

## Examining the validity and reliability of the academic entitlement scale in Turkish culture

Adem Kantar<sup>1\*</sup>, Büşra Aslan Cevheroğlu<sup>1</sup>, Ayşegül Bakır<sup>2</sup>, Serel Akdur Çiçek<sup>3</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Erzurum Technical University, Department of Psychology, Erzurum, Türkiye

<sup>2</sup>Hacettepe University, Division of Guidance and Psychological Counseling, Ankara, Türkiye

<sup>3</sup>Independent Researcher and Clinical Psychologist (PhD), Ankara, Türkiye

### ARTICLE HISTORY

Received: Sep. 21, 2023

Accepted: Feb. 20, 2024

### Keywords:

Academic Entitlement,  
Entitlement,  
Measurement Invariance,  
Adaptation Study.

**Abstract:** This study aims to adapt the Academic Entitlement Scale to Turkish culture and examine the scale's measurement invariance according to gender. The study was conducted with 372 university students aged 18 and 54 ( $I = 20.90$ ). The study used the Academic Entitlement Scale, Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale, Narcissistic Personality Inventory, and Locus of Control Scale as data collection tools. Confirmatory factor analysis was performed to identify the construct validity of the scale. The measurement invariance of the scale according to gender was examined using multi-group confirmatory factor analysis. Correlations between research variables were analyzed with the Pearson Correlation Test. Cronbach's Alpha was performed to measure the internal consistency reliability of the study. As a result of the analyses, it was determined that academic entitlement was positively correlated with self-esteem and external locus of control. In addition, it was revealed that the externalized responsibility sub-dimension was positively correlated to narcissism. The research findings indicate that the scale is a valid and reliable measurement tool within Turkish culture.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Academic entitlement (AE) is a problem that has recently increased among university students (Singleton-Jackson et al., 2011). Many students expect to achieve high scores with a low effort from exams or tasks that require performance. Instead of focusing on their work and performance, students with AE concentrate more on what instructors or university management should and should not do for them (Chowning & Campbell, 2009). They expect to leave class early or to be tolerated for being late for class, to be given additional exams to compensate for the exams they cannot take, and to postpone the deadlines for the assignments (Greenberger et al., 2008). These attitudes are also reflected in the students' relationships with the instructors. Students with an inflated sense of entitlement may be more likely to complain about their grades or to demand special treatment from their instructors (Kopp et al., 2011). Accordingly, they place the responsibility for their learning on the trainers rather than themselves (Lippman et al., 2009).

\*CONTACT: Adem KANTAR ✉ [adem.kantar@erzurum.edu.tr](mailto:adem.kantar@erzurum.edu.tr) 📍 Erzurum Technical University, Faculty of Letters, Department of Psychology, Erzurum, Türkiye

The effects of the increase in AE are reflected in the educational environment as incompatible characteristics. Students with high levels of academic entitlement tend not to see cheating in exams as an ethical problem (Elias, 2017) and tend to argue with the instructors against their grades due to their performance (Ciani et al., 2008). Studies have shown that AE is positively related to the use of mobile phones during courses (Boswell, 2012). It has been found that AE is associated with the use of mobile phones in the classroom much more strongly than nomophobia (Bhattacharya et al., 2019), which is defined as the fear of disconnection from communication established through mobile phones which considerably affects the use of mobile phones (Reysen et al., 2020). As AE and academic achievement are negatively correlated (Bonaccio et al., 2016; Yan et al., 2021), entitled students tend to exploit and manipulate the efforts of other students (Morrow, 1994; Greenberger et al., 2008). This characteristic of AE, which disrupts the classroom teaching environment, student-instructor interaction, and student-student communication, can potentially harm the value of university education (Morrow, 1994). It is concerning that AE attitudes erode the value of achievement in postsecondary degree attainment through various mechanisms, such as oversimplifying course content or awarding points for non-achievement outcomes such as course attendance. This way, a college degree is made accessible to a wide range of students who may not be deserving. The involvement of people without qualified education in business life deteriorates the quality of work and negatively affects people's well-being (Jack & Donnellan, 2010). To better understand academic entitlement, it seems necessary to consider the concept of entitlement.

### **1.1. Entitlement and Academic Entitlement (AE)**

Most social situations are reciprocity-based (West et al., 2007). Efforts and investments are made to achieve the desired outcome. Entitlement is one's expectation of receiving more than what one gives (Harvey & Martinko, 2008). Entitlement means "unreasonable expectations, especially regarding favorable treatment, or the expectation of automatic submission to one's expectations" (Neville & Fisk, 2019; Harvey & Martinko, 2008). Entitlement is not a prediction that one will achieve a particular outcome but the belief that one should "already" reach a particular outcome (Kopp et al., 2011). Individuals' expectations of high levels of rewards, regardless of their ability and performance levels, is a relatively stable and universal phenomenon (Harvey & Harris, 2010).

AE is a structure that exclusively reflects the manifestation of entitlement in academic situations even though it relates to the idea of non-contextual entitlement (Chowning & Campbell, 2009). Researchers do not distinguish AE from non-contextual entitlement and see entitlement as a component of narcissism (Solomon & Leven, 1987). Accordingly, self-entitled individuals have a sense of superiority and do not need to strive for what others have to strive for because of their excellence (Greenberger et al., 2008). Self-entitled individuals frequently react with anger rather than dissatisfaction when they anticipate a specific result but don't obtain it (Greenberger et al., 2008). Accordingly, it has been determined that entitlement has a positive relationship with hostility, domination, relationship issues, assault, malicious purpose, greed, and stealing other people's property (Campbell et al., 2004). People who have a high sense of entitlement are less likely to forgive and more prone to harbor resentments (Exline et al., 2004). Researchers considering AE as a different structure than non-contextual entitlement suggest that context is essential (Chowning & Campbell, 2009). Students who expect AE may not internalize entitlement in their relationships with their families and peers (Chowning & Campbell, 2009). While people who expect to be entitled in a way that is not context-specific may behave in this way due to the sense of superiority they feel towards others, people who are entitled in an academic context believe that they or their families deserve tolerance because they pay tuition fees (Kopp et al., 2011). AE is positively correlated with perceived competence in the course (Boswell, 2012), self-regulated learning skills (Bonaccio et al., 2016), high socioeconomic status (Côté et al., 2021), external locus of control (Sohr-Proston & Boswell, 2015; Bonaccio

et al., 2016), and academic unreliability (Sohr-Preston & Boswell, 2015). It was observed that AE was higher among students in private universities than in public universities (Kumari & Gautam, 2022). This situation is explained as the creditor-customer understanding brought about by tuition fee payment (Kopp et al., 2011).

