

AN EXAMINATION OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ACADEMIC ENTITLEMENT
AND EDUCATION FINANCING AMONG UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS

by

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Liberty University

A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment

Of the Requirements for the Degree

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ABSTRACT

Academic entitlement among students is a growing problem and concern for universities. Students with a sense of entitlement towards their education believe that positive academic outcomes are owed to them and should be awarded, not based on mastery of educational content, but on non-academic aspects of education, such as attending class, participating in class, or paying tuition fees. Additionally, academically entitled students have unrealistic expectations about the role of instructors and demanding attitudes and behaviors toward faculty. The factors precipitating these actions and behaviors appear to be multi-facted and remain unclear. To add to the growing body of literature on academic entitlement through identification of a contributing factor, this causal comparative study aims to explore the relationship between means of education financing and academic entitlement. This study used Achacoso's Academic Entitlement Scale to measure levels of entitlement actions and entitlement beliefs among 524 undergraduate students at mid-size state university in the western United States. A one-way multivariate analysis of variance was used to determine the effect of means of education financing on academic entitlement. Analysis of the results showed statistical significance between means of education financing and academic entitlement. Specifically, it was found that financially independent students are more likely to have a significantly higher entitlement belief than financially dependent and dual-financed undergraduate university students. No statistically significant difference was found between means of education financing and the entitlement actions subscale. Recommendation for future research includes repeating the study with a different sampling technique and distinguishing between financially independent students who utilized external funding sources and financially independent students who do not.

Keywords: academic entitlement, students, education finance, education

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List of Abbreviations

Academic Entitlement Questionnaire (AEQ)

Academic Entitlement Scale (AES)

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

Briones State University (BSU)

Institutional Review Board (IRB)

Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA)

Null Hypothesis (H_0)

Research Question (RQ)

Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS)

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Overview

The purpose of this first chapter is to provide a framework for this study, highlighting the study's purpose and its significance. It offers a clear introduction to the problem that the study investigated, the contextual background of the study's problem – its history, trends, conflicts, and changes – followed by a historical overview and the theoretical framework guiding this research. The background logically leads to the problem statement, which is followed by the purpose statement. This chapter concludes with the research question and definitions pertinent to the study.

Background

Some higher education students are of the opinion that positive academic outcomes, such as high grades, are owed to them and should be awarded, not for mastery of educational content, but for non-academic aspects of education, such as showing up to class, participating in class, or because they or their parents pay tuition or taxes that go toward their educators' salaries (Bunce, Baird, & Jones, 2017; Plunkett, 2014). Student consumerism is the belief that passing marks, high grades, or degrees should be awarded to students because they are paying tuition fees (Cain, Romanelli, & Smith, 2012; Jeffers, Barclay, & Stolte, 2014; Plunkett, 2014). Students essentially believe that they are buying a product (education) in exchange for tuition dollars (Delucchi & Korgen, 2002; Singleton-Jackson, Jackson, & Reinhardt, 2010).

Student consumerism and academic entitlement are highly related constructs in education (Delucchi & Korgen, 2002), so much so that student consumerism is one of the fundamental facets of academic entitlement. In addition to having consumerist attitudes towards education, academically entitled students have an external locus of control pertaining to education and

demanding attitudes towards academic policies (Morrow, 1994; Sessoms, Finney, & Kopp, 2016). Students with an internally-oriented locus of control attribute their achievements to their own ability and efforts, as opposed to external factors. On the other hand, students who have an externally-oriented locus of control with regards to education believe outside forces are responsible for their successes and failures and are less intrinsically motivated to work (Kopp, Zinn, Finney, & Jurich, 2011; Peirone & Maticka-Tyndale, 2017). Because of the external locus of control, they do not see themselves as part of the learning process. The external locus of control presents itself in three beliefs: (a) educators should provide information to students in a way that does not require students to exert effort; (b) educators are accountable for students' academic failures; and (c) educators are responsible for structuring the learning process (Sessoms et al., 2016).

Historical Overview

Dubovsky (1986) coined the phrase academic entitlement during a study that examined entitlement behaviors in students enrolled in a medical educational institution. Dubovsky suggested that academic entitlement is multidimensional and entails five underlying facets: (a) knowledge is owed to students and should be obtained with minimal effort; (b) educators are responsible for bestowing this knowledge and supplying students with educational content and materials; (c) the responsibility for students' success belongs solely to the educators; (d) grades should be consistent for all students and not dependent on assessments or other criteria; and (e) if desired results are not achieved, students are within their right to aggressively challenge faculty.

Years later, as academic entitlement became an emergent area of study and research enquiry, the construct was explored by several researchers (i.e., Blincoe & Garris, 2017; Cain et al., 2012; Jeffres et al, 2014; Peirone & Maticka-Tyndale, 2017). Despite the gap in data and

comparative studies, the researchers argued that academic entitlement has become more prevalent in students (Chowning & Campbell, 2009; Hartman, 2012; Vallade, Martin & Weber, 2014; Wankel & Wankel, 2012). According to literature, the prevalence of academic entitlement in higher education results from a self-centered, narcissistic approach to life and education (Campbell, Bonacci, Shelton, Exline, & Bushman, 2004; Foster, Campbell, & Twenge, 2003; Twenge, 2009); students experiences in colleges and university (Ciani, Summers, & Easter, 2008); changes in educational paradigms, influence of technology, and the media (Greenberger, Lessard, Chen, & Farruggia, 2008); and the increasing trend of awarding students higher grade for stagnant academic performance in K-12 education (Kopp et al., 2011; Twenge & Campbell, 2009).

Due to the emerging nature of this construct, previous research focused on defining and developing ways to measure academic entitlement. Over the years, researchers have taken different approaches to defining the construct and have proposed varying definitions, or variants, of existing definitions (Achacoso, 2006; Chowning & Campbell, 2009; Greenberger et al., 2008; Jackson, Singleton-Jackson, & Frey, 2011; Morrow, 1994; Reinhardt, 2012; Singleton-Jackson et al., 2010). However, due to its multifaceted nature and its infancy, to date, there is no universal definition of the construct. While the proposed definitions have some similarities, there are a few differences with regards to how researchers defined the construct and the approach used to describe it. Despite the differences in how the construct is defined, common elements include students having a feeling of grade entitlement, behavioral entitlement, and service entitlement (Luckett, Trocchia, Noel, & Marlin, 2017). As entitlement became apparent in the university classroom, researchers began developing instruments to measure this construct (Achacoso, 2006; Andrey et al., 2012; Chowning & Campbell, 2009; Greenberger et al., 2008; Kopp et al., 2011;

Singleton-Jackson et al., 2010; Wasieleski, Whatley, Brihl, & Branscome, 2014). However, the instruments developed thus far vary in how they assess academic entitlement.

Previous studies reported an increase in levels of academic entitlement among university students (Chowning & Campbell, 2009; Hartman, 2012; Lippmann, Bulanda, & Wagenaar, 2009); however, the factors precipitating these actions and behaviors appear to be multi-faceted and remain unclear. A number of factors have been attributed to its development. Researchers have linked academic entitlement to parenting and family dynamics, (Ciani et al., 2008; Greenberger et al., 2008; Huang, 2017) societal factors, (Chowning & Campbell, 2009; Greenberger et al., 2008; Hartman, 2012), and the education system (Achacoso, 2006; Greenberger et al., 2008). Academic entitlement is also associated with predictors such as academic dishonesty, age, gender, and personality variables such as narcissism and locus of control (Boswell, 2012; Cain et al., 2012; Campbell et al., 2004; Ciani et al., 2008; Foster et al., 2003; Greenberger et al., 2008; Hartman, 2012; Singleton-Jackson, Jackson, & Reinhardt, 2011). “Traits such as a poor work ethic, and low degree of concern for how their behavior impacts others” also contributed to attitude if academic entitlement (Cain et al., 2012, p. 1194). The difficulty in identifying the factors that contribute to academic entitlement among students, can be attributed to the inconsistency in the instruments and the variation in definitions of academic entitlement used in each study. Academic entitlement is associated with some unfavorable implications such as grade inflation (Cain et al., 2012; Mansfield, 2001), degradation of the integrity of the academic institution (Reinhardt, 2012), student incivility, change in lecturing patterns, and a decrease in faculty morale (Cain et al., 2012; Nordstrom, Bartels, & Bucy, 2009).

Theoretical Background

The proposed definitions of academic entitlement encompass an externalized locus of control, and students abdicated responsibility for their own academic outcomes. As such, Weiner's (1974) attribution theory of motivation has been used to examine the concept and determine why it occurs (Baker, Kanan, & Al-Misnad, 2008; Chowning & Campbell, 2009; Mellor, 2011). The attribution theory explains the psychosocial reasons for certain behaviors during social interaction. It advances three reasons for students' causal attributions about their academic successes and failures: control, locus, and stability (Graham & Weiner, 1996). Research has established a connection between locus dimension of attributions and academic entitlement (Achacoso, 2006). In developing the first valid instrument to measure academic entitlement, Achacoso examined academic entitlement and its causal attributions. More specifically, the author explored the relationship between academic entitlement, self-regulation, and motivation. Achacoso's findings indicated that academic entitlement is characterized by an externalized locus of control as students relinquish responsibility for their own academic outcomes. Achacoso posited that students who possess an external attribution towards their education are more likely to harbor entitlement beliefs, actions, and behaviors.

The self-determination theory has also been used to aid in the understanding of academic entitlement (Frey 2015). This theory is a motivation theory that addresses humans' extrinsic and intrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2004; Gagné & Deci, 2005). The self-determination theory purports that decreased persistence on task, satisfaction, and performance results from reduced levels of intrinsic motivation for tasks and increased non-self-determined motivation (Deci, Koestner, & Ryan, 1999; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Frey (2015) used the self-determination theory as the theoretical framework for a study which examined the relationships between

academic entitlement, motivation, and academic performance. The self-determination theory provided a theoretical framework for understanding how academic entitlement may relate to academic achievement. According to Frey (2015), “in addition to explaining the impact academic entitlement might have on achievement, the close relation between self-determination theory and learning orientations provides an opportunity to understand why entitled students tend to be performance-oriented as opposed to mastery-oriented” (p. 48).

Background Summary

Academic entitlement is a new and unique construct. Over the years, researchers have attempted to define and measure academic entitlement. However, due to the lack of a universal definition, there is variability in the measures. Although the definitional specificity of the construct varies, the definitions align to suggest causes of the behavior. Some of the suggested contributing causes of academic entitlement include societal factors, personal factors or personality, locus of control, narcissism, academic factors (Ciani et al., 2008; Greenberger et al., 2008; Hartman, 2012; Miller, 2013), poor work ethic, and demographic factors (Cain et al., 2012).

Problem Statement

Due to the infancy of the construct of academic entitlement, there is a gap in certain aspects of the academic entitlement literature, especially as it relates to the relationship between demographics and academic entitlement. A few researchers have examined the relationship between academic entitlement among university students by demographic variables such as gender and age (Boswell, 2012; Chowning & Campbell, 2009; Ciani et al. 2008; Greenberger et al., 2008; Jones, 2013; Lemke, Marx, & Dundes, 2017; Witsman & Burdsal, 2013). The relationship between race/ethnicity and academic entitlement was mainly examined via

exploratory analysis (Ciani et al., 2008; Greenberger et al., 2008). Only three studies, one of which is a student's dissertation, examined ethnicity as a main variable (Blincoe & Garriss, 2017; Mateescu, 2015; Witsman & Burdsal, 2013). Witsman and Burdsal's (2013) study suggested that international students, particularly Asian or Hispanic, are more likely to have attitudes of academic entitlement than American students. Witsman and Burdsal also reported that ethnic minorities who are born in the United States are less likely to have attitudes of academic entitlement as compared to their foreign-born counterparts. Saudi Arabian female university students were also reported to have higher levels of academic entitlement than American students (Blincoe & Garriss, 2017). In another study, Mateescu (2015) found that African American students are more likely to demonstrate attitudes academic entitlement when compared to students of other ethnicities. The results of the student's dissertation study indicated that there is a difference in the sense of academic entitlement among various ethnic groups (Mateescu, 2015). However, Mateescu reported that ethnicity by itself does not result in higher or lower sense academic entitlement among students; ethnicity should be considered with other factors, inclusive of but not limited to culture, socioeconomic, upbringing, and parenting styles.

To date, no studies have investigated if income status or means of education financing contributes to academic entitlement actions and behaviors. In other words, which category of students has greater levels of academic entitlement: students who work and pay for their education or students whose education is paid for by others (low-income students or high-income students)? Does spending one's own money contribute to higher levels of academic entitlement?

The existing literature has provided some insight into the psychological and behavioral aspects of academically entitled students. The problem is that there is little research on the demographics of academically entitled students. Additional research is needed to gain further

knowledge of this unique construct. As such, this study explored the relationship between means of education financing and academic entitlement in university students by using a validated measure of the construct. Previous research suggested that academic entitlement is not exclusive to American students or American universities; it may be a global problem that manifest itself across cultures and national boundaries. As such, research that examines the construct is important; identifying contributing factors is key to finding solutions.

Purpose Statement

The main purpose of this quantitative study was to determine if there is a difference in the levels of academic entitlement between financially dependent and financially independent undergraduate students attending a public university in northern California. A secondary purpose was to contribute to the growing body of literature on the construct of academic entitlement through identification of possible relationship of academic entitlement and means of education financing. Examining the relationships between these two variables can lead to results that support current and future research and be instrumental in addressing and finding solutions to academic entitlement among college and universities students.

The independent variable for this study is means of education financing (financially dependent or financially independent). Financially dependent refers to how students fund their education. A financially dependent student is a student who depends on others to pay for his or her educational expenses. The tuition, the required enrollment fees (including amounts required to be paid to the institution for course-related books, supplies, and equipment), and other education expenses related to obtaining a degree are paid for by others through scholarship, endowments, trusts, employer, parents, and gifts from family members. A financially independent student is one who is solely responsible for his or her own educational expenses.

This individual is responsible for his or her tuition, required enrollment fees (including amounts required to be paid to the institution for course-related books, supplies, and equipment), and other education expenses related to obtaining a degree, either through personal saving, student loan, and/or income from jobs.

The dependent variable is academic entitlement (cognitive and behavioral). Academic entitlement is defined as a dual construct, cognitive and behavioral, that encompasses a set of beliefs and expectations held by students, and the manifestation of those beliefs in certain behaviors (Achacoso, 2006; Chowning & Campbell 2009; Greenberger et al., 2008; Jackson et al., 2011; Kopp, et al., 2011; Singleton-Jackson, et al., 2010). This definition is congruent with the Achacoso (2006) Academic Entitlement Scale (AES). The total score of the 12-item, two-factor questionnaire measures both the cognitive and /behavioral elements of academic entitlement. The study's population was undergraduate students who are paying tuition and are enrolled as either full time or part time students at a public university in northern California.

Significance of the Study

The prevalence and frequency of academic entitlement behaviors in the classroom are increasing (Chowning & Campbell, 2009; Hartman, 2012; Lippmann et al., 2009). Past research on the construct has been critical in understanding some of its antecedents and consequences. However, little empirical research has been completed on its contributing factors, and as such, the understanding academic entitlement in its entirety is likely still in its infancy. Research that has been conducted focused primarily on the parental factors, societal factors, and personality traits. The lack of the research in this area has created a gap in the academic entitlement literature, especially as it relates to the relationship of demographics and, in particular, income and education finance and academic entitlement.

The usefulness of this research lies at the level of intervention. A sense of entitlement among students is a growing problem and concern for universities (Chowning & Campbell 2009; Twenge, 2009). Academic entitlement has the potential to have negative effects on student learning and course success (Kopp et al., 2011). These effects often manifest themselves in the classroom in negative behaviors such as hostility, dominance, difficulty with relationships, intention to harm, greed, aggression, and increased conflict between professors and students (Campbell et al., 2004). Armed with the knowledge of what factors contribute to academic entitlement in students, those working directly with students can better tailor interventions and programming to meet student needs. Additionally, further insight into the causes or the factors that contribute to academic entitlement would make a significant contribution to the educational literature.

Research Question

RQ1: Do financially dependent and financially independent undergraduate university students differ in entitlement beliefs, entitlement actions, and/or a combination of entitlement beliefs and actions?

Definitions

1. *Undergraduate financially dependent student* – An undergraduate student who depends on others to pay for his or her educational expenses. The tuition, the required enrollment fees (including amounts required to be paid to the institution for course-related books, supplies, and equipment), and other education expenses related to obtaining the degree are paid for by others through scholarship, endowments, trusts, employer, parents, and/or gifts from family members.

