

ENTITLEMENT IN THE WORKPLACE

by

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A Dissertation Submitted to the Faculty of

College of Business

In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Florida Atlantic University

Boca Raton, FL

May 2018

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ENTITLEMENT IN THE WORKPLACE

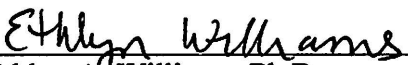
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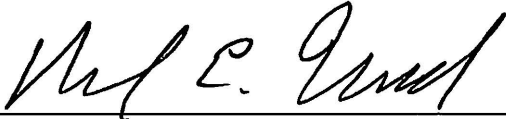
This dissertation was prepared under the direction of the candidate's dissertation advisor, Dr. Stephanie L. Castro, Department of Management Programs, and has been approved by all members of the supervisory committee. It was submitted to the faculty of the College of Business and was accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

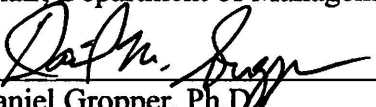
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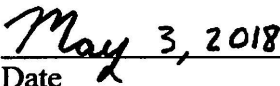

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to express sincere gratitude to my committee members for their dedication and thoughtful feedback, and special thanks to my advisor for her guidance and support during the writing of this manuscript. I would also like to thank my family for their unconditional support and encouragement.

ABSTRACT

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Institution: Florida Atlantic University
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Degree: Doctor of Philosophy
Year: 2018

The present research investigates entitlement in the workplace through three related papers—a review and two empirical studies. In the first paper, I conduct a review of entitlement and offer an agenda for future research. I examine entitlement’s various historical roots, definitions and conceptualizations, measures, theoretical frameworks, antecedents, consequences, and role as a moderator. I also outline avenues for future entitlement research and advocate for research that considers the effects of perceived coworker entitlement from a state perspective. Following the research agenda of paper one, I empirically delve into the negative effects of perceived coworker entitlement in the second two papers. Specifically, in the second paper I explore how the individual can mitigate the negative effects associated with perceived coworker entitlement and in the third paper I explore how the organization can mitigate the negative effects associated with perceived coworker entitlement. In the second paper, I utilize equity theory and referent cognitions theory to examine the relationships between perceived coworker entitlement and individual outcomes including in-role behavior, organizational

citizenship behavior, pay satisfaction, and counterproductive work behavior via psychological distress. I further explore the moderating role of individual difference variables including core-self evaluations, positive and negative affect, and equity sensitivity in the relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and psychological distress. Using a sample of 200 working adults, I found that core self-evaluations and equity sensitivity significantly moderate the relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and psychological distress. However, I did not find any significant mediation or moderated mediation relationships. In the third paper, I utilize fairness theory as a theoretical framework to study the relationships among perceived coworker entitlement, job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, and emotional exhaustion. I further explore the moderating role of Colquitt's (2001) four dimensions of organizational justice: distributive justice, procedural justice, interpersonal justice, and informational justice. Using the same sample of 200 working adults, I found that perceived coworker entitlement is negatively related to organizational citizenship behavior; distributive justice moderates the relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and emotional exhaustion; interpersonal justice moderates the relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and job satisfaction and emotional exhaustion; and informational justice moderates the relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and emotional exhaustion. Contributions to research, practical implications, strengths and limitations, and directions for future research are discussed.

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my supportive and loving husband, Gregg.

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I. INTRODUCTION

Numerous popular press accounts suggest that entitlement is a growing phenomenon that nearly all organizations face. For example, The Wall Street Journal goes as far as to call it an “epidemic” (Zaslow, 2007). Moreover, TIME Magazine declares it the “age of entitlement” and a “crisis of unmet expectations” (Franklin, 2014; Stein, 2013). Despite entitlement being a “hot topic”, academic research on entitlement in the workplace is extremely limited and segmented. Moreover, the limited literature is plagued with incoherence. For example, there is not an agreed upon definition and conceptualization of entitlement. Most scholars borrow directly from the psychology literature and define entitlement in trait terms. However, state entitlement might prove to be the most promising conceptualization for future research in organizations. Moreover, there are several different measures being used, each with their own limitations. Furthermore, there are theoretical frameworks yet to be considered that might shed new light on the phenomenon. Additionally, the vast majority of empirical research on entitlement has only studied its consequences, sometimes yielding conflicting findings. In addition to studying more consequences of entitlement, antecedents, moderators, and mediators can provide useful insight into entitlement in the workplace.