## 1.2. Measurement of Academic Entitlement

Due to the unfavorable psychological and interpersonal consequences of AE, there was a need to measure the AE structure with high validity and reliability. For this reason, scales measuring AE were developed by various researchers (Achacaso, 2006; Aksoy & Coban-Sural, 2022; Greenberger et al., 2008; Chowning & Campbell, 2009; Kopp et al., 2011; Wasieleski et al., 2014). These scales are terms regarding of the definition and conceptualization of AE and their validity and reliability levels. For example, not all items in the Academic Entitlement Scale developed by Achacaso (2006) are attitudes and behaviors that reflect academic entitlement. Additional research should be conducted to assess the suitability of the items. Wasieleski et al. (2014) and the scale developed by Greenberger et al. (2008), the construct validity of the scale was not analyzed. Therefore, it is not known whether the items reflect one or more dimensions. Another scale, Kopp et al. (2011), is theoretically well structured and has good construct validity. However, the authors of the scale state that the scale needs an additional dimension within the scope of student's incivilization. The scale, developed by Kopp et al. (2011), was adapted to Turkish by Kurtyılmaz (2019). In this adaptation, the Cronbach Alpha value of the scale was found to be 0.69, which indicates that the scale is moderately reliable in terms of consistency (Kılıç, 2016). In addition, three items in the original scale were removed from the adapted scale, and the original structure of the scale was changed. Measurement experts do not find it appropriate to remove items from the original scale in adaptation studies (Yalçın, 2021). Therefore, it is unknown whether the scale adapted by Kurtyılmaz (2019) accurately measures the AE structure. In addition, the Academic Entitlement Expectation Scale was developed by Aksoy and Coban-Sural (2022) in the Turkish sample. The validity and reliability values of the scale are good (between .68 and .83). The Academic Entitlement Expectation Scale is a four-dimensional, 21-item scale. The dimensions of the scale include academic narcissism, individual entitlement expectations, general entitlement expectations and externalized responsibility dimensions. This scale has been newly introduced into Turkish and has not yet been used in other Turkish samples other than the sample for which it was developed. The measurement tool Chowning and Campbell (2009) developed is a frequently used scale in the international literature to measure the concept of academic entitlement. The scale is structured in the context of student's incivilization. Its internal validity is high, and its construct validity has been achieved. Its structure in Turkish has not yet been confirmed.

Gender is among the demographic variables frequently used in the field of educational sciences and psychology. In studies conducted on the concept of academic entitlement, gender differences have been frequently examined in the literature, and it was determined that academic entitlement differs between genders (Boswell, 2012; Sohr-Proston & Boswell, 2015; Kumari & Gautam, 2022). Many studies indicate that entitlement is more common and high in male students than female students (Aksoy & Coban-Sural, 2022; Hill & Fischer, 2001; Ciani et al., 2008; Boswell, 2012; Sohr-Proston & Boswell, 2015; Kumari & Gautam, 2022). To see whether the level of academic entitlement will differ significantly according to gender in future studies, this study aims to examine the measurement invariance of the scale according to gender. Measurement invariance refers to the examination of whether the characteristics of a scale are invariant in different groups. Besides, a scale with measurement invariance can objectively measure the characteristics of subgroups. For this reason, on a scale with measurement invariance, it can be seen that the differences obtained between the groups are not caused by the measurement tool but rather by individuals (Wicherts, 2007). In this respect, measurement invariance is a validity test (Basusta & Gelbal, 2015). When it comes to the concept of academic

entitlement, it is important whether the mean scores obtained from the scale differ according to gender. Studies in the literature report that men have higher academic entitlement score averages than women (Keith et al., 2008; Sohr-Preston & Boswell, 2015). When the literature on this subject was examined, it was seen that no study exists examining the measurement invariance related to AE by gender. For this reason, it is necessary to examine whether AE has a measurement invariance regarding gender differences.

### 1.3. Current Study

When the concept of academic entitlement was first examined, it was thought that it was a phenomenon belonging to North America and the West. However, recent studies have started to reveal the universal nature of academic entitlement (Blincoe & Garris, 2017). Studies conducted in different countries on this subject indicate that AE is not only in a certain group or field; indicates that it can be seen universally and in all educational environments (e.g., Aksoy & Sural, 2022; Kantar et al., 2023; Pilotti et al., 2022; Reysen et al., 2022; Yan et al., 2021; Zarei, 2022). This shows that the measured construct has the same meaning in all cultures compared. The Academic Entitlement Scale (Chowning & Campbell, 2009), which is planned to be adapted within the scope of this study, was developed in the US culture. The USA is the place where the concept of equity was first examined in terms of education (Dubovsky, 1986) and is rich in academic equity literature. In other words, studies shaping the structure of the concept of AE were conducted in the USA (Achacaso, 2006; Greenberger et al., 2008; Chowning & Campbell, 2009; Kopp et al., 2011; Wasieleski et al., 2014). The Academic Entitlement Scale developed by Kopp et al. (2011), which was previously adapted from the US culture to Turkish, was also developed in the US culture, and in the adaptation study (Kurtyılmaz, 2019), it was seen that it also has an equivalent in Turkish culture. In summary, since the structure to be measured is the same in both cultures, it is appropriate to conduct adaptation studies (Hambleton & Patsula, 1999). Besides, the sample for the scale was selected from a university in Oklahoma, USA. The participants in the sample are international, representing many different races and cultures, such as Caucasian, Black, Native American, Asian, and Hispanic. Intercultural examinations enable understanding the structure of AE in all aspects and identifying the sources of intercultural differences. Detailed examinations are needed to determine the extent to which AE is seen in Türkiye and the extent to which the proper functioning of the education system is affected. In addition, the Academic Entitlement Expectation Scale was developed by Aksoy and Coban-Sural (2022) in the Turkish sample. The dimensions of the scale include the academic narcissism dimension in addition to the entitled expectations and externalized responsibility dimensions in the scale of Chowning and Campbell (2009). However, comparing cross-cultural characteristics with the same measurement tool structure is more effective in making cultural inferences (Hambleton & Patsula, 1999). Additionally, researchers have more confidence in a well-known measurement tool than a newly developed one (Hambleton & Patsula, 1999). For this reason, there is a need to adapt a measurement tool frequently used in the literature to Turkish. However, due to significant differences and deficiencies in the measurement and conceptualization of AE in existing scales, it is unclear whether AE is assessed appropriately or accurately. Therefore, this study aimed to adapt the Academic Entitlement Scale (Chowning & Campbell, 2009) to the Turkish culture. In this regard, the research questions of the study are as follows:

#### 1. Validity of Factor Structure and Item Loadings:

- How valid are the Academic Entitlement Scale's factor structures and item loadings in the context of its adaptation to Turkish culture?
- To what extent do the correlations between the scale and criterion variables demonstrate statistical significance?

#### 2. Reliability Across Sub-Dimensions:

- What is the level of internal consistency within the adapted Academic Entitlement Scale

- How does internal consistency fluctuate across various sub-dimensions of the scale?

### 3. Measurement Invariance and Structural Consistency Across Gender:

- To what degree is the adapted Academic Entitlement Scale measurement invariant across different gender groups, namely females and males?
- How does structural consistency within the scale's sub-dimensions vary between these gender groups?

## 2. METHOD

This section provides information on the research design, research sample, data collection tools, data collection process, and data analysis procedures.

### 2.1. Research Design and Participants

This study was conducted with a quantitative research method and a relational research design. The study participants were convenience sampled. Convenience sampling selects participants based on their availability and proximity to the researcher. Convenience sampling prioritizes participant accessibility over study objectives (Campbell et al., 2020). When determining the study's sample size, the researchers considered the following rules that are generally accepted in confirmatory factor analysis studies: (1) a minimum of 10 participants per item (Bentler & Chou, 1987), or (2) a minimum sample size of 200 (Kline, 1994). Considering that the scale used in the study consists of 15 items, the sample size selected following these rules increases the study's statistical power.

372 university students participated in the research. Of these, 36% ( $n = 135$ ) were first-year undergraduate students, 28% ( $n = 104$ ) were second-year undergraduate students, 21% ( $n = 79$ ) were language preparatory class students, and 15% ( $n = 55$ ) were third- and fourth-year undergraduate students. The participants' ages ranged from 18 to 54 ( $\bar{X} = 20.90$ ,  $s = 2.85$ ). 303 participants (81.5%) were female, and 69 (18.5%) were male. The majority of participants (63.4%) self-identified as socioeconomically middle class.

