealistic expectations beyond these examples of hygiene characteristics are likely to be the by-product of past experiences or external characteristics. In classroom settings, instructors are only able to control their actions and course characteristics; thus, early attempts to address and correct expectations may reduce self-handicapping behaviours. For example, Buckley et al.'s (2004) suggestion of realistic previews of expected work and behaviours could

assist students in understanding the classroom climate. This could include examples of effective strategies, examples of successful work, and demonstrations of the utility of the work. In another example, allowing students the ability to make seemingly minor choices in the course structure (e.g., selecting group partners) could foster increased intrinsic motivation and improve the classroom community (Ciani et al., 2008b).

From an administration perspective, if these mastery-focused endeavours were supported from both the top-down (e.g., administrators) and bottom-up (e.g., instructors), the consistency in academic climate/culture could result in a renewed focus on material mastery across instructors and years of study. This consistency in message and approach is likely to be essential if any meaningful changes are to be expected. At a basic level, humanistic learning strategies (Hoy, 2001; Lunenburg & Schmidt, 1989) and policies that endorse self-determined forms of motivation could provide support to instructors and create consistency for students.

Since prior characteristics and experiences are also likely to inform the instructor's approach to the classroom environment and over time they may become more entrenched in their pupil control ideology, support from the institution may be required to assist in the implementation of these strategies (Rideout & Morton, 2007; 2010). The interactions between teachers and institutional authority figures provide possible avenues to motivate teachers to adopt reformations and integrate new teaching techniques (Turner, Waugh, Summers, & Grove, 2009). However, Turner et al. (2009) argue that for these types of reforms to take place the environmental supports, the emotional climate, the

personal values of the teacher, their perceptions of control, and the teacher's competencies need to be taken into consideration. Ultimately, they suggest that trust and collaboration is required between administrators and teachers in order to develop and encourage teacher competency. As a single practical example, institutions could provide targeted courses and virtual (or in-person) resources that assist instructors throughout their teaching engagements and provide a community environment where teachers can discuss their ideas and receive support for their efforts.

To assist the students more directly, institutional policy and supports could be put into place to generate a more humanistic and interactive learning environment. Instilling classroom practices that are cooperative, interactive, and mastery focused have been shown to improve classroom communities (Summers & Svinicki, 2007). As such, institutional reforms that embrace these aspects could result in increased mastery focus in classrooms while decreasing performance-avoidant learning orientations (Summers & Svinicki, 2007). Some possible institution-wide examples of this approach could include efforts to provide support for students to develop study groups with adequate resources (providing a sense of autonomy and relatedness). In another example, campus based financial support opportunities could be provided for activities that demonstrate mastery application of training and that have meaningful implications, as opposed to grade focused scholarships. These types of opportunities could foster a culture of course material mastery and self-determination (autonomy, competence, and relatedness).

To combat AE and the corresponding amotivation, potentially as a result of ability deficits, students could be made aware of effective work strategies and how they might better learn and retain the information from the course. This is not to say that extreme deficits in cognitive function could be bridged, but it is likely that most post-secondary students have a certain baseline level of ability and with a renewed focus on content mastery they may be able to further grow their knowledge and skills. By promoting a mindset that encourages malleable views of ability, students may be more inclined to rely on mastery-oriented goals and avoid self-defeating behaviours (Blackwell et al., 2007; Grant & Dweck, 2003; Miserandino, 1996; Mueller & Dweck, 1998; Riggs, 1992). An additional benefit of fostering this mindset in the classroom is that the reliance on self-improvement would potentially undercut external (classroom-based) attributions as an excuse for poor performance and inadequate goal progress. As well, this could contribute to social expectations of mastery-based approaches as opposed to a focus on external performance.