For research on entitlement in the workplace to advance, the limited existing research must be reviewed and organized. Specifically, there are several streams of entitlement research that define and conceptualize entitlement differently. For example, there is psychological entitlement, trait entitlement, state entitlement, work-situated

entitlement, perceived coworker entitlement, and excessive entitlement. For the field to progress, coherence must be established. This includes having agreed upon definitions and conceptualizations of entitlement and understanding how different conceptualizations of entitlement differ yet tie into one another. Linguistic conciseness is essential, so it is clear which definition and conceptualization of entitlement scholars are investigating. To spark this, a comprehensive review of entitlement literature is warranted. An in-depth review of existing research will help scholars understand the various conceptualizations of entitlement. Moreover, it will help scholars understand the appropriate measures of entitlement for each conceptualization while understanding their limitations and potentials for improvements. A review will also reveal gaps in the literature as far as theoretical frameworks that have not been considered and variables that have yet to be theorized and tested in relation to entitlement. Thus, in the first part of my dissertation, I will provide a comprehensive review of entitlement research in the workplace and offer an agenda for future research. Specifically, my research question for Chapter 2 is: What is the state of entitlement research in management and how can the field move forward? In summary, I hope to provide a better understanding of the state of entitlement in the workplace research and provide a fruitful agenda for future research.

Based on the review, there are promising inquiries of research and evident gaps in the literature. Perhaps the most promising avenue for future entitlement research is a state entitlement conceptualization, rather than the pervasive and limiting trait entitlement conceptualization. Thus, I will utilize a state entitlement conceptualization in Chapters 3 and 4. Moreover, I will consider state entitlement from the perspective of a referent other (i.e., a coworker). Perceived coworker entitlement is an important line of inquiry because

most existing entitlement research only focuses on the negative effects entitlement has on the entitled individual instead of the effects that entitled individuals might have on other people. In fact, the effects on others (i.e., coworkers) are likely to have a more substantial impact on organizations, relative to the impact the entitled individual may experience. Thus, I focus on perceived coworker entitlement from the state perspective in the studies in Chapters 3 and 4. This limited stream of research has found initial evidence that perceived coworker entitlement has negative consequences (e.g., job tension, depressed mood at work, job dissatisfaction, decreased organizational citizenship behaviors) on the perceiver (e.g., Hochwarter, Meurs, Perrewé, Royle, & Matherly, 2007; Hochwarter, Summers, Thompson, Perrewé, & Ferris, 2010). Therefore, it would be useful to investigate additional consequences and how these undesirable consequences might be mitigated. In Chapter 3 I will explore how the individual (i.e., the perceiver) can mitigate negative consequences of perceived coworker entitlement and in Chapter 4 I will explore how the organization can mitigate negative consequences of perceived coworker entitlement.

Within the small stream of research of perceived coworker entitlement, individual differences of the perceiver have not been considered. This is an important gap in the literature to fill because the personality of an individual contributes to how they perceive and react to things including a coworker who they perceive to be highly entitled. This is the motivation for Chapter 3. Using equity theory and referent cognitions theory as the theoretical frameworks, I argue that perceived coworker entitlement causes psychological distress to the perceiver and consequently undesirable outcomes to the perceiver. According to equity theory, individuals experience distress when there is perceived

inequity and as a result behave in one or more ways: decrease inputs, go into survival mode, become resistant, become overly competitive, and/or push for more output from the organization. Thus, I hypothesize that perceived coworker entitlement leads to psychological distress which leads to decreased in-role behavior, decreased organizational citizenship behavior, increased counterproductive work behavior, and decreased pay satisfaction. However, I argue that individual differences moderate the relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and psychological distress which can ultimately lessen these negative outcomes. The moderating individual differences I consider are core self-evaluations (i.e., self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, neuroticism, and locus of control), positive and negative affect, and equity sensitivity. Specifically, my research question for Chapter 3 is: How do individual differences (i.e., core self-evaluations, positive and negative affect, and equity sensitivity) moderate the psychological distress mediated relationships between perceived coworker entitlement and in-role behavior, organizational citizenship behavior, counterproductive work behavior, and pay satisfaction? In summary, I am interested in how individual differences can mitigate the negative effects associated with perceived coworker entitlement, so employees can protect themselves from highly entitled coworkers and managers can more effectively manage their employees to lessen undesirable consequences.