### 2.2. Process

We followed the steps outlined by Hambleton and Patsula (1999) for the translation of the scale items from English to Turkish and then from Turkish to English, culminating in a final translation back to Turkish. This process involved consulting with a team comprising experts in measurement, language, educational sciences, and psychology, all proficient in Turkish and English. Initially, we translated the scale items from English to Turkish. During this phase, we collectively requested revisions from the experts related to the scale's second, third, and fifth items. Following the consensus of the experts, we updated the items. In the second phase, we performed the reverse translation of the scale from the target language back to the original language. At this stage, we asked the experts to evaluate whether there were any differences in meaning, clarity, and grammar between the first and second versions of the scale for each item. We asked the experts to score the differences between the versions on a scale of 0 to 10. The experts unanimously agreed that the two forms of the scale were similar. After this phase, we conducted a final translation process from English to Turkish, akin to the first step. Experts in language, psychology, educational sciences, and measurement independently reviewed the final Turkish version of the scale. The experts collectively reported that the items were consistent with the original items regarding meaning, clarity, and grammar. We have presented the final version of the scale in [Appendix](#). To ensure clarity, understandability, and grammatical correctness, the trial form of the Turkish version of the scale was presented to 10 undergraduate students before the data collection phase began. After the students' feedback was evaluated, the data collection phase commenced to assess the scale's construct validity. The research participants were university students in Türkiye, the same population as the scale's original sample (Chowning & Campbell, 2009). Participants participated in the study on an online

survey platform. Participants were informed about the study with an informed online consent form before they participated in the study. The research data were obtained in the fall semester of the 2021-2022 academic year. It took approximately 10 minutes for each participant to complete the research form. Permission was obtained from the researchers who developed the scale to adapt the Academic Entitlement Scale to Turkish. Ethics committee approval of the study was obtained from a state university in Türkiye (approval number: 10/5). The collection, analysis, interpretation, and storage of research data adhered to the Helsinki Declaration on Human Rights.

## **2.3 Data Collection Tools**

### **2.3.1. Personal information form**

The personal Information Form was developed by the researchers in order to determine the demographic characteristics of the participants, such as gender, socioeconomic level, age, and class. The participants filled in the personal information form after the informed consent form during the data collection process.

### **2.3.2. Academic entitlement scale (AES)**

AES was developed by Chowning and Campbell (2009), and it measures a person's propensity to expect success without a sense of personal responsibility. AES is a seven-point Likert-type scale consisting of two factors and 15 items. The total score of Academic Entitlement is obtained by summing the scores of both factors. According to the confirmatory factor analysis findings performed to test the construct validity of the scale, it was reported that the structure consisting of two factors with 15 items was confirmed ( $\chi^2 = 410.08$ ,  $GFI = .938$ ,  $CFI = .897$ ,  $RMSEA = .064$ ). Regarding the reliability analysis of the scale, the internal consistency Cronbach Alpha coefficient value for the 10-item Externalized Responsibility sub-dimension was found to be .81 and for the five-item Entitled Expectations sub-dimension, .62 (Chowning & Campbell, 2009). The externalized responsibility sub-dimension was found to be positively related to narcissism, grandiosity, and entitlement (Chowning & Campbell, 2009).

### **2.3.3. Rosenberg self-esteem scale (RSES)**

The scale developed by Rosenberg (1965) is used to determine the self-esteem levels of individuals. The scale was adapted to Turkish by Çuhadaroğlu (1986). This study used the 10-item Self-Esteem subscale of the scale consisting of 63 items and 12 subscales. The Cronbach Alpha internal consistency coefficient for the self-esteem subscale was found to be .785 in the current study.

### **2.3.4. Narcissistic personality inventory (NPI)**

NPI was developed by Raskin and Terry (1998) as a 40-item scale. Later, the revised scale was rearranged to 16 items to reduce the errors caused by the participants and the time taken to complete it (Ames et al., 2006). Higher scores on the scale indicate higher narcissistic tendencies. The last version of the NPI was adapted to Turkish by Atay (2009). Cronbach Alpha coefficient of the scale was reported as .66 by Atay (2009). In this study, the Cronbach Alpha coefficient was found to be .71.

### **2.3.5. Locus of control scale (LCS)**

The LCS scale was developed by Dağ (2002) to test the validity and reliability of university students. The scale consists of 47 items and five sub-dimensions. A total score can be obtained from the scale. While the high scores obtained from the scale represent an increase in external locus of control, the low scores obtained from the scale indicate an increase in internal locus of control. The Cronbach Alpha internal consistency coefficient of the locus of control scale was found to be .842 for the present study sample.

## 2.4. Preparing Data and Applying Statistical Tests

Analysis of the adaptation of the scale to Turkish culture was carried out in several stages. First, it was examined whether the research data were suitable for statistical analysis, such as confirmatory factor analysis. For this reason, missing values, outliers, and normality assumptions were examined, respectively (Çokluk et al., 2018; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). In this context, outliers were examined via Mahalanobis Distance Value, Z standard score, and box-line graphs. Normal distribution examinations of scale items were examined through Skewness/Kurtosis coefficients and histogram graphs (Hair et al., 2014; Harrington, 2009; Pallant, 2005). The findings of the research affirm that all variables exhibit a normal distribution. The obtained correlation matrix substantiates the multicollinearity assumption by indicating significant correlations among variables. Additionally, examinations through scatter plots also validate that the data set fulfills the assumptions of homoscedasticity and linearity. In light of all these evaluations, the data set has been deemed suitable for confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and has met the prerequisites for conducting the analyses.

Secondly, validity and reliability analysis of the AES were performed. For the reliability analysis of the scale, the Cronbach Alpha internal consistency coefficient was calculated, and the binary correlations of the scale items with the scale total scores were examined. The validity analysis of the scale examined whether the structure consisting of fifteen items and two factors was confirmed by confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). In addition, the scale of measurement invariance based on gender was tested by Multiple Group Confirmatory Factor Analysis (MG-CFA). The relationship between the Academic Entitlement Scale and the criterion variables was examined with the Pearson Correlation Test.

SPSS 26.0 and RStudio statistical programs were used to analyze the data. SemTools (Jorgensen et al., 2021) and lavaan (Rosseel, 2012) packages were used for CFA and MG-CFA.

## 3. FINDINGS

During our study, we found some important results. These outcomes, based on careful analysis, highlight the main goals of our research. Below are the key findings from our study:

### 3.1. Descriptive Statistics Regarding the Academic Entitlement Scale

Descriptive statistics such as mean, standard deviation, and Skewness/Kurtosis coefficients related to the academic entitlement scale's items are presented in [Table 1](#).

**Table 1.** Descriptive statistics of the academic entitlement scale items.

Items	<i>n</i>	$\bar{X} \pm s$	Skewness	Kurtosis
I1	372	4.58 ± 1.85	-.55	-.67
I2	372	4.41 ± 1.86	-.49	-.75
I3	372	4.85 ± 1.68	-.70	-.11
I4	372	3.78 ± 2.35	.23	-1.58
I5	372	3.77 ± 2.29	.20	-1.54
I6	372	4.34 ± 1.74	-.45	-.62
I7	372	4.69 ± 1.75	-.68	-.21
I8	372	3.69 ± 2.52	.28	-1.68
I9	372	3.95 ± 2.47	.13	-1.72
I10	372	4.58 ± 1.80	-.53	-.71
I11*	372	4.36 ± 1.81	-.33	-.86
I12	372	3.85 ± 2.12	-.05	-1.40
I13	372	4.59 ± 1.64	-.41	-.49
I14	372	4.14 ± 2.52	.02	-1.77
I15	372	4.51 ± 1.67	-.63	-.35

Note. \* = reverse item.