2. *Undergraduate financially independent student* – An undergraduate student who is solely responsible for his or her own educational expenses. The individual is responsible for the tuition, required enrollment fees (including amounts required to be paid to the institution for course-related books, supplies, and equipment), and other education expenses related to obtaining the degree, either through personal saving, student loans, and/or income from jobs.
3. *Dual financed students* –An undergraduate student who uses a mix of self-funding and funding from other to pay for educational expenses. The tuition, the required enrollment fees (including amounts required to be paid to the institution for course-related books, supplies, and equipment), and other education expenses related to obtaining the degree are paid for by self-funding either through personal saving, student loans, and/or income from jobs, and by others through scholarship, endowments, trusts, employer, parents, and/or gifts from family members.
4. *Academic entitlement* – Academic entitlement is a dual construct, cognitive and behavioral, that encompasses a set of beliefs and expectations held by students, and the manifestation of those beliefs in certain behaviors (Achacoso, 2006; Chowning & Campbell 2009; Greenberger et al., 2008; Jackson et al., 2011; Kopp, et al., 2011; Singleton-Jackson, et al., 2010).
5. *Student consumerism* – There are many dimensions of student consumerism documented in the literature, however, there is no clear or shared definition. In this study, student consumerism is “the view that because students are paying for their education, they deserve to be treated as customers” (Cain et al., 2012, para. 5).

6. *Locus of control* – The degree to which a person believes that control resides internally within him- or herself, or externally, with others or the situation (Rotter, 1954).
7. *Internal locus of control* – “The degree to which persons expect that a reinforcement or an outcome of their behavior is contingent on their own behavior or personal characteristics” (Rotter, 1990, p. 489).
8. *External locus of control* – “The degree to which persons expect that the reinforcement or outcome is a function of chance, luck, or fate, is under the control of powerful others, or is simply unpredictable” (Rotter, 1990, p. 489).

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

Overview

This chapter will focus on theoretical framework that guided this research study. The theoretical framework is grounded in the literature on Weiner's (1974) attribution theory and Deci and Ryan's (1985) self-determination theory. This theoretical framework provided the lens through which the researcher will view and understand the problem. The two theories provide guidelines for explaining the etiology of the phenomenon of academic entitlement and the linking mechanisms that connect variables. In addition to the theoretical framework, also included in this chapter is a review of the literature that is relevant to academic entitlement and its link to this study.

Theoretical Framework

Attribution theory (Weiner, 1974) and the self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985) are classified as motivational theories. Motivational theories have been used by researchers and psychologists to explain the process and influences that lead a person to behave in a particular way. Both of these approaches or theories was used in this research to examine and understand the concept of academic entitlement. The attribution theory (Weiner, 1974) will focus on the link between motivation and behavior attribution, and the self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985) will provide insight into aspects of a person's experience. Research investigating the relationship between motivation and academic entitlement is limited. However, from the few published studies examining motivation and academic entitlement, the literature suggests that motivation appears to be a critical conceptual facet in understanding academic entitlement (Andrey et al., 2012; Boswell, 2012; Ciani et al., 2008; Greenberger et al., 2008).

Attribution Theory

The attribution theory is a theory of social cognition that was initially advanced by in the 1950s during Heider's (1958) investigation that examined a person's behaviors. It is concerned with deducting how and why an individual assigns cause and effect to events. Heider posited there is a direct relationship between the way in which an individual comprehends a specific event and how the event is associated with the individual's thought process and their behavior. Heider posited that there are two types of attribution: internal attribution and external attribution. Internal attribution is the inference that an individual's behavior is driven by something within him or herself such as attitude, character, or personality. In other words, personality caused him or her to behave a certain way. On the other hand, external attribution is the belief that something outside the individual's personality is the cause of behavior, such as environmental factors, or a particular situation that he or she is involved in.

Heider's (1958) theory only gained momentum after its conceptual assumptions and principles were developed decades later. Weiner's (1974) attribution theory linked the attribution process to emotion and motivation. Weiner purported the idea that attribution is not just about mental calculation, it can also be a highly emotional experience (Weiner, 1974). Weiner's (1974) theory is based on the assumption that a person's own attributions in attempts to explain his or her success or failure determine the effort he or she is willing to exert in the future.

Weiner (1986) focused his attribution theory on achievements and pinpointed specific factors affecting attributions for achievements such as ability, effort, and luck and classified them into what he described as the three casual dimensions: locus of control, stability, and controllability. Rotter (1954) indicated that locus of control is the degree to which a person believes that control resides internally within oneself or externally, with others or the situation.

It relates to the type of attribution an individual makes about his or her successes and/or failures. There are two dimensions to the locus of control: internal locus of control or attribution, and external locus of control or attribution. Persons with an internal locus of control believe “that a reinforcement or an outcome of their behavior is contingent on their own behavior or personal characteristics” (Rotter, 1990, p. 489). They believe that successes and/or failures result from elements they have power over (e.g., effort or ability). Conversely, external locus of control is “the degree to which persons expect that the reinforcement or outcome is a function of chance, luck, or fate, is under the control of powerful others, or is simply unpredictable” (Rotter, 1990, p. 489). The stability dimension refers to whether the cause of the event is stable or unstable across time and situations (Weiner, 1986). On the other hand, the controllability dimension refers to causes a person can control, skills for example, and causes one cannot control, such as others' actions, and luck.

The Self-Determination Theory

Self-determination theory is a framework conceptualizing motivation and its associated factors underlying the choices a person makes. Deci and Ryan (1985) are recognized as being the developers of the self-determination theory. Broadly speaking, this theory addresses issues of motivation personality and optimum functioning (Deci & Ryan, 1985). The authors postulated that people have three innate psychological needs that are considered as universal necessities: competence, relatedness, and autonomy (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Self-determination theory maintains that the optimal functioning and health of an individual are dependent on his or her universal needs being met (Deci & Vansteenkiste, 2004). Therefore, an individual requires nurturing from his or her social environment to actualize inherent potential (Deci & Vansteenkiste, 2004). Self-determination theory also asserts that there are varied approaches to

motivation and differentiates between the two different types of motivation: intrinsic and extrinsic. In their explanation of motivation, the authors hypothesized that the primary focus is 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 is the desire to do it for an external reason (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Deci and Ryan (2004) reported that motivation comes from within and identified three basic needs that fuel intrinsic motivation: competence, relatedness and, autonomy. Competence refers to the ability to control the outcome of an activity and experience mastery of a particular task. Autonomy is the desire to be an independent agent in your own life, and relatedness, in this context, speaks to the human need for connectiveness and to express care for others. (Deci & Ryan, 2004). Deci and Ryan (2004) warn that the importance of these aspects of human needs should not be overlooked, since without an environment to nurtures these needs, self-determined motivation is unlikely to occur. Therefore, based on the self-determination theory, optimal intrinsic motivation happens when a person feels able to regulate his or her own actions (autonomy), feels a sense of mastery (competence) in his or her ability to complete a task, and feels connected to a larger social group (relatedness; Deci & Ryan, 2004).

Deci and Ryan (2004) reported an association of self-determination theory with perceived locus of control. They found a relationship with the external locus of control and non-self-determined forms motivation and a relationship with the internal locus of control and self-determined forms of motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2004). Arguably this aligns with self-determination theory since an internal locus of control would suggest that the person feels more in control of his or her circumstances, or more self-determined. The reverse would be true for the external locus of control.

The Theories' Relation to Academic Entitlement

One of the earliest studies applying the attribution theory to higher education students' academic performance dates back to the 1970s. Arkin and Maruyama (1979) found that higher education students who were successful in exams attributed their success to internal factors, and unsuccessful students blamed external factors as the causes of their poor academic performance. Since then, a number of studies have used the attribution theory to explain motivation in educational settings (Demetriou, 2011; Fishman & Husman, 2017; Gaier, 2015; McClure et al., 2011). Similarly, self-determination theory has been extensively used to explain how motivation works in academic settings (Ballmann, & Mueller, 2008; Liu et al., 2014; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Vansteenkiste, Lens, & Deci, 2006). As such, they are appropriate to expand the theoretical understanding of academic entitlement. However, few research studies have examined the relationship between motivational factors and academic entitlement. Ciani et al. (2008) and Boswell (2012) examined gender as a motivator for academic entitlement. Andrey et al. (2012) explored students' ability to learn as a motivator for academic entitlement. Greenberger et al. (2008) explored parenting as factors. To date, no study investigated money as motivators for academic entitlement or how means of education financing may contribute to academic entitlement.

Deci and Ryan's (1985) self-determination theory asserts that outside influences play a role in the motivation of others. Therefore, it can be hypothesized that money can play a role in influencing students to adopt academic entitlement actions and behaviors. Some students are of the view that a professional degree is a consumeristic transaction, as opposed to an investment that necessitates personal responsibility and work (Delucchi & Korgen, 2002; Singleton-Jackson et al., 2010). As such they "view their pursuit of a degree as a financial transaction in which

their tuition investment, perhaps derived from the financial support of parents, scholarships or student loans, yields a degree” (Cain et al., 2012, p.2). If students hold the opinion that they are engaging in a commercial transaction in which they are putting out consideration, they may be more motivated to want to receive something in return. As such, the natural pursuit may be academic entitlement attitudes. These students are more likely to be extrinsically motivated. Intrinsically motivated students have an inherent desire to learn. According to Deci and Ryan (2004), these students would be consistently looking for opportunities to pursue new challenges, grown, and learn. Internal rewards such as pride motivate them. On the other hand, students who are extrinsically motivated are driven by performance goals as opposed to learning goals. This means extrinsically motivated students are more likely to display academic entitlement behaviors such as participating in class or doing an assignment because they expect a desirable outcome associated with learning, like a reward such as passing grade or a degree (Achacoso, 2006). Students with a higher level of academic entitlement have higher levels of extrinsic motivation (Greenberger et al., 2008). Motivation theories has also been used in other studies to and examine motivation in academic settings (Fairchild, Horst, Finney, & Barron, 2005). A link between the motivational variables of internal/external attributions and academic entitlement has been established (Achacoso, 2006). “Academic entitlement is positively correlated with external attributions and negatively related to internal attributions” (Achacoso, 2006, p. ix). Deci and Ryan (2004) stated that there is a definite association between motivation and locus of control. Intrinsically motivated students have an internal perceived locus of control. This translates to them being in charge and in control of their own actions and behavior (Deci & Ryan, 2004). In contrast, students who are extrinsically motivated blame external forces such as the teacher, social pressure, work, bias, or books as reasons for their failures (Sparks, 2012). These students

have an external locus of control. Therefore, the higher the levels of external locus of control, the less likely a student would be intrinsically motivated (Frey, 2015). Empirical evidence shows a direct relationship between academic entitlement and higher levels of external locus of control (Achacoso, 2006; Chowning & Campbell, 2009; Kopp & Finney, 2013). Students with high levels of academic entitlement externalize responsibility for academic success (Chowning & Campbell, 2009; Kopp & Finney, 2013) that is facilitated by an external locus of control. That indicates the more personal control a student has, the less attitudes academic entitlement they would exhibit.

How This Study May Advance or Extend the Theories

This study may expand on the attribution and self-determination motivational theories by contributing to the understanding of the different levels and types of motivation as they relate to achieving specific desires and outcomes, and how those varying levels impact behaviors. The study's result would provide valuable insight regarding (a) sources of tuition funding in relation to academic motivation and academic entitlement and (b) differences in students' motivation based on who was paying for the university degree. For example, data from this study can be used to determine if there is an association between self-funded students, levels of academic motivation, and type of motivation (extrinsic verse intrinsic). Incorporating attribution and self-determination theories into a model of academic entitlement would provide a theoretical ground for understanding how this construct may relate to academic achievement as well as many other important outcomes of the education process.

Achacoso (2006) postulated that academic entitlement is a measurable on two domains, cognitive and behavioral. Achacoso's two-factor model for measuring academic entitlement is consistent with general entitlement in that it is experienced both affectively and motivationally

(Lerner, 1987). Accordingly, when expectations about entitlement are not met, there is a perception of unfair treatment, which can result in a display of anger and rage. When applied to the education setting, an academically entitled students, who are not awarded what they believe they deserve, would act a certain way. The key to identifying academically entitled students and to curbing levels of academic entitlement lies in the use of a valid and reliable instrument that can measure this unique construct and find links between it and other variables. Achacoso's (2006) noted that the AES has convergent validity, as scores from the scale were found to be "positively correlated with scores from the Exaggerated Deservingness Scale (XD21, Kelln, 1997) and the Superiority Scale (Robbins & Patton, 1985)" (p. 93). Since the validation process of an instrument is an ongoing process (Benson & Nasser, 1998), additional research using the AES should be conducted to examine its functionality. The data from additional research, such as studies using the AES to examine its relations to other "constructs like narcissism or delayed gratification" can increase the validity of the scale (Achacoso, 2006, p. 101) and can also confirm Achacoso's results. The results from this present study may contribute to providing structural validity of AES scores. This study hypothesized that means of education financing would have differences in the level of academic entitlement, thus a mean-level difference in AES scores would provide strong validity evidence.

Related Literature

A common misconception among higher education students is that paying tuition fees automatically qualifies students to be recipients of good grades or a university degree (Delucchi & Korgen, 2002; Dubovsky, 1986; Jeffres et al., 2014; Knepp, 2012; Kopp et al., 2011; Lippman et al., 2009; Plunkett, 2014; Twenge, 2009). Kopp et al. (2011) reported that, although tuition charges cover specific activities, access, and services, students have different expectations on

what should be delivered for the charges. While some students believe that the tuition fees cover the things the institution should reasonably provide to enable them to complete their degree, others believe it entitles them to passing grades and a degree. For the academically entitled students, receiving a higher education degree is simply an avenue for employment and advancement, rather than an opportunity for gaining knowledge.

Defining Academic Entitlement

Academic entitlement was first described by Dubovsky (1986) during a study that investigated entitlement behaviors in students enrolled in medical education programs. Dubovsky suggested that students with entitlement attitudes possess certain views, beliefs, and perceptions. To entitled students, (a) education is a transaction, students are consumers, and as such, knowledge ought to be provided without effort on their path, (b) it is the role of educators to provide students with this knowledge; (c) failure to learn or achieve are due to problems with the educators or the education system, as oppose to the student's own inadequacies; (d) because students are consumers and pay the same tuition fees, they should all be given the same grade, regardless of efforts or achievement; and (e) should a conflict occur, or students do not receive the grade they believe is owed to them, they have the right to engage in verbally aggressive behavior with educators or school administrators (Dubovsky, 1986).

Eight years after Dubovsky (1986) presented his views, academic entitlement gained monument when Morrow (1994) reintroduced the concept and postulated that if entitlement is allowed to dominate academic achievements, then the intended goals of education are lost, the integrity of the education systems will crumble, and educators will be responsible for the failure. The fundamental goals of 21st-century education encompass providing learners with the essential skills that are necessary to succeed in the changing world (Greenhill, 2010) and

developing multiple intelligences in learners to account for a large spectrum of potential in humans (Liu & Low, 2015). The theory of multiple intelligences argues that intelligences should not be reduced to a single overarching construct and identifies several distinct intelligences (Gardner, 1983). There are linguistic intelligence, logical-mathematical intelligence, spatial intelligence, bodily-kinesthetic intelligence, musical intelligence, interpersonal intelligence, intrapersonal intelligence, and naturalist intelligence (Gardner, 1983, 1999). The traditional method of teaching encompasses providing the learners with context and fact and directing them to rote learning and memorization. Abdi, Laee, and Ahmadyan (2013) and Douglas, Burton, and Reese-Durham (2007) found that students who are taught based on multiple intelligence have greater test scores and are more successful than students who were taught by the traditional teaching method. Achieving these academic outcomes requires a holistic education system committed to enabling learners to reach their maximum potential.