Parents and past education experiences are likely to be additional driving forces in the coping-based model. Though these variables were not included in the tested model they are likely to contribute to the goals, expectations, and learning orientations of the students. From the perspective of a post-secondary academic institution, little can be done to alter these characteristics. However, early interventions both by parents and the education system could reduce AE and the related coping mechanisms that inhibit the effectiveness of the education process. Specifically, parents should be encouraged to emphasize the benefits of mastering

and improving abilities instead of external achievement. Ideally, parents would also model this mindset, as well as provide strategies to assist in mastery-oriented goal setting and achievement. Primary, secondary, and post-secondary schools could partner with community organizations to provide support to parents, including information and examples of approaches to encourage mastery-focused learning.

Though a student's schema for education and their related expectations are likely to have been developed prior to entering post-secondary institutions, the transition to a post-secondary education could provide an opportune time to address these preconceived notions. This is not to say that early interventions (e.g., at the elementary and secondary levels) should not be attempted, but instead that the transition to a university setting should provide students an opportunity for personal growth, with greater autonomy in their learning progress. Consequently, establishing a culture/climate that espouses the values of a learning community at the institutional and classroom levels could directly address AE and potentially result in superior academic performance and adaptive learning behaviours.

With a model describing the antecedents and outcomes of AE, strategies can be employed to target aspects that inform student entitlement and ideally improve learning. Specifically, by reducing concern about performance failure, while providing support to master material – regardless of baseline ability – educators may be able to reduce entitled attitudes and improve student learning. By disrupting the cycle of AE as a coping mechanism, this could also result in decreased incivility amongst students and faculty (Cain et al., 2012; Kopp & Finney, 2013), decreased incidence of academic dishonesty (Cornell, 2014), as well as increased

satisfaction with the education process (Myers, Goodboy, & Members of COMM 600, 2014).

Understanding AE Populations

Though the coping-model was selected as the best empirical and theoretical explanation for AE in this sample, it is possible that there are multiple latent populations of AE students. That is to say, that while the coping model for AE may explain the majority of AE cases, there could be sub-populations that represent those with different rationales and concerns. For example, there could be less frequent instances of exceptionally intelligent students who exhibit AE-type symptoms because they require/expect high levels of accommodation from their academic institution. Similarly, there could be a sub-population of those with extreme levels of narcissism, Machiavellianism, and general entitlement, who view the education process as a game to which they are entitled to exceptional grades, just because they are playing along. In this group AE attitudes and actions might be reflective of more manipulative strategies to receive external validation. Though this would not run directly counter to the coping model, this group could represent more extreme perspectives that are not fully accounted for in the current coping-based understanding.

As well, it is possible that there are students who exhibit high levels of AE due to a consumer perspective of the education system. These differences may be more pronounced in scenarios where education is costly and is viewed as a necessity for achievement (Olson, 2014). The current sample was collected at a medium sized public institution in Canada, where the cost of education is subsidized

by the government and is relatively low compared to American and other private institutions. As a result, it is possible that the consumer-based model could represent a sizable number of students, depending on the characteristics of the institution and the backgrounds of the individuals. With this sub-population there could be other reasons for higher levels of AE, likely with similar outcomes described in the literature and in the current study. As such, a better understanding of AE across populations is needed to fully understand other pathways that could influence the development of this phenomenon.

Other Future Directions

Beyond investigating latent AE populations, there are a number of aspects that should be expanded upon to better understand and address AE moving forward. First, further clarification regarding the impact of parental aspects on AE is needed. This should extend beyond correlating parent related constructs with AE, and should include attempts to manipulate variables such as goal setting strategies, parental grade expectations, parental study/behaviour expectations, and parent-student input into these decisions. In kind, further work is needed to understand the influence of social components and schema generation on AE. There is preliminary evidence to suggest that AE students have specific achievement expectations (Buckley et al., 2004; Fisk, 2010; Zitek et al., 2010); however, little is known about the mechanics that inform these expectations. With a more thorough understanding of these social factors in AE development, better intervention strategies could be developed.