I4, I5, I8, I9, and I14, related to the items of AES presented in Table 2, represent the self-entitled expectations factor, while the remaining items represent the externalized responsibility factor. Accordingly, while the item with the highest average was I3 among the scale items, the item with the lowest average was determined as I8.

When the Skewness and Kurtosis coefficient values taken for the normal distribution of the scale items were examined, it was determined that the items I4, I5, I8, I9, I12, and I14 were not in the  $\pm 1$  range (Hair et al., 2014; Harrington, 2009; Pallant, 2005). In this context, it was decided to perform CFA analysis with the diagonally weighted least squares (DWLS) estimation method used in samples that do not conform to normal distribution (Kline, 2015; Mindrila, 2010; Schumacker & Beyerlein, 2000).

### 3.2. Findings Regarding the Structural Validity of AES

Confirmatory factor analysis was performed to determine whether AES had a structure similar to the original scale in Turkish culture. The analyses were carried out through *semTools* (Jorgensen et al., 2021) and *lavaan* (Rosseel, 2012) packages in the RStudio program. DWLS (diagonally weighted least squares) was used as the estimation method in CFA. The DWLS method is used when the multivariate normality requirement is not met for scale items, and better parameter estimates are made with the DWLS method under these conditions (Kline, 2015; Mindrila, 2010; Schumacker & Beyerlein, 2000). Therefore, the DWLS method was preferred as the estimation method in CFA because the Skewness and Kurtosis coefficients of the scale items were not in the range of  $\pm 1$  (Hair et al., 2014; Harrington, 2009; Pallant, 2005). In the literature, many goodness of fit indices are used in the evaluation of CFA results. The criterion values of the goodness of fit indices used are presented in Table 2.

**Table 2.** Fit indices and standard fit criteria for the proposed model.

Fit Indices	Excellent	Acceptable	Estimated Model
$\chi^2/df$ <sub>1</sub>	$\leq 3$	$\leq 5$	3.21
RMSEA <sub>2</sub>	$\leq .05$	$\leq .08$	.07
SRMR <sub>3</sub>	$\leq .05$	$\leq .08$	.07
CFI <sub>3</sub>	$\geq .95$	$\geq .90$	.98
TLI <sub>3</sub>	$\geq .95$	$\geq .90$	.98
GFI <sub>3</sub>	$\geq .95$	$\geq .90$	.98
AGFI <sub>3</sub>	$\geq .95$	$\geq .90$	.98

Note. <sup>1</sup> = Kline (2015), <sup>2</sup> = Browne & Cudeck (1993), <sup>3</sup> = Baumgartner & Homburg (1996); Marsh et al., (2006); Sumer (2000); Byrene (2010).

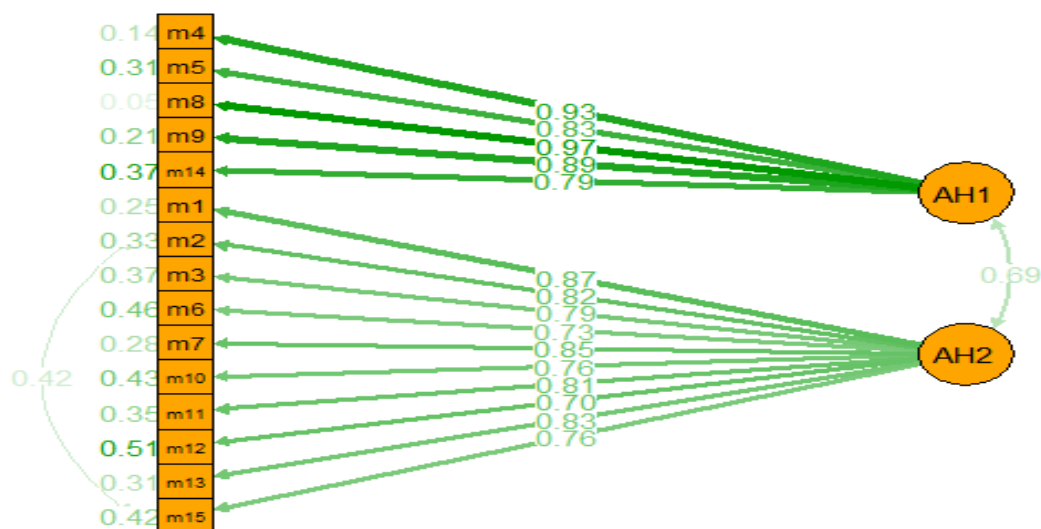
CFA analysis was performed to confirm the two-factor structure of the Academic Entitlement Scale consisting of 15 items. When the first results were examined,  $\chi^2 = 289.548$  ( $p < .05$ ),  $df = 89$  and  $\chi^2/df = 3.25$  were found. However, *CFI*, *GFI*, *AGFI*, and *TLI* values were found to be above .90. It can be stated that the relevant values are acceptable according to the criteria specified in the literature. In contrast, *SRMR* and *RMSEA* values were found to be above .08. Since the relevant values were not within acceptable ranges, model modification indices were examined.

The RStudio program proposed the creation of covariance between items I2 (reverse matter) and I15. When the items in the scale were examined, it was seen that item I2 was "It is my responsibility to reach the course notes if I miss the lesson." and item I15 was "Teachers are only workers who get paid to teach." When the items were examined, a modification was applied based on the fact that both items were similar in structure, could be interpreted similarly, perceived similarly, and the responses to these items could be similar. The values after modification were found as  $\chi^2 = 283.008$  ( $p < .05$ ),  $df = 88$  and  $\chi^2/df = 3.21$ . However, as



presented in Table 2, while RMSEA and SRMR values were in the acceptable range, CFI, GFI, AGFI, and TLI values were found to be in the perfect fit range. In light of what was reported, it can be said that the structure examined by confirmatory factor analysis was confirmed. Standardized factor loads of the verified structure are presented in Figure 1.

**Figure 1.** Academic entitlement scale standardized factor loads.



When Figure 1 was examined, it was seen that the standardized factor loads of AES vary between .93 to .70. However, it was observed that the item that contributed the most to the externalized responsibility factor was I1. On the other hand, it was determined that the item that contributed the least to the externalized responsibility factor was I12.

It was determined that the item that contributed the most to the sub-dimension of Self-entitled Expectations was I4, while the item that contributed the least was I12. However, between the factors of Externalized Responsibility (AH2) and Entitled Expectations (AH1), there was a positive, moderate, significant covariance factor load coefficient (.69).

### 3.3. Measurement Invariance Results

After verifying the structure of academic entitlement, whether this model is invariable for female and male university students was tested with MG-CFA. The results of the tested invariance stages are presented in Table 3.