Academic entitlement was further described and expanded on in other studies (Achacoso, 2006; Chowning & Campbell, 2009; Greenberger et al., 2008; Jackson et al, 2011; Jeffres et al., 2014; Reinhardt, 2012; Singleton-Jackson et al., 2010). Examination of the different descriptions showed that researchers have not yet agreed on the nomenclature or a definition for academic entitlement. Some researchers used a formal definition to define the academic entitlement, while others used behavioral examples. For example, Achacoso's (2006) definition is based on the term psychological entitlement, which is defined as "a stable and pervasive sense that one deserves more and is entitled to more than others" (p. 31). Achacoso (2006) posited that academic entitlement is a sense of entitlement specific to education that comprises of beliefs and actions. The entitlement element relates to unrealistic beliefs about what the student should and should not be afforded, and the action element relates to the types of actions an entitled student

would take, such as negotiating and or arguing for grades that were not earned. On the other hand, in lieu of a formal definition, Greenberger et al. (2008) provided behavioral examples to convey the meaning of academic entitlement. The examples are perspectives of the professors and the behaviors they observed students display. As such, they suggested that academic entitlement is “a construct that includes expectations of high grades for modest effort and demanding attitudes towards teachers” (Greenberger et al., 2008, p. 1193).

Another difference in the definition is the way in which academic entitlement is described. Singleton-Jackson et al. (2010) described academic entitlement relative to actual academic performance. They posited that academic entitlement entails students’ belief that “they are entitled to or deserving of certain goods and services to be provided by their institutions and professors that is outside of the students’ actual performance or responsibilities inside the classroom” (Singleton-Jackson et al., 2010, p. 344). On the other hand, Chowning and Campbell (2009) described entitlement relative to personal responsibility. They posited that academic entitlement is “the tendency to possess an expectation of academic success without a sense of personal responsibility for achieving that success” (Chowning & Campbell, 2009, p. 982). Chowning & Campbell’s (2009) definition is consistent with Morrow’s (1994) in that they both stated that academic entitlement encompasses a certain notion of responsibility. They theorized that an academically entitled student would feel achievements are deserved, but they would not understand their role or assume responsibility for failing to obtain the desired achievements.

Despite the differences in how the construct is defined, common elements include students having a feeling of grade entitlement, behavioral entitlement, and service entitlement (Luckett et al., 2017). Jackson et al. (2011) provided a definition that included these three common elements. Jackson et al. (2011) advanced that the definition of academic entitlement

should contain the following facets: (a) that academic entitlement reflects a belief that some reward is deserved that is not justified based on academic achievement (as defined by Morrow, 1994); (b) that academic entitlement beliefs imply a diminished role for personal responsibility in academic achievement; and (c) that academic entitlement beliefs also implies unrealistic expectations about the role of instructors and demanding attitudes and behaviors on behalf of students.

Much of the literature on academic entitlement (Blincoe & Garris, 2017; Cain et al., 2012; Ciani et al., 2008; Delucchi & Korgen, 2002; Hartman, 2012; Lippmann et al., 2009; Peirone & Maticka-Tyndale, 2017; Vallade et al., 2014) has largely been descriptive rather than definitional as to the meaning of the term. For those who proffered a definition (Achacoso, 2006; Chowning & Campbell, 2009; Dubovsky, 1986; Greenberger et al., 2008; Jackson et al., 2011; Jeffres et al., 2014; Morrow, 1994; Reinhardt, 2012; Singleton-Jackson, et al., 2010), they typically focused on the cognitive aspect (Chowning & Campbell, 2009; Kopp et al., 2011; Singleton-Jackson et al., 2010) or behavioral (Greenberger et al., 2008; Jackson et al., 2011), but rarely on a definition inclusive of both elements. A working definition that is inclusive of both elements is central to this study, and thus provided here drawing on the contributions of multiple sources.

Academic entitlement is a dual construct, cognitive and behavioral, that encompasses a set of beliefs and expectations held by students, and the manifestation of those beliefs in certain behaviors. The beliefs and expectations include the sense that they are “entitled to or deserving of certain goods and services to be provided by their institutions and professors that is outside of the students’ actual performance or responsibilities inside the classroom” (Singleton-Jackson et

al., 2010, p. 344). Further, there is an “expectation of academic success without taking personal responsibility for achieving that success” (Chowning & Campbell 2009, p.982).

The behavioral element of academic entitlement includes demanding attitudes and behaviors towards faculty (Achacoso, 2006; Greenberger et al., 2008; Jackson et al., 2011), confrontational behavior when the grades earned do not match the students’ expectations (Kopp et al., 2011), and overtly blaming others or circumstances, such as faculty, the institution, etc. (Chowning & Campbell, 2009; Dubovsky, 1986) when the expected outcome is not achieved. This study is based on the inclusive definition described above, inclusive of beliefs and behaviors, although there may be occasions where one element is the primary focus.

Interestingly, notwithstanding the difference in the proposed definition, two common elements can be found among the descriptions. The definitions imply that academic entitlement is (a) associated with students’ lack of responsibility for their academic performance and their need to assign that responsibility to others (i.e., professors or classmates); and (b) it is associated with some undesirable implications. Academic entitlement reduces educators’ ability to teach effectively (Barrett & Scott, 2014), decreases faculty morale (Cain et al., 2012; Kopp & Finney, 2013), and results in overwhelmed and overworked faculty (Hartman, 2012). It also leads to increased rates of grade inflation, compromised university policies, (Cain et al., 2012; Mansfield, 2001), a decrease in the value of higher education degrees, and degradation of the integrity of the academic institution (Reinhardt, 2012). Other consequences of academic entitlement included student incivility (Cain et al., 2012; Chowning & Campbell, 2009; Kopp & Finney, 2013; Mansfield, 2001; Nordstrom et al., 2009) and the production of unskilled graduates (Cain et al., 2012). Due to the presence of academic entitlement behaviors in today’s classroom, and the

negative implications of such behaviors, it is essential that faculty members understand the construct.

Academic Entitlement Verses Entitlement

The phrase academic entitlement and the word entitlement are not one in the same and should not be used interchangeably or to replace one another. There are differences between the two. While academic entitlement is associated with negative implications, entitlement is associated with positive outcomes (Jackson et al., 2011) and signifies an individual's right to certain benefits or privileges (Campbell et al., 2004). Another difference is that, while the word entitlement is related to narcissistic behaviors, the term academic entitlement is associated with consumerist behaviors (Jeffres et al., 2014). While entitled individuals' self-perceptions of being superior and unique provide them with a rationale that a specific outcome is deserved, academically entitled students' perceptions of deservedness of an outcome stem from their belief that they are consumers engaging in a transaction and purchasing a degree (Campbell et al., 2004; Jeffres et al., 2014).

Student Consumerism Versus Academic Entitlement

Delucchi and Korgen (2002) reported that student consumerism is the belief that education is a commodity that must be purchased with tuition dollars. Cain et al. (2012) added to this definition and included that it also encompasses the belief that students should be catered to since they are paying consumers. Students with consumerist attitudes see universities as marketplaces and are of the opinion that paying education fees or tuition automatically qualifies them to be recipients of an educational degree (Cain et al., 2012; Delucchi & Korgen, 2002). The two different constructs, student consumerism and academic entitlement, are often used interchangeably; this most likely stems from their relationship and similarities and the increased

association of the two terms (Boretz, 2004; Cain et al., 2012; Delucchi & Korgen, 2002; Jeffers, 2014; Lagowski, 1981). Cain et al. (2012) purported that both terms insulate the belief that education is a commodity and students are consumers. However, a consumerist attitude is only one facet of academic entitlement.

Prevalence of Academic Entitlement

Despite any comparative studies that shows an increase in the prevalence in academic entitlement, a number of studies have reported that there is an increase in academic entitlement attitudes among university and college students (Chowning & Campbell, 2009; Hartman, 2012; Twenge, 2009; Vallade et al., 2014; Wankel & Wankel, 2012). Some researchers even reported a generational increase in academic entitlement in that there are increasing levels of academic entitlement among the “Me” generation or the millennial generation (Chowning & Campbell, 2009; Twenge, 2009, 2013, 2014). However, support for this increase is inconsistent. There seems to be disagreement as to whether higher education students today have more or higher levels of academic entitlement than generations before. Jeffres et al. (2014) reported that while there are students with academic entitlement in today’s class, there is no increase in prevalence. Jeffres et al.’s (2014) results are consistent with Lemke et al.’s (2017) results, which also did not find evidence of an increase in academic entitlement. On the contrary, Lemke et al. (2017) found a decline in academic entitlement from 2009 to 2017. They attribute this decline to a “drop in the proportion of males who felt academically entitled in 2009 (50%) compared to 2017 (34%), a much larger change than for females (from 34% in 2009 to 27% in 2017)” (Lemke et al., 2017, p. 7).

Academic entitlement is not a phenomenon that is exclusive to Western culture or to students and universities in the United States. Although most of the research conducted to date

is based on studies conducted at colleges and universities in the United States, a few studies on academic entitlement were done outside of the United States. One study was conducted in Saudi Arabia (Blincoe & Garris, 2017), three in Canada (Andrey et al., 2012; Peirone & Maticka-Tyndale, 2017; Singleton-Jackson et al., 2011), and one in Japan (Quinn & Matsuura, 2010). Using a two-factor structure that measures academic entitlement as entitled expectations and externalized responsibility, Blincoe and Garris (2017) found evidence of academic entitlement in Saudi Arabian university students. When compared to American university studies, higher levels of academic entitlement were reported in Saudi Arabian university students (Blinco & Garris, 2017). This result gave impetus to the findings of Witsman and Burdsal (2013), which suggest that international students, particularly Asian or Hispanic, are more likely to have academic entitlement actions and behaviors than American students. Witsman and Burdsal (2013) also reported that ethnic minorities who are born in the United States have fewer academic entitlement behaviors compared to their foreign-born counterparts. Contrary to studies conducted in the United States that reported higher levels on academic entitlement in males (Boswell, 2012; Chowning & Campbell, 2009; Ciani et al., 2008; Greenberger et al., 2008; Hartman, 2012), Blincoe and Garris (2017) found that female Saudi Arabian university students had higher levels of academic entitlement. Interestingly, Blincoe and Garris (2017) found a correlation between academic entitlement and self-esteem, and not with narcissism. This is in contrast to studies conducted by Singleton-Jackson et al. (2010), Menon and Sharland (2011), and Greenberger et al. (2008), who reported an association between academic entitlement and narcissism and a negative association between academic entitlement and self-esteem. Blincoe and Garris (2017) hypothesized that socioeconomic status could be a possible reason for the higher levels of academic entitlement among Saudi Arabian university student. The income

demographics for the study's participants indicated that median parental income was notably higher than the average per capita annual income in Saudi Arabia (Blincoe & Garris, 2017). However, the hypothesis that parental financing can lead to levels of academic entitlement in students could not be proven in the study's sample since university education is free for Saudi Arabia students (Blincoe & Garris, 2017). This raises another hypothesis that should not be overlooked. Since university education is free in Saudi Arabia, students may develop entitled expectations because their education is paid for by the country. This is contextually similar to this present study's hypothesis in that, if someone else is paying tuition costs, students may develop entitled expectations.

Using an online survey to measure academic entitlement, Peirone and Maticka-Tyndale (2017) reported a relationship between academic entitlement and prospective workplace entitlement in Canadian students. This finding is consistent with Chowning and Campbell (2009) and Greenberger et al.'s (2008) research findings which reported that higher levels of academic entitlement actions and behaviors are predictive of workplace entitlement. Chowning and Campbell (2009) and Greenberger et al. (2008) went on to advance the idea that both academic entitlement and prospective workplace entitlement are unique but related constructs. Peirone and Maticka-Tyndale (2017) also found higher levels of academic entitlement among Canadian graduate students than in Canadian undergraduate students.

Andrey et al. (2012) developed a questionnaire to measure the relationship between three learning styles specifically, "deep learning, surface learning, and strategic learning" (p. 22), and student academic entitlement behavior. Andrey et al. (2012) developed the questionnaire, drawing questions from Greenberger et al.'s. (2008) entitlement scale, and adapted it to the Canadian context. Their finding indicated that students use a combination of learning styles, and

that “approaches to learning intersect with students’ sense of entitlement in complex ways” (Andrey et al., 2012, p. 3).

Singleton-Jackson et al. (2011) measured academic entitlement in Canadian students through the use of formed conclusions from focus group findings. Six key themes emerged from their research: “product value of education, social promotion, role of professors, teaching assistants, administrators, and shoppers or scholars” (Singleton-Jackson et al., 2011, p.343). The results of their study concluded that Canadian university students view themselves as consumers (Singleton-Jackson et al., 2011). Although they did not compare Canadian university students to American university students, the results are consistent with studies done in the United States that found academically entitled students believe they are consumers engaging in a transaction and purchasing a degree (Campbell et al., 2004; Jeffres et al., 2014).

Quinn and Matsuura (2010) reported that both students and teachers in a Japanese university perceived effort to be more important than aptitude. The results of the study’s survey indicated that both parents and students expect students to be rewarded with good grades in exchange for their effort, irrespective of student’s academic achievements (Quinn & Matsuura, 2010). This reported outcome indicates that students have entitled expectations, and teacher’s attitudes are reinforcing the students’ entitled expectations.

For the most part, the results of these studies reflect what the American studies have found, with the exceptions being (a) the negative association between academic entitlement and narcissism and a positives association between academic entitlement and self-esteem, and (b) female students having higher levels of academic entitlement than their male counterparts (Blincoe & Garris, 2017). These international studies contribute to the overall research field because they provide empirical evidence that academic entitlement is a significant issue that is

not exclusive to American students. Findings from these studies demonstrate that academic entitlement is a global issue, and it demonstrates a significant need for further research in this area.

Contributing Factors and Predictors of Academic Entitlement

Academic entitlement is a relatively new, multifaceted, unique construct. As such, the causes are not well understood. Researchers have linked levels of academic entitlement to parenting style, family dynamics, (Ciani et al., 2008; Greenberger et al., 2008; Huang, 2017), societal factors (Chowning & Campbell, 2009; Greenberger et al., 2008; Hartman, 2012), and the education system (Achacoso, 2006; Greenberger et al., 2008). Academic entitlement is also associated with predictors such as academic dishonesty, age, gender, external performance indicators, and personality variables like narcissism and locus of control (Boswell, 2012; Cain et al., 2012; Campbell et al., 2004; Ciani et al., 2008; Foster et al., 2003; Greenberger et al., 2008; Hartman, 2012; Singleton-Jackson et al., 2011; Sohr-Preston & Boswell, 2012). “Traits such as a poor work ethic, and low degree of concern for how their behavior impacts others” also contributed to attitude of academic entitlement (Cain et al., 2012, p. 1194).

This section discusses the factors that contribute to a sense of academic entitlement. This is important as it shows what is there already based on the literature and what is missing, thus giving impetus to this study. This study hypothesizes that students who are personally responsible for paying their tuition fees (e.g., through a loan from student finance), as opposed to having their fees paid on their behalf (e.g., by a scholarship or employer or parents), would express higher levels of academic entitlement. If the hypothesis is found to be true, it can be inferred that means of education financing contributes to academic entitlement attitudes, thus,

adding the growing body of literature on the construct of academic entitlement through identification of another contributing factors to academic entitlement.

Parenting. There is an association between academic entitlement and parenting, and more specifically parenting style and parenting practices. According to Greenberger et al. (2008), parenting practices (such as parents having high expectation with regards to their children's grade achievement and negative consequences for failure to meet the expectations) is positively correlated with levels of academic entitlement in students. Greenberger et al. provided empirical evidences for the association between academically entitled students and parents' expectation of academic achievements, how parents compare their children to others, and how parents reward their children for grades. According to Greenberger et al., students with higher level of academic entitlement report excessive pressure from their parents to obtain good grades. Although Cornell (2014) agreed that parenting practices could lead to a sense of academic entitlement, the author questioned whether or not it contributes to varying levels of academic entitlement among students. However, the author postulated that being helicopter parents, characterized by over-involvement and low autonomy granting, is related to a sense of academic entitlement and the level of academic entitlement in students (Cornell, 2014). Cornell postulated that helicopter parenting is associated with undesirable entitlement behaviors that may have negative consequences for academic achievement. Over-parenting can lead to a student having achievement anxiety and a focus on grades instead of mastery of content and learning (Greenberger et al., 2008). Extrinsic rewards for achievement may exacerbate the achievement anxiety (Greenberger et al., 2008).

Academic dishonesty. Academically entitled students are less concerned with the learning process and more fixated on the outcome (Frey, 2015). To this end, Sohr-Preston and

Boswell (2012) reported that students with levels of academic entitlement would focus on results such as the “external performance indicators” rather than “mastering a topic area” (p. 21).