Additionally, the impact of the education system (at both micro and macro levels) on AE requires further investigation. From a micro perspective, evidence for direct intervention strategies and classroom approaches altering AE (and related outcomes) would greatly enhance the application of AE research moving forward. This would likely require experimental and quasi-experimental investigations that address the effectiveness of existing mastery-oriented and self-determination focused approaches, as a means to deter AE and improve educational outcomes. At a macro level, further insight is needed as to the effects of educational policy on AE beliefs. There is preliminary evidence (Singleton-Jackson et al., 2010; Warren, 2013) that AE increases student expectations of accommodation at a policy level, though this ignores the potential influence of policy altering AE. This is likely to represent a more distal effect – felt through instructors and the culture/climate of the institution. It could be that consistent policies that encourage mastery-oriented tactics reduce AE and the related educational outcomes. Such investigations would likely require a longitudinal approach in order to fully account for baseline AE aspects and how they might be influenced both from top-down (policy) and bottom-up (instructor) variables.

Another area that could benefit from greater clarification is distinguishing between AE and realistic (or hygiene-based) educational expectations. It should be noted that deterring AE should not result in reduced care/support provided to students. Quite the opposite, AE deterrence strategies are likely to require more targeted support that directs students towards a mastery-based learning orientation. As such, distinguishing AE from hygiene related entitlements could

assist in assessing the efficacy of intervention approaches. Then, using the AE coping model, experiments should be designed to test for the efficacy of intervention strategies. To date, nearly all of the AE research has been correlational in nature – now with a more established grasp of the structural aspects involved in forming AE, more research is required to determine the possibility of effectively reducing AE and improving related academic outcomes.

Lastly, long-term investigation into the formation and effects of AE are required. Few studies have investigated the ways in which AE forms and changes over time, nor is there information about the impacts of AE over time. Changes to motivational strategies might not manifest immediate results, and instead it might require additional time to fully appreciate the efficacy of an intervention. As well, with a longitudinal approach, it would be possible to investigate specific hypotheses that have not been addressed to date; for example, the hypothesis that AE is a cyclical process reinforced by post-secondary experiences could be more directly assessed if multiple measurement time-points were included in the study design. A longitudinal approach would also provide insight into the potential invariance of AE models over time and assist in predicting more distal outcomes (e.g., work-place entitlement).

Limitations

There were some limitations to the current set of studies. Different measures of AE were used across the two studies. This was done because there was greater empirical support for the more recently validated AEQ (Kopp et al., 2011) over the AES (Greenberger et al., 2008) when starting the second study. While the

results were similar across the two studies, it is possible that some of the patterns of relationships might have differed as a consequence of this decision.

In both studies participants were asked the questions at the same time; thus it is difficult to discern temporal effects from the model. A clear example of this issue is the relationship between reported GPA and expected GPA – these variables were very highly correlated and displayed near identical relationships with the other variables, and thus expected GPA was excluded from the structural models. Continuing with this example, in future research, a pre-study measure of expectations (and other appropriate variables) in a longitudinal design would enhance our understanding of the temporal characteristics being assessed. Also, measures of behaviour and performance were taken at a single time point and were self-reported. To address concerns over reporting bias, externally assessed measures of these characteristics could be used in future research.

Also, some of the measures in study #2 did not meet the model fit requirements to be included in the structural models. This resulted in the exclusion of these theoretically compelling constructs from the specified models (i.e., locus of control, self-efficacy, and learning climate). As well, given the related nature of some of these items and the single time point of measurement, it is possible that some of the relationships could be inflated as a result of common method variance. Future research should look to improve these instruments or to include different measures of these constructs so that their influence can be included in the structural understanding of AE. In addition, it is likely that there are other theoretically compelling constructs that were not included in the selected model. This is to be

expected as there is still no accepted model for AE antecedents and outcomes in the literature, but future research should look to expand on the selected model.

Lastly, the championed model was only tested using a single sample. It is possible that this model may not generalize beyond this sample; as such, future work is needed to test for model invariance across different samples. Specifically, the current sample was largely comprised of white, female students in their early 20s. As well, the sample was collected at a medium-sized public institution in Canada where the education costs for citizens are heavily subsidized by the government. As a result, future validation efforts should consider alternative samples, with different types of institutions.