Another gap in the entitlement literature is the neglect of organizational justice and what organizations can do to mitigate the negative effects that highly entitled employees have on others. Although justice related theories (e.g., equity theory, equity sensitivity) have been utilized in existing entitlement research, organizational justice has not yet been explored within entitlement's nomological network. Incorporating

organizational justice into entitlement research using fairness theory is the motivation for Chapter 4. I believe that all four of Colquitt's (2001) organizational justice factors (i.e., distributive justice, procedural justice, interpersonal justice, and informational justice) might serve as important moderators in the relationships between perceived coworker entitlement and individual outcomes. The review in Chapter 2 revealed that entitlement has negative attitudinal, behavioral, and wellbeing outcomes. Thus, in Chapter 4, I will examine how perceived coworker entitlement is related to one of each of these types of outcomes—job satisfaction (attitudinal), organizational citizenship behavior (behavioral), and emotional exhaustion (wellbeing). Organizational justice is an important gap in entitlement literature to investigate because individuals who perceive coworker entitlement might not experience the detrimental outcomes usually associated with entitlement if they do not feel a sense of unfairness because their organization is dedicated to cultivating a culture of strong organizational justice. In contrast to Chapter 3 where I argue that individual differences might mitigate the detrimental effects of perceived coworker entitlement, in Chapter 4 I argue that organizational justice might mitigate the detrimental effects of perceived coworker entitlement. While Chapter 3 investigates how individuals can reduce negative effects of entitlement, Chapter 4 investigates how the organization and managers can reduce negative effects of entitlement. This is an important distinction because individual differences are stable traits in individuals that managers need to understand in order to supervise employee interactions whereas organizational justice is something that managers can directly affect to better manage entitlement in the workplace. Thus, I believe that organizational justice is a promising avenue for mitigating the negative consequences of entitlement in the

workplace. In contrast to using equity theory and referent cognitions theory in Chapter 3, I will utilize fairness theory as a theoretical framework in Chapter 4. Although equity theory and fairness theory are related theories, fairness theory and organizational justice expand upon equity theory by moving beyond purely distributive justice. In summary, I will investigate the relationships between perceived coworker entitlement and job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, and emotional exhaustion and how organizational justice can moderate these relationships in Chapter 4 of my dissertation. Specifically, my research question for Chapter 4 is: How does organizational justice (i.e., distributive justice, procedural justice, interpersonal justice, and informational justice) moderate the relationships between perceived coworker entitlement and job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, and emotional exhaustion? In short, I am interested in how organizational justice can help lessen the negative effects of perceived coworker entitlement.

The purpose of this dissertation is three-fold. First, I strive to offer a complete review and research agenda of the limited and segmented research on entitlement in the workplace. My hope is that this review will help motivate, organize, and further the field such that additional insights into the phenomenon of entitlement can be gained. Second, I investigate how individual differences can mitigate the undesirable outcomes associated with perceived coworker entitlement. Third, I explore how the organization can mitigate the negative consequences associated with perceived coworker entitlement.

In the following section, I offer a review of each paper's theoretical contributions. In short, this dissertation: (1) reviews and clarifies what entitlement is, (2) provides insight into the moderating effects of perceiver individual differences and mediating

effect of psychological distress between perceived coworker entitlement and negative outcomes, and (3) helps to gain an understanding on how organizational justice moderates the relationships between perceived coworker entitlement and negative outcomes.