Therefore, it is a reasonable assumption that these students are likely to engage in or employ dishonest practices, such as cheating or plagiarism, to obtain the desired result. Greenberger et al. (2008) were among the first to make the association between students with academic entitlement and engaging in dishonest practices to achieve academic success. Subsequently, Chowning and Campbell (2009) and Brown, Budzek, and Tamborski (2009) also found a positive correlation between students with academic entitlement and attempts to employ dishonest practices. Brown et al.’s (2009) findings also echoed Greenberger et al.’s (2008) motivational findings, which suggested that students with high levels of academic entitlement are more extrinsically motivated. Not only do the academically entitled students engage in dishonest practices, they actually believe that dishonest practices are acceptable since they would improve their chances of academic success (Frey, 2015). Consistent with Frey’s (2015) finding, Elias’s (2017) study on the relationship between academic entitlement and ethical perceptions of cheating actions found that students who have higher levels of academic entitlement “believe that cheating is a legitimate mean of achieving their objective” (p. 198).

Gender. There are limited studies that used gender as an independent variable to determine its relationship to levels of academic entitlement (Achacoso, 2006; Blincoc & Garris, 2017; Boswell, 2012; Chowning & Campbell, 2009; Ciani et al., 2008; Hartman, 2012). Boswell’s (2012), Ciani et al.’s (2008), and Hartman’s (2012) findings indicated that gender is a noteworthy predictor of levels of academic entitlement, with males being more likely to have levels of academic entitlement than females. Although not central to their study, Greenberger et al. (2008) indicated that entitlement attitudes appear to be more common in male students than

female students. However, it should be noted that Greenberger et al. (2008) only reported a minor association: “males scored slightly higher on academic entitlement than females – male = 2.80 and female = 2.59, respectively” (p. 1197). These researchers’ results are in contrast to Blincoe and Garris’s (2017) and Achacoso’s (2006) findings which noted the opposite; they found that entitlement attitudes tend to be more prevalent in female students than male students. Achacoso’s (2006) study was the only study in the United States that found females to have greater entitlement attitudes. In a study conducted in a Saudi Arabian university, Blincoe and Garris (2017) reported that female Saudi Arabian university students had higher levels of academic entitlement than male Saudi Arabian university students.

Based on past research on gender and pay entitlement, Ciani et al. (2008) and Boswell (2012) theorized that the differences in gender and academic entitlement are the result of conditioning related to workforce history in which males receive more pay than females for the same amount of work or for shorter hours. Males are conditioned to believe they can demand more than females, and females are conditioned to expect less than males (Ciani et al., 2008; Desmarais & Curtis, 1997; Hogue, Yoder, & Singleton, 2007). This conditioning manifests itself in academic settings, particularly as educational institutions take no measures to curb these gender disparities. Boswell (2012) also theorized that the differences in levels of academic entitlement might also stem from “gendered socialization experiences” (p. 361). Males are conditioned to value accomplishment more than their female counterparts. Since academic entitlement entails the expectation of academic success and accomplishment, it stands to reason that males would have greater entitlement attitudes because they are conditioned to do so. According to Boswell (2012) men “have been socialized to perform well and achieve success in their pursuits” (p. 361). As such, higher education male students believe they are more entitled

to academic achievement because “they have internalized the expectation that men should be successful” (Boswell, 2012, p. 361).

Narcissism. People who are narcissists are generally overconfident. According to Twenge and Campbell (2009), narcissists often demand a high level of attention and superior treatment and resorts to all manners of manipulation to achieve it. They believe they are special and should receive favorable treatment because they are entitled to it and not because of accomplishment or good deed (Twenge & Campbell, 2009). Studies on narcissism in the educational setting address the phenomena from different perspectives: its relationship with learning and its effects on academic outcomes (Godkin & Allcorn, 2009; Watson, 2012); the narcissism epidemic and its association to millennials (Twenge, 2014; Twenge & Campbell, 2009; Twenge & Foster, 2008); the relationship between narcissism, personality traits, and student learning (Watson, 2012); and academic dishonesty (Brunell, Staats, Barden, & Hupp, 2011; Menon & Sharland, 2011). However, only a few researchers have explored the association between students’ narcissism levels and academic entitlement behaviors and actions (Chowning & Campbell, 2009; Greenberger et al., 2008; Menon & Sharland, 2011). Similar to psychological entitlement, these studies found a statistical link between narcissist students and levels of academic entitlement. However, academic entitlement is not merely a manifestation of narcissism or physiological entitlement. Greenberger et al.’s (2008) finding implied that academic entitlement is a separate and distinct construct that is moderately correlated with physiological entitlement and narcissism.

Greenberger et al. (2008) and Chowning and Campbell (2009) were among the first to report a positive relationship with narcissism and academic entitlement. A few years later, Menon and Sharland (2011) confirmed the correlation (Pearson correlation = .369) between

narcissism and academic entitlement. Menon and Sharland (2011) expanded this by stating that the positive relationship between academic entitlement and narcissism is mediated by the academically entitled students' exploitive attitudes. The authors found that "narcissism and academic entitlement are statistically significant predictors of an exploitative attitude, $F = 31.44$, $p = .000$, with both predictor variables significant at the .01 level" (Menon & Sharland, 2011, p. 54). On the other hand, Greenberger et al. (2008) only reported a strong positive relationship between exploitive attitudes and academic entitlement and a moderate relationship to narcissism.

As generational narcissism increases, evidence points to a related rise in academic entitlement among millennials (Campbell et al., 2004; Twenge, 2009; Twenge, Konrath, Foster, Campbell, & Bushman, 2008). Since narcissism is a facet of entitlement, as narcissism increases in the classroom, entitlement attitudes, behaviors, and actions will all also increase. Because narcissists believe they are entitled to something, narcissist students would expect high grades, not from mastery of educational content, but for non-academic aspects of education, such as showing up to class, participating in class, or paying tuition (Bunce et al., 2017; Plunkett, 2014). Other academic entitlement behaviors that are related to narcissism include behaviors that undermine faculty classroom authority (Twenge et al., 2008).

There is not a consensus as to what led to the perceived rise of narcissism among college students. It has been suggested that the narcissism is an outcome of parents and K-12 teachers and an overemphasis on services to higher education students (Singleton-Jackson et al., 2010). Twenge (2009) attributed the increase to social problems and diminished work ethic. While there is no debate against the association between narcissism and academic entitlement, not all the evidence supports the idea that millennial students are more narcissist than other generational cohorts (Trzensniewski, Donnellan, & Robins, 2008). However, it should be noted that the

difference in results can be attributed to sampling procedures as well as differences in statistical analyses. Trzensniewski et al. (2008) noted the limitations with Twenge et al.'s (2008) study (small sample and use of meta-analysis) and replicated the study using a larger sample that was more representative of the study's population and different statically techniques for data analysis.

Locus of control. Locus of control, a concept stemming from personality psychology, refers to the degree to which a person believes that control resides internally within him- or herself, or externally, with others or the situation (Rotter, 1954, 1966). Rotter (1990) advanced the notion that internal control is the "degree to which persons expect that a reinforcement or an outcome of their behavior is contingent on their own behavior or personal characteristics" (p. 489). Alternatively, he described external locus of control as the "degree to which persons expect that the reinforcement or outcome is a function of chance, luck, or fate, is under the control of powerful others, or is simply unpredictable" (Rotter, 1990, p. 489). Ozmete (2007) postulated that a person's attribution style will influence the forces "they hold responsible for their successes and failures. Both locus of control and attribution styles have a significant impact on motivation, expectations, self-esteem, risk-taking behavior, and even on the actual outcome of actions" (p. 692).

Academically entitled students believe that failure to learn or achieve is due to problems with the educators or the education system as opposed to the student's own inadequacies (Dubovsky, 1986). As such, it is not surprising that there is a relationship between academically entitled students and locus of control, more specifically with external locus of control, since these students externalize responsibility for their academic success and/or failures (Achacoso, 2006; Chowning & Campbell, 2009; Kopp et al., 2011; Kopp & Finney, 2013). These students with an external locus of control believe that outside forces are responsible for their successes

and/or failures, and they are less intrinsically motivated to work hard to achieve their potential (Kopp et al., 2011).

Academic Entitlement Measurement Tools

Over the years, there have been a number of tools constructed to measure academic entitlement behavior and attitudes (Achacoso, 2006; Andrey et al., 2012; Chowning & Campbell, 2009; Greenberger et al., 2008; Kopp et al., 2011; Singleton-Jackson et al., 2010; Wasieleski et al., 2014). However, since there is no universal definition of academic entitlement, and because the definitions vary, the tools developed also vary regarding what they measure. Although there are various tools that have been developed, only a few of these tools have been validated (Chowning & Campbell, 2009; Greenberger et al., 2008; Kopp et al., 2011).

The AES was the first tool created to measure academic entitlement. Achacoso (2006) created this tool during a study that examined the causal attributions of academic entitlement. The AES is a two-factor scale that measures two aspects of academic entitlement according to the definition proposed: entitlement beliefs and entitlement actions. The entitlement beliefs factor uses five questions to examine the strength of student's beliefs of entitlement. An example of a corresponding question would be "I should only be required to do a minimal amount of thinking to get an A in a class" (Hartman, 2012, p. 46). The entitlement actions element uses seven questions to examine the kind of actions an entitled student would take, such as, "I would argue with the professor to get more points on a test" or "If I felt an instructor's grading was unfair, I would tell the instructor" (Hartman, 2012, p. 46). Similarly, to Achacoso's (2006) instrument, Chowning and Campbell's (2009) scale measures two aspects of academic entitlement; however, the scales differ in the dimension of academic entitlement they assess. Chowning and Campbell's subscales measure academic entitlement in terms of externalized

responsibility and entitled expectation. Externalized responsibility encompasses the amount of responsibility students assume for their academic achievement, while entitled expectation refers to the demands students have of educators (Chowning & Campbell, 2009). Alternatively, Greenberger et al.'s (2008) instrument attempts to measure the students' perceptions and feelings. Kopp et al. (2011) took a different approach and developed a five-factor scale that measured the psychometric aspect of academic entitlement. In addition to measuring the psychometric aspect of academic entitlement, this scale differs from the others because, unlike the first three validated measures, it measures aspects pertaining to student consumerism (Kopp et al., 2011). The scale has been criticized for being ambiguous as to whether the questionnaire covered the academic entitlement in its entirety or if it just covered specific aspects of academic entitlement (Kopp et al., 2011).

Two years after Achacoso's (2006) AES was created, Greenberger et al. (2008) attempted to develop a validated 15-items scale to measure academic entitlement among university students. This tool was also based on their definition of academic entitlement and the general entitlement description proposed by Chowning and Campbell (2009): "a pervasive sense that one deserves more and is entitled to more than others" (p. 31). Although the authors reported a total validity score of $\alpha = .87$ (Greenberger et al., 2008), the conclusions drawn from the results of the tool may be suspect (Kopp et al., 2011) because its structure cannot be investigated; Greenberger et al. (2008) failed to provide adequate information regarding the scales development. Thus, it is difficult to adequately assess the scale validity process.

In 2009, Chowning and Campbell (2009) developed a 15-item self-report, two-factor scale. The first part, externalized responsibility, uses ten questions to assess how much responsibility students assume for their own academic achievements, while the second facet,

entitled expectation, uses five questions to measure what the students expect from faculty (Chowning & Campbell, 2009). Both subscales have high external validity; however, the entitled expectation subscale has low reliability. The externalized responsibility subscale has reliability scores ranging from $\alpha = .71$ to $.83$, and the entitled expectation subscale has reliability scores from $\alpha = .62$ to $.69$.

The third validated measure of academic entitlement is the Academic Entitlement Questionnaire (AEQ). The AEQ was developed by Kopp et al. (2011) after the authors criticized Chowning and Campbell's (2009) and Greenberger et al.'s (2008) tools for having questionable psychometric properties. The AEQ has a five-part structure and measures the psychometric properties of academic entitlement. This tool is based on students' beliefs that knowledge is owed to them and must be provided to them by faculty, that they are not responsible for their failures, that they have the authority and the right to make demands, and that they are consumers (Kopp et al., 2011). This scale differs from the other scales in that it is the only scale that measures the consumerist aspect of academic entitlement (Kopp et al., 2011). The validated measures show the conceptual differences in the definitions. Greenberger et al.'s (2008) AES measures students' beliefs and their expectation of entitlement. Chowning and Campbell's (2009) AES measures externalized responsibility and entitled expectation. Kopp et al.'s (2011) AEQ is based on students' conceptualization of academic entitlement and measures psychometric properties, and consumerist attitudes.

Recognized Academic Entitlement Behaviors

Various researchers have advanced common characteristics of students with academic entitlement behaviors and attitudes, and these characteristics can be used to identify academically entitled students. Academically entitled students may display a combination of the

following behaviors: They often fail to engage in class discussion or any activities; they refuse to respond to the professors' questions and possess the belief that asking students questions is not part of the professors' job; and they believe that educators are simply supposed to provide students with knowledge (Chowning & Campbell, 2009; Dubovsky, 1986). Students with attitudes of academic entitlement make outrageous demands and requests and expect professors to reply to their emails promptly (Achacoso, 2006).

Students with attitudes of academic entitlement do not follow rules and believe that they are the exception to the rule and expect rules to be changed to accommodate them (Achacoso, 2006). They also expect others to do the work for them, and as such, they make little or no contribution to group work (Chowning & Campbell, 2009). They do not believe that assignments should be evaluated based on accurateness and completeness but rather on what they feel they deserve (Kopp et al., 2011). Therefore, they often make demands for achievements and rewards that are not merited. Because they pay tuition, these individuals believe that certain accomplishments are guaranteed (Achacoso, 2006). When the expected achievement is not acquired, instead of accepting responsibility, they often blame the professor or the education system (Chowning & Campbell, 2009; Dubovsky, 1986). Aggressive confrontation with the faculty is another action that academically entitled students often employ to get what they want (Kopp et al., 2011).

Consequences of Academic Entitlement

Due to the perceived increase in the prevalence of academic entitlement, researchers began to examine its consequences (Barrett & Scott, 2014; Brophy, 2010; Cain et al., 2012; Greenberger et al., 2008; Kopp & Finney, 2013; Mansfield, 2001; Reinhardt, 2012). Academic entitlement is associated with negative implications for faculty and the academic institutions

(Sessoms et al., 2016). For professors, one of the main implications of academic entitlement is that it decreases their capacity to instruct effectively (Barrett & Scott, 2014). Professors often have to modify their classroom practices to accommodate students with attitudes of academic entitlement. This practice often results in a decrease in the morale of the professors (Cain et al., 2012; Kopp & Finney, 2013). Attitudes of academic entitlement can also lead to administrative problems, such as higher rates of grade inflation, compromised university policies (Cain et al., 2012; Mansfield, 2001), and degradation of the integrity of the academic institution (Reinhardt, 2012). To placate the consumerist attitude of the academically entitled students, faculty may be inclined to award students higher grades (Cain et al., 2012; Mansfield, 2001). Inflated grades may also be given to avoid negative reviews on course evaluations (Caruth & Caruth, 2013). Grade inflation can in turn negatively affect the standard and the reputation of the institution (Caruth & Caruth, 2013; Singleton-Jackson et al., 2010). Additionally, grade inflation can lead to a decrease in the worth of higher education degrees and the production of unskilled graduates (Cain et al., 2012). Academic entitlement is one of the most commonly cited drivers of uncivil behavior (Cain et al., 2012; Chowning & Campbell, 2008; Kopp & Finney, 2013; Mansfield, 2001; Nordstrom et al., 2009). The display of uncivil behavior usually occurs when those who display entitled behaviors fail to achieve the desired outcome (Cain et al., 2012; Kopp & Finney, 2013; Morrow, 1994). Another consequence to the academic institution is that it leads to overwhelmed and overworked faculty (Hartman, 2012). Students with academic entitlement attitudes have unrealistic demands of faculty and their time. These students also expect faculty members to cater to their desires and go to extraordinary lengths to meet their needs (Achacoso, 2006; Hartman, 2012).