Summary

The results from these two studies provide evidence that motivation is a mediating variable when examining the influence of AE on academic performance. It was also noted that a coping-based model best described the antecedents and outcomes associated with AE. Under this model, students are likely to rely on AE as a buffer for their fear of failure and inadequate cognitive abilities, which then deters their academic progress and decreases their educational satisfaction. In practical terms, this model suggests that parents, educators, and administrators should encourage mastery-oriented learning strategies so that students are better equipped to succeed in post-secondary settings.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Academic Entitlement Scale (Greenberger et al., 2008)

	Question	Strongly Disagree					Strongly Agree
1.	If I have explained to my professor that I am trying hard, I think he/she should give me some consideration with respect to my course grade.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.	I feel I have been poorly treated if a professor cancels an appointment with me on the same day as we were supposed to meet.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.	If I have completed most of the reading for a class, I deserve a good grade.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.	If I have attended most classes for a course, I deserve a good grade.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.	Professors often give me lower grades than I deserve on paper assignments	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.	When my personal plans conflict with an exam the professor should let me take the exam at a different time.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.	Professors often give me lower grades than I deserve on exams	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.	A professor should be willing to lend me his/her course notes if I ask for them	1	2	3	4	5	6
9.	I would think poorly of a professor who did not respond the same day to an e-mail I sent	1	2	3	4	5	6
10.	If I'm not happy with my grade the professor should allow me to do an additional assignment	1	2	3	4	5	6
11.	Professors have no right to be annoyed with me if I tend to come late to class or tend to leave early	1	2	3	4	5	6
12.	A professor should not be annoyed with me if I receive an important call during class	1	2	3	4	5	6
13.	I would think poorly of a professor who did not respond quickly to a phone message I left him or her	1	2	3	4	5	6
14.	A professor should be willing to meet with me at a time that works best for me, even if inconvenient for the professor	1	2	3	4	5	6
15.	A professor should let me arrange to turn in an assignment late if the due date interferes with my personal plans	1	2	3	4	5	6

APPENDIX B

Academic Entitlement Questionnaire (Kopp et al., 2011)

	Question	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
1	If I don't do well on a test, the professor should make tests easier or curve the grades.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Professors should only lecture on material covered in the textbook and assigned readings.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	If I am struggling in a class, the professor should approach me and offer to help.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	It is the professor's responsibility to make it easy for me to succeed.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	If I cannot learn the material for a class from lecture alone, then it is the professor's fault when I fail the test.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	I am a product of my environment. Therefore, if I do poorly in class, it is not my fault.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	I should be given the opportunity to make up a test, regardless of the reason for the absence.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	Because I pay tuition, I deserve passing grades.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

APPENDIX C

Academic Motivation Scale (AMS-C 28)

Using the scale below, indicate to what extent each of the following items presently corresponds to one of the reasons why you go to college.

Does not correspond at all	Corresponds a little	Corresponds moderately	Corresponds a lot	Corresponds Exactly
1	2 3	4	5 6	7

1.	Because with only a high-school degree I would not find a high-paying job later on.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	Because I experience pleasure and satisfaction while learning new things.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	Because I think that a college education will help me better prepare for the career I have chosen.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	For the intense feelings I experience when I am communicating my own ideas to others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	Honestly, I don't know; I really feel that I am wasting my time in school.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	For the pleasure I experience while surpassing myself in my studies.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.	To prove to myself that I am capable of completing my college degree.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	In order to obtain a more prestigious job later on.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.	For the pleasure I experience when I discover new things never seen before.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.	Because eventually it will enable me to enter the job market in a field that I like.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11.	For the pleasure that I experience when I read interesting authors.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12.	I once had good reasons for going to college; however, now I wonder whether I should continue.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13.	For the pleasure that I experience while I am surpassing myself in one of my personal accomplishments.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14.	Because of the fact that when I succeed in college I feel important.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