SYNTHESIS OF THE COMPLETE DISSERTATION

This research offers the first comprehensive review of entitlement in the workplace research and two of the few empirical studies that consider perceived coworker entitlement from the promising state perspective. First, I review all research that considers entitlement in the workplace or organizations and offer an agenda for future research to help organize and advance the field. Next, I conduct two studies and empirically test hypotheses. The overarching goal of this dissertation is to offer an understanding of: (a) existing entitlement in the workplace research, (b) how the perceiver's traits can lessen negative consequences of perceived coworker entitlement, and (c) how the organization can lessen negative consequences of perceived coworker entitlement. In the discussion that follows, I offer a summary of how each paper contributes to meeting these goals.

Chapter 2 Overview

Chapter 2 attempts to fill a gap in the management literature by providing a review of entitlement research. It acknowledges the prevalence of entitlement in organizations today, yet the limited research that has been done. Although other reviews of entitlement have been offered (Naumann, Minsky, & Sturman, 2002a, 2002b; Jordan, Ramsay, & Westerlaken, 2017; O'Leary-Kelly, Rosen, & Hochwarter, 2017), each of these reviews is deficient in some way. Naumann et al. (2002a, 2002b) provide a review

of the historical roots of entitlement, but they neglect the most influential roots from personality psychology. Moreover, Naumann et al.'s (2002a, 2002b) reviews do not provide a review of empirical entitlement research findings and are outdated. Jordan et al.'s (2017) review emphasizes the influence of psychology on entitlement, but it does not provide an all-encompassing review of all historical roots, theoretical frameworks, and measures. Additionally, Jordan et al. (2017) also do not provide a review of empirical entitlement research findings. Finally, O'Leary-Kelly et al. (2017) emphasize the importance of perceived coworker entitlement and provide a model of work situated entitlement, but they do not provide a traditional review of entitlement research. In contrast to these four existing entitlement review pieces, my review will provide an in-depth review of all of entitlement's historical roots, definitions and conceptualizations, measures, and theoretical frameworks. In my review, I offer a new distinction between conceptualizations of entitlement by differentiating them by trait and state. Prior to my review, the phrase "state entitlement" had not been used. Additionally, my review will be the first entitlement review to examine empirical findings of antecedents and consequences of entitlement in addition to how entitlement has been modeled as a moderator. Finally, I offer an agenda for future entitlement research. Next, I will summarize my review.

My review begins with a historical overview of entitlement. Entitlement has received attention from various disciplines including law, sociology, anthropology, political science, philosophy, and psychology (Naumann et al., 2002a, 2002b). Entitlement in the management literature has primarily borrowed from and built upon entitlement research in psychology, primarily personality psychology. Entitlement

emerged in the personality psychology literature when it was conceptualized as a part of narcissism (Raskin & Terry, 1988). Over time, entitlement received research attention as a construct of its own right, primarily led by Campbell, Bonacci, Shelton, Exline, & Bushman (2004). Campbell and colleagues (2004) define entitlement as a trait: “a stable and pervasive sense that one deserves more and is entitled to more than others” (p. 31). This is the most widely used definition of entitlement in psychology and management disciplines. Albeit, some management scholars have begun to conceptualize entitlement differently than a trait. Most notably, Hochwarter and colleagues (Hochwarter et al., 2007; Hochwarter et al., 2010; O’Leary-Kelly et al., 2017) conceptualize entitlement as what I call a state perspective and emphasize the importance of perceived coworker entitlement. Hochwarter and colleagues argue that the traditional trait perspective limits our understanding of entitlement because it does not consider contextual factors. Thus, Hochwarter and colleagues emphasize the importance of the workplace and how it influences entitlement. O’Leary-Kelly et al. (2017) call this state-based conceptualization “work situated entitlement” (WSE) and define it as “a workplace condition reflective of a misalignment between an employee’s perceptions and the perceptions of a relevant observer regarding an employee’s deservingness for outcomes, such that the employee’s perceptions exceed those of the observer”. This definition of entitlement emphasizes that: (a) entitlement is a state, (b) entitlement is a perception, and (c) entitlement perceptions are socially-determined and therefore context-specific. However, there are limitations to this definition including a required misalignment between the entitled individual’s perception and the observer’s perception, so I develop my own definition of state entitlement: a context-dependent sense that one unjustifiably deserves more than others. I