Distracts from the learning process. The overarching aim of higher education is “to enable society to make progress through an understanding of itself and its world; in short, to sustain a learning society” (National Committee of Inquiry into Higher Education, 1997, p. 72). To achieve this aim, employees of higher education institution strives to motivate students to develop multiple intelligences and reach their highest potential, thus preparing them to for the world of work and to contribute to society. The rapid changes and increased complexity of today’s society present new challenges and demands on the education system. One such demand is the change in the learning process (Saavedra & Opfer, 2012). Twenty-first-century learning is not merely learning with digital technology; rather it is a way of thinking. It is more focused on creation and critical thinking than on compliance (Saavedra & Opfer, 2012). Elements of this new process include the following: students becoming active learners, students taking responsibility for their learning, students engaging in deep learning, and students developing an increased sense of autonomy (Saavedra & Opfer, 2012). Students with academically entitled attitudes can cloud the goals of higher education and distract from the learning process. Irvine, Code, and Richards (2013) postulated that “twenty-first-century learners have expectations that are not met within the current model of education” (p.172). The new role of the student is to take responsibility for his or her learning. The system has moved from teacher-centered designs to “learner-centered designs, shifting focus to process and not product” (Irvine et al., 2013, p.173). In the learner-centered design, students are self-directed and are afforded the opportunity to make their own decision about their learning process – what and how (Saavedra & Opfer, 2012).

Academically entitled students are often performance-oriented and ego-oriented (Brophy, 2010; Hartman, 2012). As such, they seek to prove their competence as opposed to improving

their competence. To them, learning is a competition, so they try to display a competence relative to their classmates, such as by trying to appear smart instead of concentrating on the development of their abilities and competence relative to the task (Hartman, 2012). Therefore, these students may avoid difficult tasks because they perceived these tasks as threats to acquiring passing grades. They also reject the opportunity to learn new information if there is a risk of failing (Brophy, 2010).

Kopp and Finney (2013) purported that there is a theoretical link between academic entitlement and student incivility. However, Chowning and Campbell (2009) found a positive correlation between the two. Academically entitled students often engage in some uncivil student behaviors in the classroom that distract themselves and their peers from learning (Knepp 2012; Kopp & Finney, 2013). Chowning and Campbell (2009) reported that some of these behaviors include “sending wireless messages [in lecture], arriving late to class, leaving class early, and inappropriate use of laptop computers in class” (p. 982). Other behaviors, as posited by Cain et al. (2012) and Knepp (2012), include not participating in class and making unreasonable requests of faculty. These behaviors “distract the instructor or other students, disrupt classroom learning, discourage the instructor from teaching, discourage other students from participating, [and] derail the instructor’s goals for the period” (Bjorklund & Rehling, 2010, p. 16).

When academically entitled students’ expectations are not met, these students engaged in aggressive behaviors. Additionally, as discussed earlier, when working in groups, academically entitled students often fail to contribute, thereby forcing others to work harder or accept the consequences of lower grades (Chowning & Campbell, 2009). These behaviors can have negative implications for the success of the group and cause conflicts within the class and among

classmates. Conflicts can indirectly affect student performance by impeding students' ability to learn and to thrive at the university. Not only is the learning process affected by conflicts, but the teaching process is also impacted.

Grade inflation. Students with attitudes of academic entitlement see themselves as consumers engaging in a transaction in which they are paying an educational fee in exchange for good grades or even a degree (Mansfield, 2001). The consumerist attitude is usually accompanied by unrealistic demands and expectations about what students believe they purchase. The students demand high grades, extensions on assignments, or for the professor to accept incomplete assignments for unsubstantial reasons such as they have lives outside the classroom (Reinhardt, 2012). To avoid failing an assignment or a class, to avoid academic probation, or to avoid losing academic funding, the academically entitled students will demand higher grades (Reinhardt, 2012). It is not uncommon for some faculty member to give in to the consumers' (students') demands for higher grades that were not earned. They may give into the demands for two reasons: either because they view students as consumers or out of fear of a poor evaluation. Poor evaluations of the professors by students could impede professors who are on a tenure-track and may delay professors' tenure (Haskell, 1997; Krautmann & Sander, 1999; Simpson & Siguaw, 2000).

Grade inflation has a negative implication for both the students and the university. When grades fail to become an accurate depiction of students' academic performance, the value of a teacher's assessments, as a tool for quality control for the university, is questionable. Moreover, the students who are given passing grades for low quality work fail to learn their academic strengths and weaknesses, in addition to developing the belief that things can come easily. Additionally, grade inflation can lead to a decrease in the worth of higher education degrees and

the production unskilled graduates (Cain et al., 2012). Singleton-Jackson et al. (2010) warned about the degradation of the core values of higher education institutions. They explained that by awarding academic merits to students who feel entitled to receive them, without the accompanying acquisition of knowledge and effort, might result in a destabilization of standards in education (Singleton-Jackson et al., 2010). In their writing about academic entitlement and grade inflation, Cain et al. (2012) advanced the viewpoint that providing students with degrees not earned can result in a decrease in the worth of higher education degrees and the production of graduates who are unprepared and unskilled for the workforce. Cain et al. (2012), Nordstrom et al. (2009), and Chowning and Campbell (2009) established the idea that a relationship exists between students with high levels of academic entitlement and uncivil behavior, such as displays of aggression. The display of uncivil behaviors, which usually occurs when entitled behaviors fail to produce the desired outcome, have been reported to lead to an increase in incivility among other students (Cain et al., 2012; Kopp & Finney, 2013; Morrow, 1994). Mellor (2011) posited the causal attributions for levels of academic entitlement and uncivil behavior in higher education to Weiner's (1986) three casual dimensions: locus of control, stability, and controllability of the behavior.

Decrease in faculty morale. Another unintended consequence that results from academic entitlement is a decrease in faculty morale. A decrease in faculty morale also occurs when faculty members frequently encounter uncivil and consumerist attitudes from academically entitled students (Cain et al., 2012). Delucchi and Korgen (2002) indicated that these encounters contributed to faculty developing a contempt toward students and possibly the entire educational process. Uncivil behavior that is not addressed may result in students developing grander feelings of empowerment and/or escalated incivility. Consequently, faculty “may perceive that

students do not value or respect them, which can complicate relationships and ultimately impact morale” (Cain et al., 2012, p.5). Additionally, when professors habitually give their students grades that are higher than they deserve, the students become complacent. Due to the complacent behaviors, the professors struggle to motivate students to do the required work. This results in a decrease in the professors’ morale as they develop feelings of disempowerment and combat feelings of failure due to their inability to motivate student and drive them to achieve academic success through hard work (Cain et al., 2012).

Overwhelmed and overworked faculty. Today’s “me” generation of academically entitled students includes students who have unrealistic demands and expectations. These unrealistic demands and expectations include “unreasonable expectations of high grades for modest effort” (Greenberg et al., 2008, p. 1193) along with unrealistic expectations of the professors, instructor time, the faculty availability, and the academic institution (Chowning & Campbell, 2009; Dubovsky, 1986; Greenberg et al., 2008). The academic staff may not be equipped to deal with such demands and expectations. The academically entitled students expect faculty members, in particular their instructors, to go to extraordinary length to appease their needs (Achacoso, 2006; Hartman, 2012). They believe that they have the right to demand and haggle with the professors for raised grades – grades that they perceived they deserve as opposed to what they actually earned (Greenberger et al., 2008; Jackson et al., 2011). They may even “plead cases of dire negative personal consequences if demands for awarding of higher grades are not met” (Hartman, 2012, p.3). They also expect the professors to supply them with all the information they need. Fulfilling these unrealistic demands and expectation can result is the faculty be overworked or overwhelmed.

Summary

The term academic entitlement has become increasingly commonplace within the higher education intuition recently. However, due to its multifaceted nature and its infancy, to date, there is no universal definition of the construct. Over the years, researchers have taken different approaches to defining the construct and have proposed varying definitions or variants of existing definitions of academic entitlement (Achacoso, 2006; Chowning & Campbell, 2009; Greenberger et al., 2008; Jackson et al., 2011; Kopp et al., 2011; Reinhardt, 2012; Singleton-Jackson et al., 2010). However, despite the differences in how the construct is defined, common elements include students having a feeling of grade entitlement, behavioral entitlement, and service entitlement (Luckett et al., 2017). Furthermore, despite the variations in the definitional specificity of the construct, the definitions align to suggest an association with negative implication such as such as grade inflation (Cain et al., 2012; Mansfield, 2001), degradation of the integrity of the academic institution (Reinhardt, 2012), student incivility, change in lecturing patterns, and a decrease in faculty morale (Cain et al., 2012; Nordstrom et al., 2009).

Along with entitlement beliefs and attitudes, students often possess consumerist mindsets. The student as a consumer approach to higher education is increasing. Students are of the opinion that because they “are paying for their education, they deserve to be treated as customers in every sense of the word” (Cain et al., 2012, p.1). These students hold the notion that that education is a commodity or can be commodified and exchange for tuition and academic fees (Singleton-Jackson et al., 2010). Williams (2013) reported that the consumeristic approach to higher education has advantages because of the shift in power. However, Molesworth, Nixon, and Scullion (2009) posited that it concerning to the higher education institutions that do not regard education as a commodity, a product, or a service. The student as a consumer approach is

alarming because it is associated with a decrease in academic standards, and it promotes a culture in which the focus is on obtaining a degree, as opposed to becoming a scholar or a student who has the ability to think critically (Molesworth et al., 2009).

There is a lack of understanding of causal factors and the predictors associated with academic entitlement. Previous studies have associated academic entitlement with parenting styles such as permissive parenting and over-parenting (Ciani et al., 2008; Huang, 2017) and the education system (Achacoso, 2006; Greenberger et al., 2008). The empirically identified predictors of academic entitlement include academic dishonesty (Greenberger et al., 2008), age (Jones, 2013; Witsman & Burdsal, 2013), gender (Boswell, 2012; Campbell et al., 2004; Ciani et al., 2008), personal variables such as locus of control, and narcissism (Cain et al., 2012; Greenberger et al., 2008; Hartman, 2012). Additional research needs to be conducted to further explore the causal factors and the predictors of academic entitlement, as data in this area is limited. This study aims to add to this growing body of research.

This study examined the extent of who is responsible for paying a student's tuition fees and the impact of this variable on levels of academic entitlement. Specifically, it tested the hypothesis that students who are personally responsible for paying their tuition fees (e.g., through a loan from student finance), as opposed to having their fees paid on their behalf (e.g., by a scholarship or employer or parents), would express higher levels of academic entitlement, which in turn would be associated with lower academic performance and higher consumer orientation. Because the focus of this study is on how the source of tuition funding affects academic entitlement, attribution and self-determination motivational theories are relevant theoretical constructs to use. This use is due to the theoretical link between the construct of academic entitlement to external attributions and the locus dimension of attributions.

Connecting the bridge between locus of control and motivation is key in establishing the theoretical connections between academic entitlement and motivation. Previous research has established a link between extrinsic motivation and academic entitlement (Achacoso, 2006; Greenberger et al., 2008) and academic entitlement and higher levels of external locus of control (Achacoso, 2006; Chowning & Campbell, 2009; Kopp & Finney, 2013). However, it should be noted that the focus of this study did not explicitly cover motivation as a factor. Sources of tuition funding does not necessarily have a connection to motivation. To date, no published studies on undergraduate students' levels of academic entitlement were found that assessed differences based on the source of funding for college.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODS

Overview

Chapter three encompasses a discussion of the research design that was used and its appropriateness to this current study. In addition, this chapter includes the research question, the null hypotheses, a description of the target population, sampling methods and size, and other research procedures such as instrumentation and data collection. This chapter also contains a discussion of the data analysis techniques that were utilized in this study, with specific information regarding the statistical procedures that were used to analyze the data collected during this study.

Design

This study used a causal-comparative research design. A “causal-comparative research is a type of nonexperimental investigation in which researchers seek to identify cause-and-effect relationships” (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007, p. 306). This type of research seeks to identify associations among variables. Further, it attempts to determine the cause or consequences of differences that already exist between or among groups of individuals by controlling for extraneous variables and thus eliminating other possible causes for the effect (Gall et al., 2007). It is considered ex-post facto research because it relies on observation of relationships between naturally occurring variations in the independent and dependent variables. This study is ex-post facto because the students’ entitlement attitudes have already been formed. This study began with the causes and investigated the effects of a condition. Accordingly, this research began investigating the research question when the effects (academic entitlement actions and/or behaviors) have already occurred and attempted to determine whether one variable may have influenced another variable. This study is also group comparison research because the

independent variable is made up of two comparison groups (financially independent and financially dependent undergraduate university students) that were not be manipulated. The research examined whether students who differ on the independent variable (means of financing education) also differ on the dependent variable (academic entitlement actions and/or behaviors).

According to Gall et al. (2007), causal-comparative research design is appropriate when the study aims to examine the effect of the independent variable – categorization on a nominal scale (means of education financing), and the dependent variable (attitude of academic entitlement). This design was also appropriate because it allowed the researcher to look at data that was already available and determine the cause and effect relationship between the data. Additionally, the participants were in a naturally occurring environment: their university.

Research Question

The research question for this study is:

RQ1: Do financially dependent and financially independent undergraduate university students differ in entitlement beliefs, entitlement actions, and/or a combination of entitlement beliefs and actions?

Hypotheses

The null hypotheses for this study are:

H₀₁: There is no statistically significant difference in *entitlement actions* as shown by the Academic Entitlement Scale between financially dependent and financially independent undergraduate university students

H₀₂: There is no statistically significant difference in *entitlement beliefs* as shown by the Academic Entitlement Scale between financially dependent and financially independent undergraduate university students

H₀₃: There is no statistically significant difference in the *combination of entitlement beliefs and actions* as shown by the Academic Entitlement Scale between financially dependent and financially independent undergraduate university students.

Participants and Setting

This section delineates the research participants and setting. It provides a description of the source and number of participants used in the study. It also provides the specific sampling procedures that were used, the rationale for selecting a given number of participants, and the number of participants necessary for this study's design.

Sample Population

The concentration of this study focused on students in northern California. The study's target population is undergraduate students enrolled at a state university. The pseudonym Briones State University (BSU), was used to protect the university's identity. BSU is large four-year public university that operates on the quarter system. It is comprised of three campuses and offers bachelor's degrees, master's degrees, and doctoral degrees. The university, which has approximately 15,051 enrolled students, is recognized as an Asian-American and Native American Pacific Islander-serving institution.

Of the total number of students enrolled 11,960 were full-time and 3,091 were part-time; 62% were female and 49% were male; 12,687 were undergraduate students and 2364 were graduate students. The school has a mixed population: 10% Black, 0.2% American Indian or Alaska Native, 22% Asian, 0.8% Hawaiian/other Pacific Islander, 30% Hispanic, 18% White, 5% mixed raced (multi-racial), and 4% race unknown. The institution was selected based on the researcher's professional association and its proximity to where the researcher resides.

Sample Size

Using the sample size table, a sample size that is sufficiently large enough to determine whether financially dependent and financially independent undergraduate university students differ in levels of academic entitlement was calculated. The number of undergraduate students in the study's population is 12,687. Using the sample size tables (sample size $\pm 5\%$ precision levels where confidence level is 95%), a sample size representative of this population was 373. Therefore, a minimum of 373 students was needed in the study. This number meets the recommended minimum for causal-comparative research. For causal-comparative research, Gall et al. (2007) recommend a minimum of 30 participants per group and a minimum sample size of 100 participants for an independent samples t-test with $\alpha = .05$, medium effect size, and statistical power of 0.7. The study used convenience sampling. All undergraduate students who completed the questionnaires and meet the requirements of the study were used. Participants were not be selected or denied participation based on biological sex, race/ethnicity, or any other characteristics.

Instrumentation

Achacoso's (2006) AES was used to measure levels of academic entitlement, entitlement actions, and entitlement beliefs. Achacoso (2006) started the development of the scale by generating a 50-item questionnaire derived from open-ended interviews with five university teachers. The 50-item questionnaire was administered to students in six focus groups. The completed questionnaires, along with suggestions from the focus groups, led to construction of a 75-item questionnaire. This 75-item questionnaire was administered to a class of undergraduate students. Using a combination of exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis, Achacoso (2006) produced a self-report, 12-item, two-factor measure of academic entitlement –

entitlement beliefs and entitlement actions. The entitlement beliefs factor uses five questions to examine the strength of student's beliefs of entitlement. An example of a corresponding question would be "I should only be required to do a minimal amount of thinking to get an A in a class" (Hartman, 2012, p. 46). The entitlement actions factor uses seven questions to examine the kind of actions an entitled student would take, such as "I would argue with the professor to get more points on a test," or "If I felt an instructor's grading was unfair, I would tell the instructor" (Hartman, 2012, p. 46). The instrument uses a seven-point Likert scale that range from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 7 = "strongly agree." Total scores for this instrument range from 12 to 84. A high score of 84 would mean that the student possesses high levels of the proposed construct academic entitlement, while a low score of 12 would mean that the students possess low levels of the proposed construct academic entitlement. Scores for the entitlement beliefs subscale would range from 5 to 35, and scores for the entitlement actions subscale would range from 7 to 49.