15.	Because I want to have "the good life" later on.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16.	For the pleasure that I experience in broadening my knowledge about subjects which appeal to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17.	Because this will help me make a better choice regarding my career orientation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18.	For the pleasure that I experience when I feel completely absorbed by what certain authors have written.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19.	I can't see why I go to college and frankly, I couldn't care less.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20.	For the satisfaction I feel when I am in the process of accomplishing difficult academic activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21.	To show myself that I am an intelligent person.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22.	In order to have a better salary later on.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23.	Because my studies allow me to continue to learn about many things that interest me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24.	Because I believe that a few additional years of education will improve my competence as a worker.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25.	For the "high" feeling that I experience while reading about various interesting subjects.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26.	I don't know; I can't understand what I am doing in school.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27.	Because college allows me to experience a personal satisfaction in my quest for excellence in my studies.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28.	Because I want to show myself that I can succeed in my studies.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

APPENDIX D

Academic Goal Orientation

	Performance Approach	Not at all true of me		Somewhat true of me			Very True of me	
1.	My goal this semester is to get better grades than most of the other students.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	It is important for me to do well compared to other students this semester.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	I want to do better than other students this semester.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Performance Avoidance							
4.	The reason I study for my classes this semester is so the teacher doesn't think that I know less than others in my classes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	One of my main goals in my classes this semester is to avoid looking like I'm stupid or that I do worse than others in my classes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	I worry about doing worse than the other students in my classes this semester.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Mastery Avoidance							
7.	I am afraid that I may not understand the content of my courses as thoroughly as I'd like.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	I worry that I may not learn all that I possibly could this semester.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.	I am definitely concerned that I may not learn all that I can this semester.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Mastery Approach							
10.	Completely mastering the material in my courses is important to me this semester.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11.	I want to learn as much as possible this semester.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12.	The most important thing for me this semester is to understand the content in my courses as thoroughly as possible.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

APPENDIX E

The Learning Climate Questionnaire

Instructions: This questionnaire contains items that are related to your experiences with you class instructors in general. Instructors have different styles in dealing with students, and we would like to know more about how you have felt about your encounters with your instructors at the University of Windsor. Please be honest and candid.

	Question	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
1	I feel that my instructors provide me choices and options.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	I feel understood by my instructors.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	I am able to be open with my instructors during class.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	My instructors convey confidence in my ability to do well in the course.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	I feel that my instructors accept me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	My instructors make sure that I really understand the goals of the course and what I need to do.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	My instructors encourage me to ask questions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	I feel a lot of trust in my instructors.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	My instructors answer my questions fully and carefully.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	My instructors listen to how I would like to do things.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	My instructors handle people's emotions very well.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	I feel that my instructors care about me as a person.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	I don't feel very good about the way my instructors talk to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	My instructors try to understand how I see things before suggesting a new way to do things.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	I feel able to share my feelings with my instructors.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

APPENDIX F

Academic Major Satisfaction Scale

	Question	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
1	I often wish I hadn't gotten into this major.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	I wish I were happier with my choice of an academic major.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	I am strongly considering changing to another major.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Overall, I am happy with the major I've chosen.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	I feel good about the major I've selected.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	I would like to talk to someone about changing my major.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

APPENDIX G

Goal Progress Scale

How much progress are you making toward each these goals at this point in time (i.e., so far this semester):

	Question	No Progress At All						Excellent Progress
1	Excelling at your academic major	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Completing all course assignments effectively	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Studying effectively for all of your exams	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Remaining enrolled in your academic major	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Completing academic requirements of your major satisfactorily	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Achieving/maintaining high grades in all of your courses	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	Learning and understanding the material in each of your courses	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

APPENDIX H

Personal Locus of Control

	Question	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
1	I can usually achieve what I want if I work hard for it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Once I make plans, I am almost certain to make them work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	I prefer games involving some luck over games requiring pure skill.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	I can learn almost anything if I set my mind to it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	My major accomplishments are entirely due to my hard work and ability.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	I usually do not set goals because I have a hard time following through on them.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	Bad luck has sometimes prevented me from achieving things.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	Almost anything is possible for me if I really want it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	Most of what happens in my career is beyond my control.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	I find it pointless to keep working on something that's too difficult for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

APPENDIX I

Reduced College Academic Self-Efficacy Scale

How much confidence do you have about doing each of the behaviours listed below? Click on the button associated with the number that best represents your confidence.