include context in my definition because it is possible for an individual to exhibit behaviors of entitlement in one context (e.g., at work) and not another (e.g., at home). Moreover, I do not want to unnecessarily limit my definition to only a work context, as state entitlement is likely to be present in other contexts as well. My definition of state entitlement contrasts from O’Leary-Kelly and colleagues’ (2017) definition of work situated entitlement because it does not emphasize the misalignment of perceptions between the employee and the relevant observer, it stresses unjustifiable deservingness, it is generalizable to other contexts, and it is not limited to perceptions. However, I acknowledge the utility of studying state entitlement via perceptions, so I also develop a definition of perceived coworker entitlement: the extent to which an employee perceives a coworker to act as if he/she believes he/she unjustifiably deserves more than others regardless of his/her actual contributions. While perceived coworker entitlement and WSE are similar, perceived coworker entitlement does not rely on a misalignment. In summary, I distinguish between two main conceptualizations of entitlement in the management literature: the traditional trait perspective and a new perspective that I call state entitlement.

Next, Chapter 2 provides an overview of the validity and reliability of the seven measures used to measure entitlement. Three measures were developed in psychology: the Entitlement subscale (ENT) of the Narcissistic Personality Inventory (NPI; Raskin & Terry, 1988), the Psychological Entitlement Scale (PES; Campbell et al., 2004), and the Entitlement subscale of the Grandiose Narcissism Scale (GNS; Foster, McCain, Hibberts, Brunell, & Johnson, 2015). The other four measures were developed by management scholars: the Equity Sensitivity Instrument (ESI; Huseman, Hatfield, & Miles, 1985), the

Equity Preference Questionnaire (EPQ; Sauley & Bedeian, 2000), the Perceived Entitlement Behavior of Others at Work Scale (PEBOWS; Hochwarter et al., 2007), and the Obligation and Entitlement Scale (OES; Brummel & Parker, 2015). The PEBOWS is the only measure designed to measure perceived coworker entitlement compatible with the state perspective, as all the other measures capture trait entitlement and are self-report measures. All the measures have strengths and limitations that are discussed in more detail in Chapter 2.

After a discussion of entitlement measures, Chapter 2 explores theoretical frameworks that management scholars have used to explain the phenomenon of entitlement in a work context. While many theories have been used, attribution theory, conservation of resource theory, and theories related to equity theory have been used the most. Chapter 2 concludes that these theories should continue to be used in addition to new theories to hopefully shed more light on entitlement in the workplace.

Next, Chapter 2 reviews 31 articles that operationalize entitlement in the workplace. The review includes nine articles that model antecedents of entitlement, 25 articles that model consequences of entitlement, and five articles that examine entitlement as a moderator variable. There were no articles that examine entitlement as a mediator. This section goes into detail on these studies and theorized relationships. Clearly, most entitlement research has examined consequences of entitlement. The consequences of entitlement can be categorized into three main categories: attitudinal, behavioral, and wellbeing outcomes. However, there are conflicting empirical results, many variables and relationships yet to be investigated, and most relationships have not been examined from the state-based and perceived coworker entitlement perspectives. Moreover, future

research needs to consider more complex models of entitlement to include moderating and mediating relationships.

Finally, Chapter 2 concludes with a research agenda. The research agenda is comprised of seven areas: (1) move beyond psychological entitlement, (2) use linguistic precision, (3) consider perceived coworker entitlement, (4) consider ways to mitigate the effects of perceived coworker entitlement, (5) improve measures of entitlement, (6) explore entitlement's nomological network, and (7) consider entitlement's "bright side".

In short, the field needs to be more coherent and still in its infancy. Chapter 2 serves as a much-needed all-encompassing review that can help scholars understand what has been done and fruitful areas for future research. Chapter 3 and Chapter 4 consist of empirical studies that incorporate several aspects of the research agenda recommended in the review. Both studies move beyond psychological entitlement and consider state entitlement in a work context, use linguistic precision, measure perceived coworker entitlement, and explore new variables in entitlement's nomological network. Specifically, Chapter 3 is the first empirical study to examine core self-evaluations, positive and negative affect, equity sensitivity, in-role behavior, organizational citizenship behavior (towards individuals and the organization), pay satisfaction, and counterproductive work behavior (towards individuals and the organization) from the perceiver's point of view. Chapter 4 is the first empirical study to examine organizational justice, organizational citizenship behavior (towards individuals and the organization), and emotional exhaustion from the perceiver's point of view. Investigating these variables from the perceiver's point of view should yield new insights, as an entitled

individual may not think or admit that they are indeed entitled whereas a coworker is more likely to admit that the entitled individual is indeed entitled and behaves as such.