Achacoso (2006) reported that Cronbach's Alpha for the entitlement belief subscale was .83 and .91 for the entitlement action subscale. This suggests an adequate degree of reliability for a new instrument. Similar Cronbach's alphas for the entitlement belief and entitlement action subscales .84 and .86, respectively, and 0.87 and 0.88 respectively were reported in other studies (Ciani et al., 2008; Frederick, Barnard-Brak & Frederick, 2012). The AES (Achacoso, 2006) has been used in a few studies to date (Ciani et al., 2008; Frederick, et al., 2012; Hartman, 2012; Mateescu, 2015; Pimentel, 2011; Reinhardt 2012). Permission was granted to use the AEQ in this study (see Appendix A).

Procedures

The research proposal was submitted to Liberty's and BSU's Institutional Review Board

(IRB) for approval. Once approval was granted by the IRB, formal permission was sought from IRB Coordinator, and the Director of Institutional Effectiveness & Research of BSU (see Appendices B, C). After all formal approval was obtained, a mass email was sent to all undergraduate students at BSU (see Appendix D). The email informed the students about the study and requested their participation. Contained in the email was a link to the participant's respective informed consent form (see Appendix E). After reading the consent form and clicking a link at the bottom of the page that reads "completion of the survey indicates consent," participants were redirected to the survey site located at [surveymonkey.com](https://www.surveymonkey.com). The anonymous, online survey remained opened for one month. In an effort to get the best possible number of responses, reminder emails were sent to participants who had not completed the survey. The reminder email was sent out every Friday during the month during which data were collected (see Appendix F). The emails were clear about their content and honored any and all opt-out requests received.

Participants were informed that the survey was anonymous, and no attempt was made to identify any participants. Participants were informed of the following: that there were no foreseeable risks or discomforts from participation in this study; no injuries or complications were likely to be caused by this study; they could discontinue participation at any time; there were no costs for taking part in this study except for the time spent taking the survey (estimated at 15 minutes); and they would receive no compensation for participation.

Participants were asked preliminary questions before taking the survey. Those questions include demographic information questions such as gender, age, and ethnicity, as well as questions about area of study, academic classification, and means of education financing. (see Appendix G). Participants were then asked to complete the Achacoso (2006) AES. The 7-point

Likert scale ranges from 1 = “strongly disagree” to 7 = “strongly agree” and consists of two subscales: entitlement beliefs (first five questions) and entitlement actions (last seven questions).

Data Analysis

Data were analyzed for the completed questionnaires only. A one-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used to test the hypotheses and determine whether there are any differences between independent groups on more than one dependent variable. The data for the variables were entered into the most recent version of Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) and test for a one-way MANOVA was conducted. The program generates p-values that were used to determine whether or not the null hypotheses should be rejected. If the p-values were greater than .05, the null hypotheses were accepted.

The study met the requirements for a one-way MANOVA: one independent variable that is categorical with two or more groups (means of education financing: dependent /independent); and two or more dependent variables that are continuous (entitlement belief scores, entitlement attitudes scores). A MANOVA was an appropriate test since it allows for significant differences between the two groups to be tested, while jointly accounting for multiple variables of interest. A MANOVA controls the Type I error rate and would not require any further adjustment, and it accounts for inter-dependencies among the response variables, thus enhancing the power to detect significant differences between groups (Gall et al., 2007). Although a MANOVA is a substantially more complicated design than univariate Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), by measuring several dependent variables at one, there is a greater chance of determining the most significant factors. The MANOVA also reduces the occurrences of Type I errors that may happen if multiple ANOVAs are run independently.

The assumptions underlying the one-way MANOVA include independence of observation, adequate sample size, multivariate normality, no univariate or multivariate outliers, linearity, and homogeneity of variances – covariance (French, Macedo, Poulsen, Waterson, & Yu, n.d.) were tested. There is no statistical test for the first three assumptions. To satisfy the assumption of no univariate or multivariate outliers, all outliers were removed before running the MANOVA. Univariate normality was assessed via the skewness and kurtosis indices of the variables measured using an interval or ratio scale. The assumption of linearity was tested by plotting a scatterplot matrix for each group of the independent variable. The homogeneity of variance-covariance assumption was tested using Box's M test of equality of covariance. Since the data did not fail this assumption, a Levene's test of homogeneity of variance was not conducted.

The Wilks' lambda was used to test whether there were differences between the means of identified groups of subjects on a combination of dependent variables (French et al., n.d.). The p-values for the different multivariate tests showed if there was a significant effect of the independent variables on all of the dependent variables, considered as a group. Post hoc tests were used to determine to see which groups differed significantly from each other. Since the p-values for the MANOVA output do not take into account that multiple ANOVAs have been conducted, to protect against Type I error, the Bonferroni procedure was used (McDonald, 2014).

CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS

Overview

The previous chapter discussed the research procedures used in this study. It provided a detailed description of the use of a demographic survey and the AES in the collection of data and discussed how the data was gathered and analyzed. This chapter provides the results of the analyzed data. MANOVA procedures were performed to test the hypotheses and determine whether there were any differences between independent groups on more than one dependent variable. Additionally, since demographic data were collected, MANOVA procedures were also conducted to determine whether academic entitlement subscale scores differed across demographic groups. The statistical analysis of the data is preceded by the research question, hypotheses, and descriptive statistics on the demographics of study participants.

Research Question

The research question for this study is:

RQ1: Do financially dependent and financially independent undergraduate university students differ in entitlement beliefs, entitlement actions, and/or a combination of entitlement beliefs and actions?

Null Hypotheses

The null hypotheses for this study are:

H₀₁: There is no statistically significant difference in *entitlement actions* as shown by the Academic Entitlement Scale between financially dependent and financially independent undergraduate university students

H₀₂: There is no statistically significant difference in *entitlement beliefs* as shown by the Academic Entitlement Scale between financially dependent and financially independent

undergraduate university students

H₀₃: There is no statistically significant difference in the *combination of entitlement beliefs and actions* as shown by the Academic Entitlement Scale between financially dependent and financially independent undergraduate university students.

Descriptive Statistics

Sample Description

The survey invitation was electronically sent to undergraduate university students ($N=2000$) from BSU; 567 surveys were returned for a response rate of 28.35%. Of the surveys, 33 (1.65%) were eliminated for either not meeting the study inclusion criteria or because they were incomplete. Undergraduate students under 18 years of age, were excluded. Thus, the statistical analysis was based on the revised sample for this study $N=524$.

Descriptive statistics for the demographic sample of undergraduate students are summarized in Table 1. Almost one-half of the sample population described themselves as dual financed (49.8%), while approximately one-third indicated they were financially independent (33.2%). Only 17% noted they were financially dependent. With regards to gender, 71.78% were female and 27.3% were male. The ages of respondents range from 18 to 55+, with a median age group 28-24. Over half (54.0%) of the participants were age 18-24, approximately a third (32.8%) were 25-34, and 13.2% were 35 years old and older. In terms of marital status, the vast majority of the participants (83.8%) were single; 10.1% were married or in a domestic relationship, 3.8 % were divorced, and 2.3% were separated. The three largest race groups were White (35.7%), Asian American (24.4%), and Hispanic (23.1%).

Table 1

Frequencies and Percentages for the Demographic Variables (N = 524)

Variables	<i>n</i>	%
Financial status		
Financially dependent	89	17.0
Financially independent	174	33.2
Dual financed	261	49.8
Gender		
Male	143	27.3
Female	376	71.8
Gender variant/non-conforming	5	1.0
Age group (in years)		
18 to 24	283	54.0
25 to 34	172	32.8
35 to 44	32	6.1
45 to 54	23	4.4
55 and older	14	2.7
Race		
American Indian or Alaska Native	12	2.3
Asian American	128	24.4
Black or African American	65	12.4
Pacific Islander	11	2.1
White or Caucasian	187	35.7
Hispanic	121	23.1
Marital Status	439	83.8
Single	53	10.1
Married or in a domestic partnership	20	3.8
Divorced	12	2.3
Separated		

Description of the Major Study Variables

To establish the internal consistency, reliability analyses were conducted using Cronbach's coefficient. Per Nunnally and Bernstein (1994), a measure is moderately reliable if its Cronbach's alpha is .70 or higher. As shown in Table 2, alphas ranged from .82 to .84; therefore, the measures were reliable. The mean academic entitlement score was 37.30 ($SD =$

11.68). The mean entitlement beliefs score was 12.15 ($SD = 5.56$) while the mean entitlement actions score was 25.16 ($SD = 8.53$). Pearson Correlation shows that entitlement beliefs were positively correlated with entitlement actions, $r = .35, p < .001$

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics for the Study Variables

Variables	α	Range	M	SD
Academic entitlement	.84	12 to 63	37.30	11.68
Entitlement beliefs	.82	5 to 27	12.15	5.56
Entitlement actions	.83	7 to 41	25.16	8.53

Results

Assumption Tests

Before examining the null hypotheses to determine whether entitlement actions, entitlement beliefs, or combination of entitlement actions and beliefs differed across means of education financing, the assumptions testing underlying MANOVA were conducted. Since one statistical test (MANOVA) was used to test the three hypotheses in the study, all assumption tests are reported first.

For a MANOVA, the observations must be independent of one another. Therefore, the assumption of independence was used to determine that there is no relationship between the observations in each group or between the groups themselves. The independence assumption was not violated. Secondly, MANOVA procedures require that there is an adequate sample size. The sample size ($N = 524$) met that requirement for MANOVA procedures.

Assessment of normality. A third assumption, univariate normality, was assessed via the skewness and kurtosis indices of the variables measured using an interval or ratio scale. Per

Kline (2011), a variable is normally distributed if its skewness index (i.e., skewness statistic/SE) is below three and its kurtosis index (i.e., kurtosis statistic/SE) is below 20. As shown in Table 3, two of the variables were skewed. As such, they were transformed using a square root function (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). Because the skewness index of the two variables fell below three (i.e., they were -.88 and -3.25 respectively), these transformed variables were used in subsequent inferential procedures. Note, however, for ease of interpretation, all descriptive statistics are presented in the original metric.

Table 3

Results Assessing the Univariate Normality of the Study Variables (N = 524)

Variables	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Index	Statistic	Index
Academic entitlement	-.09	-.88	-.66	-3.11
Entitlement beliefs	.52	4.88	-.82	-3.86
Entitlement actions	-.35	-3.25	-.61	-2.87

Note. SE for skewness = .11. SE for kurtosis = .21.

Checking for outliers. MANOVAs necessitate that there are no univariate outliers in each group of the independent variable for any of the dependent variables (French et al., n.d.). Variables were standardized. Per Tabachnick and Fidell (2012), cases whose standardized values fall above the absolute value of 3.29 can be deemed as outliers. Given this criterion, none of the cases were categorized as outliers.

Test for linearity. MANOVA procedures also require that there is a linear relationship between each pair of dependent variables for each group of the independent variable (French et al., n.d.). The assumption of linearity was tested by plotting a scatterplot matrix for each group

of the independent variable (see Figure 1). Linearity between the dependent variables was confirmed.

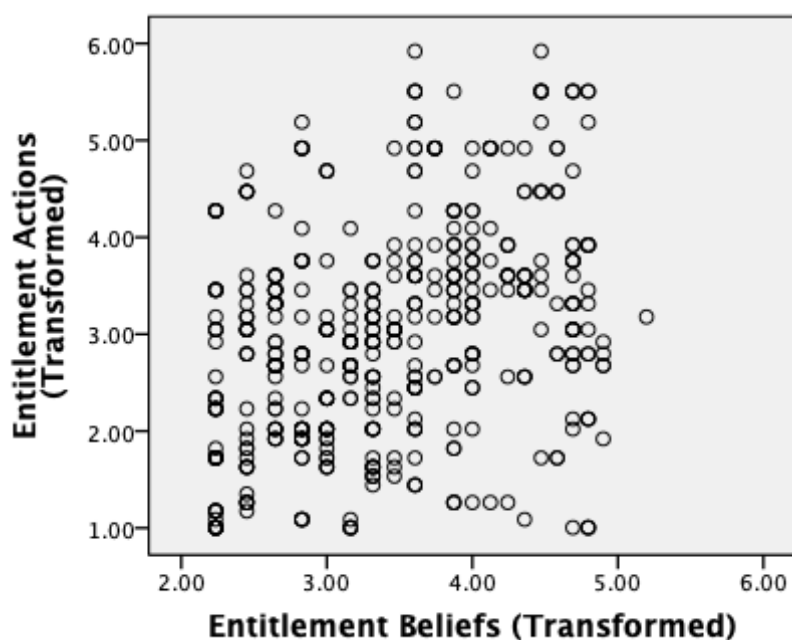


Figure 1. Scatterplot of Entitlement Actions by Entitlement Beliefs

Homogeneity of variance-covariance. Lastly, for MANOVAs there should also be a homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices (French et al., n.d.). The homogeneity of variance-covariance assumption was checked via Box's M test of equality of covariance. This assumption was fulfilled. There was homogeneity of variance-covariances matrices, as assessed by Box's test of equality of covariance matrices $p = .24 > (.05)$. The "Sig." value is greater than .05, which indicates that the variance-covariances matrices are equal (i.e., the assumption of homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices is met). Since the test did not fail this assumption, a Levene's test of homogeneity of variance was not necessary. Therefore, Wilks' lambda values are reported.

Tables 4 and 5 present the results of the MANOVA. Table 4 displays the means and standard deviations for academic entitlement, across financial status groups. Financially dependent, financially independent, and dual financed students scored higher in entitlement

actions ($M = 26.89$, $SD = 9.04$; $M = 25.53$, $SD = 8.62$ and $M = 24.32$, $SD = 8.92$, respectively) than the entitlement belief subscale ($M = 11.92$, $SD = 4.52$; $M = 14.25$, $SD = 6.03$ and $M = 10.82$, $SD = 5.13$, respectively).

The main results from the one-way MANOVA test is also contained within table 4.

There was a statistically significant difference between the means of education financing on the combined dependent variables, $F(4, 1040) = 11.30$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .042$; Wilks' $\Lambda = .92$.

Table 4

Means and Standard Deviations for Academic Entitlement across Financial Status Groups

Financial Status	Entitlement Beliefs		Entitlement Acts	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Financially dependent	11.92	4.52	26.89	6.77
Financially independent	14.25	6.03	25.53	8.62
Dual dependent	10.82	5.13	24.32	8.92

Note. Academic entitlement differed significantly across financial status, $F(4, 1040) = 11.30$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .042$; Wilks' $\Lambda = .92$.

Because a statistically significant result was achieved, further testing was conducted to determine how the dependent variable would appear to be contributing to the statistically significant MANOVA. In other words, it tested how the dependent variables differ for the independent variable. As such the Tests of Between-Subjects Effects was examined. Table 5 includes the one-way ANOVA statistics of academic entitlement across final status.

Table 5

ANOVA Results for Academic Entitlement across Financial Status (N = 524)

Variables	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	Sig.	Partial η^2
Entitlement beliefs					
Financial status	2	12.16	20.75	.000	.074
Error	521	.59			
Entitlement acts					
Financial status	2	3.17	2.62	.074	.010
Error	521	1.21			

From Table 5, it can be seen that means of education financial status has a statistically significant effect on entitlement beliefs $F(2, 521) = 20.75, p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .074$ (strong effect). It is important to note that the level of statistical significance has been adjusted for multiple comparisons. That is, a Bonferroni correction has been made so that acceptance of statistical significance for the univariate ANOVAs is set at $p < .025$ rather than $p < .05$ because there are two dependent variables.

Because the univariate ANOVAs shows statistically significant results, they were followed up with Tukey's HSD post-hoc tests. Post-hoc tests using Tukey's HSD to control for Type I error across pairwise comparisons indicated that: the group of financially independent students ($M = 14.25, SD = 6.03$) had a significantly higher mean entitlement belief score than the group of financially dependent ($M = 11.92, SD = 4.52; p = .009$) and dual dependent students ($M = 10.82, SD = 5.13; p < .001$).

Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1. It was hypothesized that academic entitlement actions would differ across means of education financed (H1). Tables 4 and 5 show the test was not significant, $F(2, 521) =$

2.62, $p > .05$, partial $\eta^2 = .010$. Because the p value is greater than .05, the researcher failed to reject this null hypothesis.