**Table 3.** Compliance statistics regarding measurement invariance stages.

	Formal Invariance	Metric Invariance	Scale Invariance	Solid Invariance
$\chi^2$	317.23	336.34	340.20	344.07
$\chi^2/df$	1.78	1.76	1.66	1.57
TLI	.990	.990	.991	.993
RMSEA	.065	.064	.060	.056
SRMR	.071	.073	.074	.074
CFI	.991	.991	.992	.992
$\Delta CFI$	-	.000	.001	.001
$\Delta SRMR$	-	.003	.000	.000
$\Delta \chi^2$	-	$p > .05$	$p > .05$	$p > .05$

Table 3 presents the findings of the MG-CFA analysis. In light of these MG-CFA findings, measurement invariance was examined in a four-stage process. Accordingly, the goodness of fit values of the model established at each stage should comply with acceptable criteria. The

acceptable goodness of fit indices stated in the literature are presented in Table 2. In addition, in order to provide evidence for the measurement invariance steps, the difference between the more limited models and the formal models is compared, and the difference regarding the fit coefficients is examined ( $\Delta CFI$ ,  $\Delta SRMR$ ). Cheung and Rensvold (2002) recommend examining the  $\Delta CFI$  value when comparing between models. According to this proposition, it is desired that the comparison  $\Delta CFI$  value should be between -0.01 and +0.01. Similarly, Chen (2007) stated that 0.030 changes can be accepted for the  $\Delta SRMR$  value as well as the 0.01 change in the  $\Delta CFI$  value.

In light of what has been transferred, the values in Table 3 can be interpreted as follows at each stage. As a result of the MG-CFA analysis conducted to test formal invariance, fit indices showed that this stage met the necessary criteria ( $\chi^2/df = 1.78$ ,  $CFI = .99$ ,  $TLI = .99$ ,  $RMSEA = .065$  and  $SRMR = .071$ ). The achievement of formal invariance means that the measured structures were the same between the groups. In other words, it shows that female and male university students used the same conceptual perspectives when answering scale items.

The metric invariance step was examined by interpreting the fit indices of MG-CFA and the  $\Delta CFI$  value obtained as a result of the CFI difference test. The goodness of fit indices for metric invariance ( $\chi^2/df = 1.76$ ,  $CFI = .99$ ,  $TLI = .99$ ,  $RMSEA = .065$  and  $SRMR = .071$ ) adjust well. To obtain evidence that metric invariance was achieved,  $\Delta CFI$ ,  $\Delta SRMR$ ,  $\Delta\chi^2$  difference values between the formal invariance model were examined. It was revealed that  $\Delta\chi^2$  value should not be significant,  $\Delta CFI$  value should be between -0.01 and +0.01, and  $\Delta SRMR$  value should be between -0.03 and +0.03 to ensure metric invariance (Chen, 2007; Cheung & Rensvold, 2002). When Table 4 was examined, it was seen that the calculated values met the specified criteria. In this context, it can be interpreted that metric invariance was provided. By providing metric invariance, it can be said that the factor loadings of the academic entitlement scale were equal in the gender subgroups. This scale can be interpreted similarly in the gender subgroups.

Following the metric invariance, the values related to the scale invariance were examined. Similar to the previous step, the fit indices of the model established for scale invariance were first evaluated. It was determined that the goodness of fit indices calculated during the scale invariance model stage were well adjusted. In addition,  $\Delta CFI$  and  $\Delta SRMR$  values were examined. After the evaluations, it was concluded that there was no bias based on items for male and female university students. More specifically, it was accepted that the fixed number in the regression equations created for the items was invariant between the groups. In the final stage of measurement invariance, evidence of solid invariance was examined. For this purpose, the goodness of fit indices and  $\Delta CFI$  and  $\Delta SRMR$  values of the established solid invariance model were examined. In the examinations, it was determined that the indices of the established model fit well, and the  $\Delta CFI$  and  $\Delta SRMR$  difference fit values of the strict invariance model comply with the criteria specified in the literature (Chen, 2007; Cheung & Rensvold, 2002).

When the findings obtained are evaluated as a whole, the average scores obtained from the academic entitlement scale do not show a bias according to gender. In other words, the differences between the mean scores of male and female university students on the scale are not the structure of the scale but the differences arising from individuals. Therefore, the mean scores obtained from the scale can be compared significantly by gender.

### 3.4. Examination of AES Reliability Analysis

The reliability analysis of AES was performed with the Cronbach Alpha internal consistency coefficient. Accordingly, the Cronbach Alpha value for the entitled expectations (AH1) factor was determined as .95. In contrast, the Cronbach Alpha value for the externalized responsibility factor was found to be .94. Similarly, the internal consistency analysis for the whole scale was found as .94. In this regard, it can be understood that AES is a perfectly reliable scale with its sub-dimensions (Fraenkel et al., 2012).

In the AES item-total test correlation examinations, the total score of the scale items was found to be correlated in the range of .70 to .83. Thus, it can be stated that each item has a strong positive relationship with the scale total score.

### 3.5. Theoretical Framing of Academic Entitlement

This section includes the binary relationship of the concept of academic entitlement with the frequently studied criterion variables in the literature. The relationships between the variables were examined with the Pearson Correlation test. The findings are presented in Table 4.

**Table 4.** Examination of binary relationships between academic entitlement and criterion variables.

Criterion Variables	Entitled Expectations	Externalized Responsibility	Academic Entitlement
Self-esteem	-.035	-.215*	-.152*
Narcissism	-.010	.216*	.131
Locus of Control	.033	.105*	.106*

Note. \* $p < .05$ . Externalized responsibility represents the individual's level of avoidance of responsibility in the education process. On the other hand, entitled expectations express the individual's high expectations for the courses and professors in their favor. The total score of Academic Entitlement is obtained by summing the scores of both factors.

Table 4 shows the binary relationship of the Academic Entitlement variable with the criterion variables. Accordingly, self-esteem is negatively related to academic entitlement ( $r = -.152$ ,  $p < .05$ ). In addition, externalized responsibility is significantly negatively related to self-esteem ( $r = -.215$ ,  $p < .05$ ). There was no significant relationship between self-esteem and entitled expectations ( $p > .05$ ).

While narcissism was significantly positively related to the externalized responsibility sub-dimension ( $r = .216$ ,  $p < .05$ ), it was not significantly related to entitled expectations and academic entitlement ( $p > .05$ ). While the locus of control was significantly positively related to externalized responsibility ( $r = .105$ ,  $p < .05$ ) and academic entitlement ( $r = .106$ ,  $p < .05$ ) it did not have a significant relationship with entitled expectations.

## 4. DISCUSSION and CONCLUSION

In this study, AES developed by Chowning and Campbell (2009) was adapted to Turkish. For many reasons, scale adaptation was preferred instead of scale development in this study. First of all, Chowning and Campbell's (2009) AES is a well-known measurement tool used in many studies in the literature (e.g., Boswell, 2012; Cain et al., 2012; El-Alayli et al., 2018). Measurement tools that are well-known in the literature provide a greater sense of security than newly created measurement tools (Hambleton & Patsula, 1999). Second, adapting an instrument is often much cheaper and faster than developing one (Hambleton & Patsula, 1999). In this respect, it aimed to quickly translate Chowning and Campbell's (2009) AES into Turkish and to bring a comprehensive view to the problem by examining current problems in Turkish culture. Finally, since it was aimed to determine the universal structure of the concept of academic entitlement and thus to be able to make cross-country evaluation, scale adaptation was preferred instead of scale development in the study.