Very Confident ←----------→ Not Very Confident

	Question	Very Confident				Not Very Confident
1.	Participating in a class discussion.	5	4	3	2	1
2.	Answering a question in a large class.	5	4	3	2	1
3.	Listening carefully during a lecture on a difficult topic.	5	4	3	2	1
4.	Tutoring another student.	5	4	3	2	1
5.	Explaining a concept to another student.	5	4	3	2	1
6.	Earning good marks in most courses.	5	4	3	2	1
7.	Studying enough to understand content thoroughly.	5	4	3	2	1
8.	Making professors respect you.	5	4	3	2	1
9.	Understanding most ideas you read in your texts.	5	4	3	2	1
10.	Understanding most ideas presented in class.	5	4	3	2	1

APPENDIX J

Model #1 Standardized Path and Covariance Estimates

Path	Standardized Est.
Performance Avoidance → Motivation To Know	*Ns*
Performance Avoidance → Amotivation	*Ns*
Performance Avoidance → Behaviours	*Ns*
Performance Avoidance → Academic Entitlement	.35
Performance Approach → Motivation To Know	*Ns*
Performance Approach → Behaviours	.15
Performance Approach → Academic Entitlement	*Ns*
Mastery Approach → Motivation To Know	.50
Mastery Approach → Amotivation	-.32
Mastery Approach → Behaviours	.12
Mastery Approach → Academic Entitlement	-.13
Academic Entitlement → Motivation To Know	-.10
Academic Entitlement → Amotivation	.36
Academic Entitlement → Goal Progress	-.10
Academic Entitlement → Academic Satisfaction	-.10
Motivation To Know → Behaviours	*Ns*
Motivation To Know → Grade Point Average	*Ns*
Amotivation → Behaviours	-.10
Amotivation → Grade Point Average	-.14
Behaviours → Grade Point Average	.22
Cognitive Ability → Grade Point Average	.25
Cognitive Ability → Academic Entitlement	-.20
Grade Point Average → Goal Progress	.59
Goal Progress → Academic Satisfaction	.33
Covariances	**Standardized Est.**
Performance Avoidance <-> Performance Approach	.48
Performance Avoidance <-> Mastery Approach	*Ns*
Performance Approach <-> Mastery Approach	.14

Note. Standardized Est. = Standardized Estimate; *Ns* = Non-significant

APPENDIX K

Model #2 Standardized Path and Covariance Estimates

Path	Standardized Est.
Performance Avoidance → Motivation To Know	*Ns*
Performance Avoidance → Behaviours	*Ns*
Performance Avoidance → Academic Entitlement	.34
Performance Approach → Motivation To Know	*Ns*
Performance Approach → Behaviours	.16
Performance Approach → Academic Entitlement	*Ns*
Mastery Approach → Motivation To Know	.50
Mastery Approach → Behaviours	.15
Mastery Approach → Academic Entitlement	-.14
Academic Entitlement → Motivation To Know	-.09
Academic Entitlement → Goal Progress	-.09
Academic Entitlement → Academic Satisfaction	-.09
Motivation To Know → Behaviours	.10
Motivation To Know → Grade Point Average	.08
Behaviours → Grade Point Average	.23
Cognitive Ability → Grade Point Average	.27
Grade Point Average → Goal Progress	.60
Goal Progress → Academic Satisfaction	.34
Correlations	Standardized Est.
Performance Avoidance <-> Performance Approach	.48
Performance Avoidance <-> Mastery Approach	*Ns*
Performance Approach <-> Mastery Approach	.13

Note. Standardized Est. = Standardized Estimate; *Ns* = Non-significant

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