Chapter 3 Overview

Chapter 3 attempts to fill the gap in the literature on perceiver individual differences. If perceived coworker entitlement from the state perspective is indeed a fruitful avenue for future research, then the perceiver's individual differences are crucial to consider because they influence how he/she sees the world (including how he/she views his/her coworkers). For example, two people may view the same situation in different ways. Thus, it is possible that one person may perceive a coworker as highly entitled and another person may perceive that same individual as not entitled. In turn, perceptions of coworker entitlement influence whether they experience psychological distress due to inequity and consequential outcomes. Chapter 3 investigates four important individual difference variables: core self-evaluations (i.e., self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, neuroticism, and locus of control), positive affect, negative affect and equity sensitivity. These four individual difference variables were selected for specific purposes: core self-evaluations and positive and negative affect are considered the best predictors of employee outcomes only after general mental ability, and equity sensitivity is especially relevant in an entitlement context (Nelson & Quick, 2006). If these individual difference variables affect entitlement perceptions and can mitigate the negative consequences associated with perceived coworker entitlement, then it would be useful for managers to understand these differences and manage them.

Chapter 3 begins with a discussion on why perceiver individual differences matter. Second, it reviews the limited research on entitlement in the workplace, with an

emphasis on perceived coworker entitlement research from the promising state entitlement perspective. Third, hypotheses are developed between perceived coworker entitlement and various outcomes using equity theory and referents cognition theory as a theoretical framework and psychological distress as a mediating variable. By definition, entitled individuals prefer to maximize outcomes and minimize inputs. According to equity theory, perceived coworker entitlement can create a sense of inequity between the perceiver and the entitled coworker and as a result the perceiver may experience psychological distress. Equity theory states that this distress can be relieved in the following ways: decrease inputs, go into survival mode, become resistant, become overly competitive, and/or push for more output from the organization. In Chapter 3, I will explain how these alternative courses of action correspond to four outcomes: in-role behavior, organizational citizenship behavior (towards individuals and the organization), counterproductive work behavior (towards individuals and the organization), and pay satisfaction. Fourth, the roles that perceiver individual differences (e.g., core self-evaluations, positive and negative affect, and equity sensitivity) might have on these hypothesized relationships are discussed and additional hypotheses regarding the moderating roles of these perceiver individual differences are offered. Finally, the hypotheses are empirically tested using a sample of 200 working adults. Only core self-evaluations and equity sensitivity were found to be significant moderators in the relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and psychological distress. Mediation and moderated mediation hypotheses were not supported. Chapter 3 concludes with a discussion on contributions to research, practical implications, strengths and limitations, and directions for future research.

Until this study, only attention control and political skill have been examined as perceiver individual difference variables (Hochwarter et al., 2007; 2010). This is the first study to consider any other individual difference variables. Moreover, this is the first study to consider core self-evaluations and psychological distress in entitlement research in a work context. Also, it is the first study to consider all the variables in the model from the state-based perspective captured via perceptions of others (i.e., coworkers). All the other studies that examined these variables conceptualized entitlement from the trait-based perspective and used solely self-report measures. Additionally, this study utilizes a rigorous moderated mediation model. Moreover, this study includes a supplemental analysis utilizing manager-reported performance data in an attempt to overcome common method bias, a limitation that has plagued entitlement research.

Chapter 4 Overview

Chapter 4 attempts to fill a gap in entitlement research by considering new variables in entitlement's nomological network, specifically Colquitt's (2001) four factors of organizational justice: distributive justice, procedural justice, interpersonal justice, and informational justice. Hopefully, this study will provide insight into how organizations and managers can mitigate negative consequences associated with perceived coworker entitlement by cultivating a culture of fairness and justice through strong organizational justice practices.