There are many positive aspects in adapting this scale. First, in the data analysis, it was found that the internal consistency of the Academic Entitlement Scale was excellent (Cronbach alpha: .94). In addition to the total scale, the consistency of the subscales is also quite high (entitled expectations Cronbach alpha: .95; externalized responsibility Cronbach alpha: .94). In the original scale, the Cronbach alpha internal consistency coefficient for the *externalized responsibility* sub-factor was found to be .81. For the *entitled expectations* sub-factor, it was .64. In this respect, it can be stated that the internal consistency of the adapted scale is similar to the original scale. Second, in the confirmatory factor analysis, after the modification procedures recommended by the RStudio program, it was found that the model fit indices of the 15-item,

two-dimensional Academic Entitlement Scale showed acceptable fit ( $\chi^2/df$ : 3.21; RMSEA: .07; SRMR = .07; CFI: .98; GFI: .98; AGFI: .98; TLI: .98). These results showed that the adapted scale was consistent with the number of items and dimensions in the original scale. Third, the validity of the measurement invariance of the adapted scale in terms of gender was also examined. It was found that the scale met the condition of measurement invariance according to the gender variable. Accordingly, it can be said that the differences between the mean scores of female and male university students are not the structure of the scale but the differences arising from the individuals; therefore, it can be understood that the mean scores obtained from the scale can be compared significantly according to gender.

Other scales measure academic entitlement in Turkish culture. These scales are the Academic Entitlement Questionnaire (AEQ) adapted by Kurtyılmaz (2018) and the Academic Entitlement Expectation Scale (AEES) developed by Aksoy and Coban-Sural (2022). Chowning and Campbell's (2009) AES, adapted in this study, showed that, like other academic entitlement scales in Turkish, the academic entitlement structure is also present in Turkish culture. For example, the structure of AEQ is RMSEA=0.04, SRMR=0.03, GFI=0.99, AGFI=0.98, CFI=0.99, NNFI=0.98; The structure of AEES has fit index values of RMSEA 0.054, NFI 0.93, NNFI 0.95, CFI 0.96, SRMR 0.06, GFI 0.91, AGFI 0.89. The standardized pattern coefficients of the scale structure of AEQ are between 0.38 and 0.73, and of AEES are between .38 and .81. In this study, AES's standardized pattern coefficients are between .70 and .93. In addition, the Cronbach alpha internal reliability coefficients of the AES (entitled expectations Cronbach alpha: .95; externalized responsibility Cronbach alpha: .94) adapted within the scope of this study are higher than those of AEQ (.66) and AEES (between .68 and .83). All three scales determined that academic entitlement can be measured validly and reliably in Turkish culture.

In this study, it was found that academic entitlement was negatively correlated with self-esteem ( $r = -.152, p < .05$ ). There are some findings in the literature that reveal that self-esteem and self-efficacy and academic entitlement are positively related (Boswell, 2012; Whatley et al., 2019). However, many studies also state that narcissism masks low self-esteem and that high self-esteem and narcissism are two opposite measures of a positive self-image (Baumeister et al., 2000; Bosson et al., 2008). From this point of view, the negative relationship between low self-esteem in this study and academic entitlement seems to be compatible with the narcissism literature. According to the other finding in this study, narcissism was significantly positively correlated with the externalized responsibility sub-dimension ( $r = .216, p < .05$ ). At the same time, it was not significantly related to entitled expectations and academic entitlement ( $p > .05$ ). Similar studies have also revealed the relationship between narcissism and academic entitlement (Turnipseed & Cohen, 2012; Whatley et al., 2019). It is thought that the relationship between narcissism and academic entitlement with dishonest academic behaviors may be due to attitudes that exploit people (Menon & Sharland, 2011). While the locus of control was significantly positively related to externalized responsibility ( $r = .105, p < .05$ ) and academic entitlement ( $r = .106, p < .05$ ), it did not have a significant relationship with entitled expectations. According to research on self-serving biases, many people tend to attribute success to internal factors such as the abilities they possess, and the perseverance they show, while attributing failure to external factors such as other people and coercive conditions (Zuckerman, 1979). The externalized responsibility factor of academic entitlement is related to the self-serving judgments of entitled students. The scale includes items that attribute responsibilities to factors such as university administration, lecturers, and classmates for their academic failure. The lack of a relationship between entitled expectations and narcissism may be because people's attitudes may be inconsistent with their behaviors (Wilson et al., 1989). While the participants disagree with the items at the behavioral level associated with narcissistic tendencies, they may tend to agree with the items related to attitude. From this point of view, while the externalized responsibility factor explaining academic entitlement through behavioral items was related to narcissism, the entitled expectations were not. The concept of entitled expectations refers to

individuals' rights regarding the course and rules. Accordingly, since the study participants stated that they did not expect any privilege for themselves in teaching the lessons at the attitude level, there may not have been a relationship with narcissism in the dimension of entitled expectations. However, since they may show a pattern of holding others responsible for the consequences of their behavior, they may have found a relationship with narcissism in the externalized responsibility dimension.

AE is associated with decreasing academic success in the university student population, damaging the belief in justice in academic environments, and deteriorating the quality of education (Bonaccio et al., 2016; Greenberger et al., 2008; Yan et al., 2021). In addition, it is known that students with high levels of AE have unrealistic expectations in their business lives (vanWieirngen et al, 2013). This study on the quantitative measurement of AE can potentially improve the academic environment on a class and country basis. Because this measurement tool can be used to reveal a student's beliefs about academic rights. Defining and evaluating AE in the university student population can also enable students to develop functional strategies to positively affect their success.

The study has some limitations as well as its contributions to the field. First of all, of the 372 university students participating in the study, 69 were male, and the remaining 303 were female. The participant groups of the study are not equal or close to each other in number by gender. Despite our efforts to achieve balanced gender representation, the voluntary nature of participation and the specific demographics of the population from which we drew our sample resulted in an imbalance. To mitigate the impact of this imbalance, we have conducted statistical adjustments, including an analysis of measurement invariance by gender. Based on the measurement invariance analyses, we have concluded that the scale can be used in both the female and male groups.

In addition, Cronbach Alpha internal consistency analysis was calculated for the reliability analyses. In addition, the sub-dimensions of the academic entitlement scale and their binary correlations with the criterion variables were examined. However, pre-and post-test reliability data were not collected and analyzed for the reliability analysis of the scale. Future studies may analyze the test-retest reliability of the scale. Finally, the AES measurement invariance according to gender was examined. Future studies may focus on measurement invariance for other demographic variables.

### Acknowledgments

The authors wish to state that no financial support was received for this article's research, authorship, or publication. The initial findings of this study were presented by the first author at the Xth International Eurasian Educational Research Congress (EJER), held from June 8–11, 2023.

### Declaration of Conflicting Interests and Ethics

The authors declare no conflict of interest. This research study complies with research publishing ethics. The scientific and legal responsibility for manuscripts published in IJATE belongs to the authors. **Ethics Committee Number:** Erzurum Technical University Scientific Research and Publication Ethics Committee, 10 Number of Decision: 5 Date: 20.04.2021.

### Authorship Contribution Statement

Each author has made an equal contribution to the research.