Hypothesis 2. It was hypothesized that academic entitlement beliefs would differ across means of education financed (H2). Tables 4 and 5 show the test was significant, $F(2, 521) = 20.75$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .074$ (strong effect). Because the p value is less than .05, this null hypothesis was rejected.

Hypothesis 3. Finally, it was hypothesized that the combination of entitlement beliefs and action would differ across means of education financed (H2). The combination of entitlement beliefs and action differed significantly across means of education financed, $F(4, 1040) = 11.30$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .042$; Wilks' $\Lambda = .92$. Because the p value is less than .05, this null hypothesis was rejected. (Table 4).

For analysis purposes, the frequency of responses for the entitlement action subscale were examined. The rating scale was divided into three groups: disagree (responses of 1, 2, and 3); neutral (response 4); and agreed (responses of 5, 6, and 7). The students reported higher frequencies of disagreeing for items EA1, EA3, EA4, and EA7. Higher frequencies of agreeing were reported for items EA2, EA5, and EA6 (see Table 6).

Table 6

AES Frequency of Scale Responses for Entitlement Action

Item #		Level of Agreement		
		1, 2, 3	4	5, 6, 7
EA1	I would confront an instructor to argue about my grade.	260 (49.9%)	82 (5.6%)	182 (34.7%)
EA2	If I thought a test/assignment was unfair, I would tell the instructor.	138 (26.3%)	62 (11.8%)	324 (61.8%)
EA3	I would attempt to negotiate my grade with my instructor.	275 (52.5%)	69 (13.2%)	180 (34.4%)
EA4	I would argue with the instructor to get more points on a test.	336 (64.1%)	106 (20.2%)	82 (15.7%)
EA5	If I felt an instructor's grading was unfair, I would tell the instructor.	106 (20.3%)	65 (12.4%)	353 (67.4%)
EA6	If I felt I deserved a higher grade; I would tell the instructor.	162 (31%)	78 (14.9%)	284 (54.2%)
EA7	I would demand that an instructor make an exception for me.	409 (78.1%)	104 (19.8%)	11 (2.1%)

CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSIONS

Overview

This chapter presents a discussion of the major findings based on the analysis of the data in chapter four. The findings are integrated with the theories that guide this research study – Weiner’s (1974) attribution theory, and Deci and Ryan’s (1985) self-determination theory. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the implications and the limitations of the study along with recommendations for future research.

Discussion

Purpose

The main purpose of this quantitative causal-comparative research study was to determine if there is a difference in the levels of academic entitlement between financially dependent and financially independent undergraduate students in a public university in northern California. A secondary purpose was to contribute to the growing body of literature on the construct of academic entitlement through the identification of the possible relationship of academic entitlement and means of education financing.

The respondents of the study were composed of 524 undergraduate university students from BSU. The study was conducted during the final month of the spring semester for the 2018-19 school year. Achacoso’s (2006) AES and a demographic questionnaire were used as the data gathering instruments. The results of the survey were entered into SPSS, were analyzed and presented as descriptive statistics on the demographics, and MANOVA procedures were performed on the data.

Research Question

The study examined the following research question:

RQ1: Do financially dependent and financially independent undergraduate university students differ in entitlement beliefs, entitlement actions, and/or a combination of entitlement beliefs and actions?

Summary of Findings

Academic entitlement was assessed by the scores from the AES. The subscale scores, entitlement beliefs, and entitlement actions served as dependent variables. The independent variable means of education financing had three categories: financially independent, financially dependent, and dual financed. A one-way multivariate analysis of variance was run to determine the effect of means of education financing on academic entitlement. The differences between the means of education financing on the combined dependent variables was statistically significant, $F(4, 1040) = 11.30, p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .042$; Wilks' $\Lambda = .92$. Follow-up univariate ANOVAs showed that only entitlement beliefs $F(2, 521) = 20.75, p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .074$ (strong effect) were statistically significantly different between form of education financing, using a Bonferroni adjusted α level of .025. Tukey post-hoc tests showed that for entitlement beliefs, financially independent students had statistically significantly higher mean scores than financially dependent ($p = .009$) and dual dependent students ($p < .001$). The higher the score, the higher the levels of entitlement beliefs.

Discussion of Findings

The primary focus of this study was to determine if financially dependent and financially independent undergraduate university students differ in entitlement beliefs, entitlement actions, and/or a combination of entitlement beliefs and actions. Analysis of the results showed statistical significance between means of education financing and academic entitlement – the independent variables and the (combined) dependent variables. The results revealed a significant

effect on entitlement belief subscale. Specifically, it was found that financially independent students are more likely to have a significantly higher entitlement belief than financially dependent and dual financed undergraduate university students. No statistically significant difference was found between means of education financing and the entitlement actions subscale.

Taken together, these results suggest that funding sources for university education has an effect on academic entitlement. In particular, undergraduate students who are solely responsible for their own educational expenses have greater levels of entitlement belief than undergraduate students who depend on others to pay for their educational expenses and undergraduate students who used a mix of self-funding and funding from others for their educational expenses. To date, no other published study has explored the relationship between means of education financing and academic entitlement. However, Bunce et al. (2017) examined a main facet of academic entitlement (student consumerism) and its relationship to tuition fees responsibility (a part of educational expenses) in undergraduate university students. They found a positive correlation between undergraduate university students who were self-funded (solely responsible for paying their own tuition fees) and consumerist attitudes and beliefs. The findings of Bunce et al. (2017), as well as this present study, offer initial evidence that higher levels of academic entitlement are associated with means of education financing.

It is unclear why financially independent students (self-funded students) have higher levels of academic entitlements and entitlement beliefs. The reason for this relationship is important in understanding the construct of academic entitlement. However, this determination, as well as its association to academic performance, are beyond the scope of this study. Previous studies examined the relationship between motivation for academic success and means of education financing among university students (Brouse et al., 2010; Weaver, 2013). Weaver

(2013) found that as personal financial responsibility towards one's own university education went up intrinsic motivation went down. This finding provides a possible explanation for the present study's results.

Students who have high levels of academic entitlement often score lower on the intrinsic motivation scale. In other words, students with higher levels of academic entitlement are more extrinsically motivated and have an external locus of control (Greenberger et al., 2008). According to Deci and Ryan's (1985) self-determination theory, lower levels of intrinsic motivation for tasks and higher levels of non-self-determined motivation result in decreased persistence in tasks, satisfaction, and performance. In relation to students with high levels of academic entitlement, this means that they do not derive pleasure or enjoyment from the learning process (Reinhardt, 2012). This is also consistent with the principles of attribution theory (Weiner, 1974) which can be used to explain motivation as a critical conceptual facet in understanding academic entitlement. Students who have an externally oriented locus of control with regards to education are less intrinsically motivated to do academic work (Kopp et al., 2011; Peirone & Maticka-Tyndale, 2017). Because of the external locus of control, these students do not see themselves as part of the learning process. The external locus of control presents certain academic beliefs, such as (a) educators should provide information to students in a way that does not require students to exert effort; (b) educators are accountable for students' academic failures; and (c) educators are responsible for structuring the learning process (Sessoms et al., 2016). Since financially independent students are paying their own way, it is also likely that these students may be burdened with their profession's obligations, and it may take precedence over their studies. Additionally, they may view paying tuition dollars towards their degrees as a consumeristic transaction, as opposed to an investment that necessitates personal

responsibility and work (Delucchi & Korgen, 2002; Singleton-Jackson et al., 2010). In the consumer model, people expect more when they spend more. Thus, it stands to reason that if students hold the opinion that they are engaging in a commercial transactional (purchasing of a degree) in which they are putting out consideration (paying tuition fees), they may be more motivated to want to receive something in return. As such, the logical pursuit may be academic entitlement actions and beliefs. Previous findings that show a connection between academic entitlement, heightened entitlement belief, and academic consumerist entitlement (Marshall, Fayombo, & Marshall, 2015).

Kelso (2017) found that students with high levels of academic entitlement, also possess “high academic consumerist entitlement and that they both elicit much of the same type of attitudes and beliefs in students” (p.28). Thus, it could be argued that the present study findings are indicative that students with a higher level of academic entitlement are not likely to be motivated academically, and they are likely to be extrinsically motivated. This is in keeping with Brown et al.’s (2009) and Greenberger et al.’s (2008) motivational findings that students with high levels of academic entitlement are more extrinsically motivated. In fact, it may be the case that these students are not interested in achieving academic success through hard work, but rather believe they should obtain their education in exchange for tuition dollars. This is consistent with Finney and Finney’s (2010) findings that students who approach their education with consumerist mentalities are less likely to be involved in their learning, and more likely to believe they are entitled to favorable academic outcomes.

The present study found no significant difference between means of education financing and the entitlement actions subscale. A possible explanation for this may lie in the way in which some of the questions in the entitlement action subscale were phrased. The entitlement actions

subscale measures the behavioral elements of academic entitlement such as demanding attitudes and behaviors towards faculty, confrontational behavior when the grades earned do not match the students' expectations, and overtly blaming others or circumstances, such as faculty, the institution, etc. when the expected outcome is not achieved. Of the seven questions used to assess this part of academic entitlement, three of the questions (EA 2, AE 5, and EA 6) are worded conditionally and begin with a justification for action. That justification is the perception of unfairness or the sense that something deserved is being withheld. For example, if I thought a certain condition existed (e.g. unfairness), then I would tell the instructor (Achacoso, 2006). Additionally, these three questions used relatively non-aggressive or non-confrontational terms such as "tell," as opposed to aggressive or confrontational terms such as "demand" and "argue" used in EA 1, AE 3, EA 4 and EA 7. Interestingly, the conditionally phrased, non-confrontational questions (EA 2, AE 5, and EA 6) had high frequency scores in the strongly agree range of the Likert scale, while the questions that were assertive and used confrontational terms had high frequency scores on the strongly disagree side of the scale. These findings are consistent with Pimentel's (2011) findings, which showed the same scoring pattern. The reason for this similarity in the findings is unclear. A possible suggestion is that because the questions may be sensitive, the students chose socially desirable answers, rather than truthful answers. This may lead to the under-reporting of a particular viewpoint, thus affecting the data generated.

Reliability

Achacoso (2006) reported that Cronbach's Alpha for the entitlement belief subscale was .83 and .91 for the entitlement action subscale. For the study, the Cronbach's Alphas for the entitlement belief and entitlement actions were .82 and .83, respectively. Cronbach's alpha for the Academic Entitlement Scale was .84. Overall, the alpha coefficients reported in the present

study are generally consistent with prior research (Ciani et al., 2008; Frederick, et al., 2012; Hartman, 2012). These results suggest an adequate degree of internal consistency for the AES.

This study hypothesized that means of education financing would have differences in the level of academic entitlement, thus a mean-level difference in AES scores would provide strong validity evidence. As such, the results can lead to structural validity of AES scores. Increasing the validity of the AES is critical to examining the functionality of the scale.

Implications

Knowledge about the factors contributing to academic entitlement in students can lead to tailored interventions and programs aimed at curbing or reducing levels of academic entitlement. Twenge (2009) advanced that entitlement beliefs may be fostered as a result of certain practices in higher education (e.g., grade inflation). Arguably self-funding of higher education is another practice that may foster entitlement beliefs in university students. This study provides initial evidence that the means of education financing may contribute to academic entitlement. Specifically, it found that students who pay their own education expenses, without help from others, had higher levels of entitlement beliefs. University tuition has been steadily increasing over the past 10 years (U.S. Department of Education, 2019). In fact, university tuition and associated educational costs have risen twice as fast as inflation, surpassing increases in financial aid resources and personal income (U.S. Department of Education, 2019). Thus, financially independent students will need to spend more of their own money on education. Since there is a statistically significant association between self-funded students and high entitlement beliefs, it is possible that as tuition cost rises, entitlement beliefs may also increase.

The results of this present study are important because of the consequences related to students having entitlement beliefs. Self-funding of university education may impact learning,

which may be explained by the student consumerism mindset. Student consumerism is a facet of academic entitlement. Students who perceive themselves as consumers possess certain beliefs unfavorable to learning. When students perceive themselves as consumers, they believe that they are entitled to certain academic outcomes, e.g. grades or a degree (Delucchi & Korgen; 2002). This mindset is accompanied by a lack of responsibility for learning, lower levels of student participation, and unreasonable expectations (Delucchi & Korgen, 2002).

As mentioned earlier, the data analysis showed, surprisingly, that most of the students did not agree with questions EA 1, AE 3, EA 4, and EA 7 in the entitlement actions subscale on the AES. These questions were indicative of demanding and confrontational actions and behaviors towards faculty. This finding suggests that students do not engage in hostility or defiance that may indicate unruly behaviors that are commonly believed, rather it suggests that students will go only as far as telling faculty if they believe they were treated unfairly or if they deserved a more desirable grade. This raises questions about the confrontational dimension that the AES measures, bringing a limitation of the AES to the fore. Achacoso (2006) cautioned that it is not clear if the entitlement subscale of the AES is truly measuring academic entitlement behaviors or if students' behaviors are representative of legitimate concerns about grades. It is for this reason that Kopp et al. (2011) did not include the element of entitlement action in their instrument to measure academic entitlement. They simply did not believe demanding and confrontational behavior toward faculty was a facet of academic entitlement Kopp et al. (2011). Although the students hold entitlement beliefs, they may not be assertive or aggressive enough to act on those beliefs.

It may also be argued that the findings from this study expand on the attribution and self-determination motivational theories as it provides valuable insight on sources of tuition funding

as a motivation for academic entitlement. For example, this study provides a basis or springboard for future studies that can examine the relationship between self-funded students, levels of academic motivation, and type of motivation (extrinsic versus intrinsic).

Limitations

Several limitations were identified in this study. One such limitation was the time of data collection. The invitation to participate in the study was sent via emails to students during the month of May, which was near the end of the spring academic term. This time period included the two weeks prior to final exams and one week during the final exams. As such, students had to weigh the value of completing the questionnaire against the demands of studying for and taking their final exams. Thus, it is possible that participating in this study, and completing the AES was not a priority for students given the competing pressures. The survey only achieved a 28.37% response rate, thus indicating that the study suffered from a nonresponse bias of 71.63%. According to Achacoso (2006), students with the highest levels of academic entitlement tend to only participate in activities that will help them in earning their degree, and they may not be inclined to participate in the other activities such as surveys. As such, it is possible that these students (students with entitled beliefs and attitudes) declined to participate in responding to the AES. Additionally, they may hold the view that their participation in such activities is an unreasonable request based on the belief that they should be the one placing the requests in their academic relationship with the university. If such transpired, there is a possibility that the results of this study may have found a lower level of academic entitlement as opposed to surveys with greater incentives for completion.

Another limitation was due to the collection of data via self-report surveys. In using this method, the study relied on the honesty of the participants. Although the participants were

informed that the survey is anonymous, and no attempt would ever be made to identify any participants, it is possible that some students were not completely honest about questions relating to their levels of academic entitlement. Additionally, since the level at which participants will go to manage how they appear will no doubt vary depending on personality, it is likely that level of dishonesty may vary significantly between students with high levels of academic entitlement and students with low levels of academic entitlement. Research has established a positive association between highly academically entitled students and dishonest academic practices (Greenberger et al., 2008). As such, there is the possibility that some students, especially the highly academically entitled students, may not have been truthful in answering questions on the survey, thus affecting the results. In self-reporting measures, there is no way to guarantee participants will be completely honest.

Questions may also arise about the generalizability of the study since it was based on a convenience sample. This aspect could be a potential threat to the external validity of this study. The study sample was from a single university, and the university was chosen based on convenience. As such, the results may not be generalizable to other universities. However, a case may be made that the sample population BSU has a population that is ethnically and culturally diverse and traditional-aged when compared to other universities in the United States. Additionally, the participants were from different programs and departments in the university. This is important as it may allow for cross-disciplinary generalizability of the study's results and because levels of academic entitlement in students may vary based on programs and departments (Andrey et al, 2002).