Chapter 4 begins with a discussion about justice and how it is central in all parts of our lives, especially work. Second, Chapter 4 reviews entitlement research that has used justice related frameworks (e.g., equity theory). Using fairness theory as a theoretical framework and organizational justice as a new variable, this study goes

beyond other entitlement studies that focus only on the distributive aspect of justice. Third, it reviews entitlement research with a justification for focusing on perceived coworker entitlement from the state perspective. Fourth, attitudinal, behavioral, and wellbeing consequences are discussed including job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, and emotional exhaustion. I hypothesize that perceived coworker entitlement is negatively related to job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior and positively related to emotional exhaustion. Fifth, a review of organizational justice is offered with an emphasis on Colquitt's (2001) four factor model (i.e., distributive justice, procedural justice, interpersonal justice, and informational justice). Moderation relationships are hypothesized between perceived coworker entitlement and job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, and emotional exhaustion such that the four factors of organizational justice will lessen undesirable consequences. Like Chapter 3, the hypotheses are empirically tested. I found that perceived coworker entitlement is negatively related to organizational citizenship behavior; distributive justice moderates the relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and emotional exhaustion; interpersonal justice moderates the relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and job satisfaction and emotional exhaustion; and informational justice moderates the relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and emotional exhaustion. Similar to Chapter 3, Chapter 4 concludes with a discussion on contributions to research, practical implications, strengths and limitations, and directions for future research.

Until this study, organizational justice had not been considered as a variable in entitlement's nomological network. Also, this is the first study to use fairness theory as a

theoretical framework to help explain entitlement in the workplace and to propose and test relationships between perceived coworker entitlement, organizational justice, and job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior (towards individuals and the organization), and emotional exhaustion from the perceiver's point of view. Lastly, this study also utilizes a supplemental analysis of manager-rated performance data in an attempt to overcome common method bias.

Dissertation Overview Conclusion

The present research attempts to advance research on entitlement in the workplace. Chapter 2 provides a much-needed review of entitlement research to organize existing research and offers promising directions for future research. Acting on Chapter 2's recommendations for future research, two studies are carried out in Chapters 3 and 4. Both studies take the promising state-based perspective of entitlement and measure perceived coworker entitlement. Chapter 3 utilizes equity theory and referent cognitions theory as a theoretical framework to delve into the moderation impact of perceiver individual differences, specifically core-self evaluations, positive and negative affect, and equity sensitivity and the mediating effects of psychological distress in the relationships between perceived coworker entitlement and in-role behavior, organizational citizenship behavior, counterproductive work behavior, and pay satisfaction. Chapter 4 utilizes fairness theory as a theoretical framework to examine the moderation impact of organizational justice, using Colquitt's (2001) four factor model (i.e., distributive justice, procedural justice, interpersonal justice, informational justice) in the relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, and emotional exhaustion. In summary, Chapter 2 provides a review of entitlement

research, Chapter 3 empirically investigates how individuals can mitigate the negative consequences of perceived coworker entitlement, and Chapter 4 empirically investigates how the organization can mitigate the negative consequences of perceived coworker entitlement.

II. ENTITLEMENT IN THE WORKPLACE: A REVIEW AND RESEARCH AGENDA

ABSTRACT

Popular press accounts suggest that nearly all organizations are confronted with the phenomenon of entitlement, yet relatively little research has explored entitlement in the workplace. In this review, I examine the historical roots, definitions and conceptualizations, measures, and theoretical frameworks of entitlement research. Additionally, I review the limited empirical research that has considered entitlement in a work context. Specifically, I examine articles that investigate the antecedents of entitlement, the consequences of entitlement, and entitlement as a moderator. The review indicates that there is incoherence on what entitlement is and what is included in its nomological network. This review serves as an opportunity to analyze and clarify the different streams of entitlement research. Furthermore, I discuss challenges and opportunities for research on entitlement in the workplace to advance with an emphasis on perceived coworker entitlement from a state perspective.

INTRODUCTION

Popular press accounts suggest that organizations are increasingly faced with the phenomenon of entitlement. The Wall Street Journal calls it an “epidemic” and TIME Magazine declares it the “age of entitlement” and a “crisis of unmet expectations” (Franklin, 2014; Stein, 2013; Zaslow, 2007). Although organizations and managers are

seemingly challenged with employees who feel entitled, relatively little research has explored entitlement in the workplace.