### Orcid

Adem Kantar  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-8486-9376>

Büşra Aslan Cevheroğlu  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-8730-0441>

Ayşegül Bakır  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-9182-9492>

Serel Akdur Çiçek  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-3981-1188>

**REFERENCES**

- Achacoso, M.V. (2006). "What do you mean my grade is not an A?": An investigation of academic entitlement, causal attributions, and self-regulation in college students. Retrieved from <https://www.proquest.com/dissertations-theses/what-do-you-mean-my-grade-is-not-investigation/docview/304984244/se-2>
- Aksoy, N., & Sural, Ü.Ç. (2022). Academic Entitlement Expectations of Preservice Primary School Teachers. *International Journal of Progressive Education*, 18(4), 1-20. <https://doi.org/10.29329/ijpe.2022.459.1>
- Barton, A.L., & Hirsch, J.K. (2016). Permissive parenting and mental health in college students: Mediating effects of academic entitlement. *Journal of American College Health*, 64(1), 1-8. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07448481.2015.1060597>
- Baumeister, R.F., Bushman, B.J., & Campbell, W.K. (2000). Self-esteem, narcissism, and aggression: Does violence result from low self-esteem or from threatened egotism? *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 9(1), 26-29. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-8721.00053>
- Bentler, P.M., & Chou, C.P. (1987). Practical issues in structural modeling. *Sociological methods & research*, 16(1), 78-117. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0049124187016001004>
- Bhattacharya, S., Bashar, M.A., Srivastava, A., & Singh, A. (2019). Nomophobia: No mobile phone phobia. *Journal of Family Medicine and Primary Care*, 8(4), 1297. [https://doi.org/10.4103/jfmpe.jfmpe\\_71\\_19](https://doi.org/10.4103/jfmpe.jfmpe_71_19)
- Blincoe, S., & Garris, C.P. (2017). Challenging the assumption of a Western phenomenon: Academic entitlement in Saudi Arabia. *The Journal of Experimental Education*, 85(2), 278-290. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00220973.2016.1199009>
- Bonaccio, S., Reeve, C.L., & Lyerly, J. (2016). Academic entitlement: Its personality and general mental ability correlates, and academic consequences. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 102, 211-216. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2016.07.012>
- Bosson, J.K., Lakey, C.E., Campbell, W.K., Zeigler-Hill, V., Jordan, C.H., & Kernis, M.H. (2008). Untangling the links between narcissism and self-esteem: A theoretical and empirical review. *Social and Personality Psychology Compass*, 2(3), 1415-1439. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1751-9004.2008.00089.x>
- Boswell, S.S. (2012). "I deserve success": Academic entitlement attitudes and their relationships with course self-efficacy, social networking, and demographic variables. *Social Psychology of Education*, 15(3), 353-365. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11218-012-9184-4>
- Cain, J., Romanelli, F., & Smith, K.M. (2012). Academic entitlement in pharmacy education. *American Journal of Pharmaceutical Education*, 76(10). <https://doi.org/10.5688/ajpe7610189>
- Campbell, S., Greenwood, M., Prior, S., Shearer, T., Walkem, K., Young, S., Bywaters, D., & Walker, K. (2020). Purposive sampling: complex or simple? Research case examples. *Journal of Research in Nursing*: 25(8), 652-661. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1744987120927206>
- Campbell, W.K., Bonacci, A.M., Shelton, J., Exline, J.J., & Bushman, B.J. (2004). Psychological entitlement: Interpersonal consequences and validation of a self-report measure. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 83, 29-45. [https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327752jpa8301\\_04](https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327752jpa8301_04)
- Chowning, K., & Campbell, N.J. (2009). Development and validation of a measure of academic entitlement: Individual differences in students' externalized responsibility and entitled expectations. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 101(4), 982. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0016351>

- Ciani, K.D., Summers, J.J., & Easter, M.A. (2008). Gender differences in academic entitlement among college students. *The Journal of Genetic Psychology*, 169(4), 332-344. <https://doi.org/10.3200/GNTP.169.4.332-344>
- Côté, S., Stellar, J.E., Willer, R., Forbes, R.C., Martin, S.R., & Bianchi, E.C. (2021). The psychology of entrenched privilege: High socioeconomic status individuals from affluent backgrounds are uniquely high in entitlement. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 47(1), 70-88. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0146167220916633>
- Dubovsky, S.L. (1986). Coping with entitlement in medical education. *New England Journal of Medicine*, 315(26), 1672-1674. <https://doi.org/10.1056/NEJM198612253152609>
- El-Alayli, A., Hansen-Brown, A.A., & Ceynar, M. (2018). Dancing backwards in high heels: Female professors experience more work demands and special favor requests, particularly from academically entitled students. *Sex Roles*, 79, 136-150. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s1199-017-0872-6>
- Elias, R.Z. (2017). Academic entitlement and its relationship with perception of cheating ethics. *Journal of Education for Business*, 92(4), 194-199. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08832323.2017.1328383>
- Exline, J.J., Baumeister, R.F., Bushman, B.J., Campbell, W.K., & Finkel, E.J. (2004). Too proud to let go: narcissistic entitlement as a barrier to forgiveness. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 87(6), 894. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.87.6.894>
- Fletcher, K.L., Pierson, E.E., Speirs Neumeister, K.L., & Finch, W.H. (2020). Overparenting and perfectionistic concerns predict academic entitlement in young adults. *Journal of Child and Family Studies*, 29(2), 348-357. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10826-019-01663-7>
- Greenberger, E., Lessard, J., Chen, C., & Farruggia, S.P. (2008). Self-entitled college students: Contributions of personality, parenting, and motivational factors. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 37(10), 1193-1204. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10964-008-9284-9>
- Hambleton, R.K. and Patsula, L. (1999). Increasing the validity of adapted tests: myths to be avoided and guidelines for improving test adaptation practices. *Journal of Applied Testing Technology*, 1, 1-16.
- Harvey, P., & Harris, K.J. (2010). Frustration-based outcomes of entitlement and the influence of supervisor communication. *Human Relations*, 63(11), 1639-1660. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0018726710362923>
- Hill, M.S., & Fischer, A.R. (2001). Does entitlement mediate the link between masculinity and rape-related variables?. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 48(1), 39. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0167.48.1.39>
- Jack, G., & Donnellan, H. (2010). Recognising the person within the developing professional: Tracking the early careers of newly qualified child care social workers in three local authorities in England. *Social Work Education*, 29(3), 305-318. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02615470902984663>
- Kılıç, S. (2016). Cronbach'ın alfa güvenilirlik katsayısı [Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient]. *Journal of Mood Disorders*, 6(1), 47-48. <https://doi.org/10.5455/jmood.20160307122823>
- Kopp, J.P., Zinn, T.E., Finney, S.J., & Jurich, D.P. (2011). The development and evaluation of the academic entitlement questionnaire. *Measurement and Evaluation in Counseling and Development*, 44(2), 105-129. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0748175611400292>
- Kumari, D., & Gautam, M.K. 648. "I deserve higher Grades": An Analysis of Academic Entitlement Attitude among Students of Higher Education. *Journal of Dialogues on Education*, 11(1), 1-10.
- Lippmann, S., Bulanda, R.E., & Wagenaar, T.C. (2009). Student entitlement: Issues and strategies for confronting entitlement in the classroom and beyond. *College Teaching*, 57, 197–204. <https://doi.org/10.1080/87567550903218596>