Recommendations for Future Research

Research on academic entitlement has provided some understanding of its antecedents and consequences. However, there is little empirical data on its contributing factors. This study aimed to add to the literature and provide insight into the causes or the factors that contribute to academic entitlement by examining the relationship between academic entitlement and means of education financing. The study was based on the inclusive definition that academic entitlement is a dual construct, cognitive and behavioral, that encompasses a set of beliefs and expectations held by students, and the manifestation of those beliefs in certain behaviors. Achacoso's (2006) AES scale, which measures the two aspects of academic entitlement according to the definition, was employed in this study. However, because of the significant differences in the measurement and conceptualization of academic entitlement in existing instruments, should this study be repeated using a different instrument, the findings may be different and perhaps contradictory. For example, unlike Achacoso's (2006) AES, Kopp et al.'s (2011) instrument measures the psychometric aspect of academic entitlement as well as aspects pertaining to student consumerism. As such, future research should focus on developing a common definition of the construct. Stemming from the common definition, the next step for future research should be in the area of developing and validating new measures of academic entitlement or the improvement of existing measures. Future instruments may aid in providing a better understanding of academic entitlement behaviors and actions.

The present study sample included undergraduate students from a single university in northern California. To get a better understanding of the impacts of education finance and academic entitlement, it is essential to conduct more studies in this area or on this topic. As such, this study should be repeated with additional data gathered from various universities from

different geographical areas throughout the United States. The present study also used a convenience method of sampling which resulted in a sample that contained more financially independent and dual financed participants. It is possible that the results may be even more significant given an equivalent representation of financially dependent students. Therefore, should the study be replicated, a probabilistic sampling technique such as stratified random sampling should be utilized. Stratified random sampling would help ensure that each group is fairly represented in the sample. Furthermore, it would be insightful to conduct similar studies using different approaches and methods that address the same hypotheses from different angles. Additionally, the study should be repeated with differentiation between students who are financially independent and utilized external funding sources (such as student loans which they are responsible for paying back) and financially independent students who do not utilize external funding sources.

During the present study, the researcher received communication via email from two of the study participants who had learning disabilities. These students voiced concerns that some of their special accommodation requests are perceived as academic entitlement behaviors. To address this concern, future studies could examine the possible relationship between students with learning disabilities and academic entitlement; perceptions of students with a learning disability and academic entitlement; university faculty perceptions of students with a learning disability and academic entitlement behaviors and actions. Federal Government laws such as the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 (U. S. Department of Education, 2017) and the Americans with Disabilities Act of 1990 (U. S. Department of Education, 2018) require that special accommodations be provided to students with learning disabilities. And that leads to the question: Have years of these provisions of special accommodations contributed to academic

entitlement behaviors and actions? Examining this issue will aid in the understanding of the effects of perceived academic entitlement in the educational setting. To this end, it will be useful to conduct longitudinal studies following students with learning disabilities from kindergarten through college in order to investigate levels of academic entitlement behaviors and actions through their schooling.

It is hypothesized that a number of faculty, administration personnel, and recruitment processes and practices can contribute, curb, or alleviate student academic entitlement beliefs and behaviors (Cain et al., 2012; Jackson et al., 2011). To support this hypothesis, future research should focus on examining how faculty and the administration staff encourage and perpetuate academic entitlement behaviors and actions in students. Examining how these components of the university system can contribute to student academic entitlement can lead to improved practices between faculty/administration and students, with an overall objective of curbing, or at least not enabling, academic entitlement behaviors and actions in students. Cain et al. (2012) postulated that academic entitlement behaviors and actions can be curtailed through the revision of education system recruitment practices, admission practices, and professors grading practices. However, to date, there is no empirical evidence to prove or disprove the impact of such revisions on academic entitlement behaviors and actions in university students. As such studies are needed to examine the aforementioned issues.

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APPENDIX A

Permission to use AES in Study

Michelle Achacoso, Ph.D.

Owner/Director Adaptive Learning Solutions

■ ■ ■

Dear Dr. Achacoso,

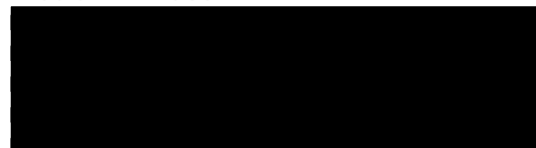
My name is Nicola Ifill- Fraser. I am a doctoral candidate in the Educational Leadership program at Liberty University. I currently preparing my dissertation proposal. My proposed research focuses on academic entitlement, seeking to determine if there is any correlation to how students' education is funded. I am writing to you to request permission to use your Academic Entitlement Scale (AES) in my research, as I believe you hold the copyright.

I would greatly appreciate your granting me permission to use your tool in my research and dissertation. I would be grateful if you would consider waiving any permissions fee or keeping the permissions fees as low as possible. If you do not hold the copyright for this tool or if you do not control world rights in their entirety, would you kindly indicate who does?

I was unable to locate an email address for you. If required I can submit this request via email once your provide an email address.

Regards

Nicola Ifill Fraser



Michelle Achacoso, Ph.D.

Hi Nicola, thanks for reaching out! I'm open to talk.

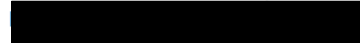
Yes, indeed! Please use my scale. And please share your findings with me.

Micki Achacoso

Michelle Achacoso, Ph.D.

I hold all rights. No fees for students or researchers. Enjoy your dissertation. I loved writing mine.

Michelle Achacoso, Ph.D.



Awesome topic too!!!!!!

Nicola Ifill-Fraser, MPH, M.Sc.

Dr. Achacoso,

Thank you so much. This is greatly appreciated!!

APPENDIX B

Liberty's IRB Approval



April 24, 2019

Nicola Ifill-Fraser

IRB Exemption 3671.042419: An Examination of the Relationship Between Academic Entitlement and Education Financing Among Undergraduate Students

Dear Nicola Ifill-Fraser,

The Liberty University Institutional Review Board has reviewed your application in accordance with the Office for Human Research Protections (OHRP) and Food and Drug Administration (FDA) regulations and finds your study to be exempt from further IRB review. This means you may begin your research with the data safeguarding methods mentioned in your approved application, and no further IRB oversight is required.

Your study falls under exemption category 46.101(b)(2), which identifies specific situations in which human participants research is exempt from the policy set forth in 45 CFR 46:101(b):

(2) Research that only includes interactions involving educational tests (cognitive, diagnostic, aptitude, achievement), survey procedures, interview procedures, or observation of public behavior (including visual or auditory recording) if at least one of the following criteria is met:

(i) The information obtained is recorded by the investigator in such a manner that the identity of the human subjects cannot readily be ascertained, directly or through identifiers linked to the subjects;

Please note that this exemption only applies to your current research application, and any changes to your protocol must be reported to the Liberty IRB for verification of continued exemption status. You may report these changes by submitting a change in protocol form or a new application to the IRB and referencing the above IRB Exemption number.

If you have any questions about this exemption or need assistance in determining whether possible changes to your protocol would change your exemption status, please email us at irb@liberty.edu.

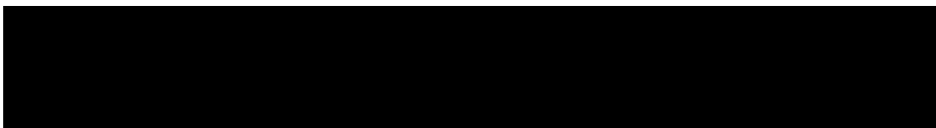
Sincerely,



Liberty University | Training Champions for Christ since 1971

APPENDIX C

Briones's State University IRB Approval



INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD NOTICE OF ACTION

- | | |
|--|---|
| ☒ Approval by:
☐ Full Board Review
☐ Expedited Review
Expedited category:
(45 CFR 46.110(b)._____) | ☒ Initial Review
☐ Continuation Review
☐ Modification Review |
| ☒ Limited Review
Exemption category:
(45 CFR 46.104(d).2) | |

Project title: An Examination of The Relationship Between Academic Entitlement and Education Financing Among Undergraduate Students

Principal Investigator: Nicola Ifill-Fraser

Date of Action: 4-9-2019

Expiration Date: None

Protocol Number: [REDACTED]-IRB-2019-181-S

The above Action applies only to the protocol submitted. Any changes in the content or procedures of this research must be submitted to the Institutional Review Board for review and approval.

Signature _____ Date 4-9-19

Name:
Title:
Address:



Telephone:
FAX:
E-Mail:



- ☒ Waiver of consent documentation requirement granted
- ☒ Please see attached comments

cc: G. Michele Baker, Administrative Chair of Institutional Research
Liberty University



Memorandum

Date: April 9, 2019

To: Nicola Ifill-Fraser

From: [REDACTED], Chair
Institutional Review Board

Subject: Comments on your protocol

The Institutional Review Board has approved your research protocol “An Examination of The Relationship Between Academic Entitlement and Education Financing Among Undergraduate Students” with the following comments.

1. Please note that approval by the IRB does not also provide authorization to access student email addresses or data. Request for such authorization must be requested from the [REDACTED] Office of Institutional Research, Analysis and Decision Support at [REDACTED].
2. You have indicated that you will obtain consent via an online form but have submitted a consent form which has a signature line. Please remove the signature line and replace with a statement that completion of the survey indicates consent. You need not resubmit any forms.

Good luck on your research!

KB

cc: G. Michele Baker, Administrative Chair of Institutional Research
Liberty University

APPENDIX D

Recruitment Email

Subject line: Are you getting your money's worth from school?

Hello,

My name Nicola Ifill-Fraser, and I am a graduate student in the School of Education at Liberty University. I am conducting research as part of the requirements for a Doctor of Education (Ed.D.) in Educational Leadership degree. The purpose of my research is to determine if there is a difference in the attitudes of academic entitlement between financially dependent and financially independent undergraduate students. I am writing to invite you to participate in my study.

If you are 18 years of age or older, an undergraduate student enrolled at [REDACTED] as either full time or part time student, and are willing to participate, you will be asked to complete a short demographic survey and an Academic Entitlement Survey. The survey should take approximately 15 minutes to complete. Your participation will be completely anonymous, and no personal, identifying information will be collected.

To participate, click on the on the survey link provided at the end on this email.

A consent document is provided as the first page you will see after you click on the survey link attached to this email. The consent document contains additional information about my research. Completion of the survey indicates consent.

This study was approved by Liberty University's Institutional Review Board (Protocol # 3671.042419), and [REDACTED] University's Institutional Review Board (Protocol #: [REDACTED]-IRB-2019-181-S).

If you have questions, please contact me by sending an email to [REDACTED]. You may also contact my faculty chair, Kevin Struble, at [REDACTED]. If you have any questions or concerns regarding this study and would like to talk to someone other than me or the faculty chair, you are encouraged to contact Liberty University Institutional Review Board, 1971 University Blvd., Green Hall Ste. 2845, Lynchburg.

Please click here to be redirected to the consent form and survey

Thank you,

Nicola

APPENDIX E

Consent Form

The Liberty University Institutional
Review Board has approved
this document for use from
4/24/2019 to --
Protocol # 3671.042419

CONSENT FORM

AN EXAMINATION OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ACADEMIC ENTITLEMENT AND EDUCATION FINANCING AMONG UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS

Nicola Ifill-Fraser
Liberty University
School of Education

You are invited to be in a research study on the relationship between students' academic entitlement attitudes and education financing method. You were selected as a possible participant because you are 18 years of age or older and a current undergraduate student enrolled at [REDACTED] as either full time or part time student. Please read this form and ask any questions you may have before agreeing to be in the study.

Nicola Ifill-Fraser, a doctoral candidate in the School of Education at Liberty University, is conducting this study.

Background Information: The purpose of this study is to determine if there is a difference in the attitudes of academic entitlement between financially dependent and financially independent undergraduate students. A secondary purpose is to contribute to the growing body of literature on the construct of academic entitlement through identification of possible relationship of academic entitlement and education financial dependency status.

Procedures: If you agree to be in this study, you would be required to complete an anonymous, online survey. It should take approximately 15 minutes to complete this procedure.

Risks: The risks involved in this study are minimal, which means they are equal to the risks you would encounter in everyday life.

Benefits: Participants should not expect to receive a direct benefit from taking part in this study.

Benefits to society may include helping to contribute to research that can lead to better tailor interventions and programs to meet students' needs.

Compensation: Participants will not be compensated for participating in this study.

Confidentiality: The records of this study will be kept private. Research records will be stored securely, and only the researcher will have access to the records.

- The survey is anonymous, and no attempt would ever be made to identify any participants.
- All data gathered during this study are stored in electronic format will be maintained on primary and secondary data drives. Access to these drives will be restricted by a 2-step authentication system. Any data stored on paper and other types of physical media will be secured in a locked cabinet. Only the researcher will have access to the data. data. After three years, all electronic records will be deleted.

The Liberty University Institutional
Review Board has approved
this document for use from
4/24/2019 to --
Protocol # 3671.042419

Voluntary Nature of the Study: Participation in this study is voluntary. Your decision whether or not to participate will not affect your current or future relations with Liberty University or [REDACTED]. If you decide to participate, you are free to not answer any question or withdraw at any time, prior to submitting the survey, without affecting those relationships.

How to Withdraw from the Study: If you choose to withdraw from the study, please exit the survey and close your internet browser. Your responses will not be recorded or included in the study.

Contacts and Questions: The researcher conducting this study is Nicola Ifill-Fraser. You may ask any questions you have now. If you have questions later, **you are encouraged** to contact her at nifillfraser@liberty.edu. You may also contact the researcher's faculty chair, Kevin Struble, at kdstruble@liberty.edu.

If you have any questions or concerns regarding this study and would like to talk to someone other than the researcher, **you are encouraged** to contact the Institutional Review Board, 1971 University Blvd., Green Hall Ste. 2845, Lynchburg, VA 24515 or email at irb@liberty.edu.

Please notify the researcher if you would like a copy of this information for your records.

Statement of Consent: I have read and understood the above information. I have asked questions and have received answers. I consent to participate in the study.

APPENDIX F

Recruitment(Follow-Up) Email

Subject line: Waiting to hear from you - Are professors giving you what you deserve?

Hello,

My name Nicola Ifill-Fraser, and I am a graduate student in the School of Education at Liberty University. I am conducting research as part of the requirements for a Doctor of Education (Ed.D.) in Educational Leadership degree. Last week, an email was sent to you inviting you to participate in a research study. This follow-up email is being sent to remind you to complete the survey, if you would like to participate and have not already done so. The deadline for participation is May 27th 2019.

If you choose to participate, you will be asked to complete a short demographic survey and an Academic Entitlement Survey. The survey should take approximately 15 mins for you to complete. Your participation will be completely anonymous, and no personal, identifying information will be collected.

To participate, click on the on the survey link provided at the end on this email.

A consent document is provided as the first page you will see after you click on the survey link attached to this email. The consent document contains additional information about my research. Completion of the survey indicates consent.

This study was approved by Liberty University's Institutional Review Board (Protocol # 3671.042419), and [REDACTED] University's Institutional Review Board (Protocol #: [REDACTED]-IRB-2019-181-S).

If you have questions, please contact me by sending an email to [REDACTED]. You may also contact my faculty chair, Kevin Struble, at [REDACTED].

If you have any questions or concerns regarding this study and would like to talk to someone other than me or the faculty chair, you are encouraged to contact Liberty University Institutional Review Board, 1971 University Blvd., Green Hall Ste. 2845, Lynchburg.

Please click here to be redirected to the consent form and survey

Thank you,

Nicola

APPENDIX G
Demographic Survey

1. What is your age?

- a. Under 18
- b. 18-24 years old
- c. 25-34 years old
- d. 35-44 years old
- e. 45-54 years old
- f. 55+

2. To which gender identity do you most identify?

- a. Male
- b. Female
- c. Transgender Female
- d. Transgender Male
- e. Gender Variant / Non-confirming
- f. Prefer not to answer

3. How would you describe yourself?

- a. American Indian or Alaska Native
- b. Asian
- c. Black or African American
- d. Native Hawaiian or Pacific
- e. White / Caucasian
- f. Hispanic / Latino

g. Other _____

4. What is your marital status?

- a. Single
- b. Married, or in a domestic partnership
- c. Widowed
- d. Divorced
- e. Separated

5. What is your academic classification?

- a. Full Time
- b. Part Time

6. Are you a financially dependent student? *A student who depends on others to pay for your educational expenses. Your tuition, the required enrollment fees (including amounts required to be paid to the institution for course-related books, supplies, and equipment), and other education expenses related to obtaining their degree are paid for by others through either scholarship, endowments, trusts, employer, parents, and/or gifts from family members.*

- a. Yes
- b. No

7. Are you a financially independent student? *A student who is solely responsible for their own educational expenses. You are responsible for your tuition, required enrollment fees (including amounts required to be paid to the institution for course-related books, supplies, and equipment), and other education expenses related to*

obtaining their degree, either through personal saving, students' loan, and /or income from jobs.

- a.** Yes
- b.** No