- McLellan, C.K., & Jackson, D.L. (2017). Personality, self-regulated learning, and academic entitlement. *Social Psychology of Education*, 20(1), 159-178. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s1218-016-9357-7>
- Menon, M.K., & Sharland, A. (2011). Narcissism, exploitative attitudes, and academic dishonesty: An exploratory investigation of reality versus myth. *Journal of Education for Business*, 86(1), 50-55. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08832321003774772>
- Moeller, S.J., Crocker, J., & Bushman, B.J. (2009). Creating hostility and conflict: Effects of entitlement and self-image goals. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 45(2), 448-452. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jesp.2008.11.005>
- Morrow, W. (1994). Entitlement and achievement in education. *Studies in Philosophy and Education*, 13(1), 33-47. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF01074084>
- Peirone, A., & Maticka-Tyndale, E. (2017). “I bought my degree, now I want my job!” Is academic entitlement related to prospective workplace entitlement?. *Innovative Higher Education*, 42(1), 3-18. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10755-016-9365-8>
- Pilotti, M.A., Al Ghazo, R., & Al Shamsi, S.J. (2022). Academic entitlement amid social change in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. *Journal of Applied Research in Higher Education*, 14(4), 1718-1730. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JARHE-05-2021-0168>
- Reysen, R., Reysen, M., & Reysen, S. (2021). Academic entitlement predicts smartphone usage during class. *College Teaching*, 69(1), 52-57. <https://doi.org/10.1080/87567555.2020.1803192>
- Singleton-Jackson, J.A., Jackson, D.L., & Reinhardt, J. (2011). Academic Entitlement: Exploring Definitions and Dimensions of Entitled Students. *International Journal of Interdisciplinary Social Sciences*, 5(9). <https://doi.org/10.18848/1833-1882/CGP/v05i09/51883>
- Sohr-Preston, S., & Boswell, S.S. (2015). Predicting academic entitlement in undergraduates. *International Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education*, 27(2), 183-193.
- Solomon, I., & Leven, S. (1975). Entitlement. *Psychotherapy: Theory, Research & Practice*, 12(3), 280. <https://doi.org/10.1037/h0086444>
- Turnipseed, D.L., & Cohen, S.R. (2015). Academic entitlement and socially aversive personalities: Does the Dark Triad predict academic entitlement?. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 82, 72-75. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2015.03.003>
- vanWieringen, K.A., Formicola, A., Peirone, A., & Falsetta, T. (2013, May 30). *Academic entitlement leads to negative outcomes, student researchers find*. Retrieved from <http://www.uwindsor.ca/dailynews/2013-05-29/academic-entitlement-leadsnegative-consequences-student-researchers-find>
- Wasioleski, D.T., Whatley, M.A., Briehl, D.S., & Branscome, J.M. (2014). Academic entitlement scale: Development and preliminary validation. *Psychology Research*, 4(6). <https://doi.org/10.17265/2159-5542/2014.06.004>
- Whatley, M.A., Wasioleski, D.T., Breneiser, J.E., & Wood, M.M. (2019). Understanding academic entitlement: Gender classification, self-esteem, and covert narcissism. *Educational Research Quarterly*, 42(3), 49-71.
- Wicherts, J.M. (2007). *Group differences in intelligence test performance*. Unpublished dissertation, Faculty of Social and Behavioural Sciences, University of Amsterdam. Retrieved from <https://hdl.handle.net/11245/1.280565>
- Wilson, T.D., Dunn, D.S., Kraft, D., & Lisle, D.J. (1989). Introspection, attitude change, and attitude-behavior consistency: The disruptive effects of explaining why we feel the way we do. In *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology* (Vol. 22, pp. 287-343). Academic Press. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0065-2601\(08\)60311-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0065-2601(08)60311-1)
- Yalçın, S (2021). Ölçek geliştirme ve uyarılama süreci bilgi notu. [Scale development and adaptation process information note]. Retrieved from <http://egitim.ankara.edu.tr/wp->



<content/uploads/sites/347/2021/06/Olcek-Gelistirme-ve-Uyarlama.Bilgi-notu.-Doc.-Dr.-Seher-Yalcin.pdf>.

- Yan, D., Xi, L., Shu, S.U., & Li, L. (2021). The Online Learning Academic Achievement of Chinese Students during the COVID-19 Pandemic: the Role of Self-Regulated Learning and Academic Entitlement. *International Journal of Psychology and Educational Studies*, 8(3), 116-127. Retrieved from <https://dergipark.org.tr/tr/pub/pes/issue/64305/976295>
- Zarei, S. (2022). The Mediating role of academic entitlement in the relationship between Permissive Parenting and Psychological Distress among Students. *Psychological Studies*, 18(1). <https://doi.org/10.1080/07448481.2015.1060597>
- Zuckerman, M. (1979). Attribution of success and failure revisited, or: The motivational bias is alive and well in attribution theory. *Journal of Personality*, 47(2), 245-287. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-6494.1979.tb00202.x>

## APPENDIX

## Turkish Version of the Academic Entitlement Scale

Aşağıda 1'den 7'ye kadar derecelendirilmiş çeşitli ifadeler vardır. İfadeleri okuyup, size en uygun gelen seçeneği yuvarlak içine alınız.

1.	Hoca öğretmek için para aldığına göre derslere aktif olarak katılım göstermek benden çok onun sorumluluğudur. <b>Kesinlikle katılmıyorum</b> 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 <b>Kesinlikle katılıyorum</b>
2.	Dersi kaçırsam ders notlarına ulaşmak benim sorumluluğumdur. <b>Kesinlikle katılmıyorum</b> 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 <b>Kesinlikle katılıyorum</b>
3.	Grup çalışmalarında çok fazla çaba harcamaya istekli değilim, çünkü illa ki gruptan birileri gerekeni yapacaktır. <b>Kesinlikle katılmıyorum</b> 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 <b>Kesinlikle katılıyorum</b>
4.	Hocalarım sınava hazırlanmamda bana yardım etmekle yükümlüdür. <b>Kesinlikle katılmıyorum</b> 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 <b>Kesinlikle katılıyorum</b>
5.	İyi bir hoca eğlenceli olmalıdır. <b>Kesinlikle katılmıyorum</b> 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 <b>Kesinlikle katılıyorum</b>
6.	Üniversitenin bana başarılı olmak için ihtiyacım olan kaynakları sağlamadığına inanıyorum. <b>Kesinlikle katılmıyorum</b> 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 <b>Kesinlikle katılıyorum</b>
7.	Hocalar tam olarak neden bahsettiklerini bilmiyorlar. <b>Kesinlikle katılmıyorum</b> 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 <b>Kesinlikle katılıyorum</b>
8.	Eğer istediğim nota yakın bir not aldıysam dersin hocası notumu yeniden değerlendirmelidir/değerlendirebilir. <b>Kesinlikle katılmıyorum</b> 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 <b>Kesinlikle katılıyorum</b>
9.	Verdiğim bir ödevden asla sıfır almamalıyım. <b>Kesinlikle katılmıyorum</b> 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 <b>Kesinlikle katılıyorum</b>
10.	Eğer bir derste kötü bir not alırsam ve dersin hocasının ofis saatlerine denk gelemezsem, hata dersin hocasına aittir. <b>Kesinlikle katılmıyorum</b> 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 <b>Kesinlikle katılıyorum</b>
11.	Üniversitede başarılı olmak için gerekli kaynakları bulmak benim sorumluluğumdadır. <b>Kesinlikle katılmıyorum</b> 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 <b>Kesinlikle katılıyorum</b>
12.	Eğer meşgulsem grup ödevlerinde geriye çekilip diğerlerinin çoğu şeyi yapmasını beklemek kabul edilebilir bir şeydir. <b>Kesinlikle katılmıyorum</b> 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 <b>Kesinlikle katılıyorum</b>
13.	Grup ödevlerinde gösterdiğim çabadan bağımsız olarak diğer grup üyeleriyle aynı notu almalıyım. <b>Kesinlikle katılmıyorum</b> 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 <b>Kesinlikle katılıyorum</b>
14.	Eğer bir üst harf notuna yakın bir not aldıysam hoca notumu yuvarlamalıdır. <b>Kesinlikle katılmıyorum</b> 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 <b>Kesinlikle katılıyorum</b>
15.	Hocalar yalnızca öğretmek için para alan işçilerdir. <b>Kesinlikle katılmıyorum</b> 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 <b>Kesinlikle katılıyorum</b>

Note. Items 2 and 11 in the scale are reverse ones. Those items have to be recoded. High scores obtained from the scale signify higher levels of academic entitlement modes.