Although entitlement is probably not limited to one particular generation or culture (Tomlinson, 2013), emerging evidence suggests that individuals in the Millennial Generation (also known as Millennials or Generation Y, abbreviated to Gen Y) possess an inflated sense of entitlement. In fact, researchers have even labeled the Millennials “Generation Me” (Twenge, 2006). Although no precise dates exist for when the generation starts and ends, most researchers use birth years ranging from the early 1980s to around 2000. Given the large number of Millennials already in the workforce and yet to enter it, an entitlement epidemic is upon us (Twenge, 2010; Twenge, 2014; Twenge & Campbell, 2009).

The preponderance of the entitlement perception in the workplace suggests many organizational and individual implications. The limited organizational research on entitlement suggests that entitlement has detrimental effects including decreased job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behaviors, wellbeing, and performance as well as increased job tension, depression, stress, turnover and counterproductive work behaviors (e.g., Brouer, Wallace, & Harvey, 2011; Brummel & Parker, 2015; Fisk & Neville, 2011; Hochwarter, Meurs, Perrew, Royle, & Matherly, 2007; Tomlinson, 2013). Thus, managers need to be informed on how to deal with this highly entitled workforce, so they are able to handle these entitled expectations in a manner that is most beneficial for all concerned.

Although entitlement in the workplace is a source of negative organizational and individual outcomes, and trends point to increasing numbers of entitled employees,

scholarly research on the topic is limited. Furthermore, the limited existing research has viewed entitlement through a narrow lens, one that is heavily influenced by psychology and that largely neglects the work context. Additionally, the research that has considered entitlement in a work setting has primarily examined consequences of entitlement, and only speculated on possible antecedents, moderators, and mediators. Entitlement in work organizations is a complex construct with many variables yet to be considered.

Given the prevalence of entitlement in organizations and the limited research on the topic, an opportunity exists for management scholars to make a major contribution to understanding the phenomenon. A thorough review of entitlement in the workplace is warranted and important. Historically, entitlement has primarily been researched in the realm of psychology (e.g., Campbell, Bonacci, Shelton, Exline, & Bushman, 2004; Raskin & Terry, 1988). While the research from psychology is useful, entitlement in a work context has special implications for management that the psychology research is unable to capture (Hochwarter et al., 2007). Recently, business scholars have brought entitlement research into management (e.g., Fisk, 2010; Harvey & Martinko, 2009; Hochwarter et al., 2007; Hochwarter, Summers, Thompson, Perrewe, & Ferris, 2010; Naumann, Minsky, & Sturman, 2002a; Naumann, Minsky, & Sturman, 2002b; Whitman, Halbesleben, & Shanine, 2013). Despite the pervasiveness of entitlement in the workplace, entitlement research in the domain of management is still in its infancy, leaving a multitude of opportunities and avenues to be explored. This review is important because it will summarize the limited research on employee entitlement and serve as a catalyst for future entitlement research on this important and emerging issue for organizations and their employees.

This review will also overcome deficiencies in past entitlement reviews (Jordan, Ramsay, & Westerlaken, 2017; Naumann et al., 2002a; 2002b; O’Leary-Kelly et al., 2017) by providing a more encompassing review of entitlement’s historical roots, definitions, conceptualizations, measures, theoretical frameworks, and empirical studies. Naumann et al. (2002a, 2002b) neglect the psychological roots of entitlement, which most entitlement scholars in management draw upon. There has also been a considerable amount of new research on entitlement in the workplace since Naumann et al.’s (2002a, 2002b) reviews, creating a need for a more recent review. While Jordan et al.’s (2017) review is more current, it neglects many of entitlement’s historical roots, measures, and theoretical frameworks. Finally, O’Leary-Kelly et al.’s (2017) review is not a traditional review and limits its focus on a model for a concept they call “work situated entitlement”. Additionally, none of these existing entitlement reviews provide a review of empirical studies to offer an understanding of entitlement’s nomological network to reveal inconsistencies and gaps. My review will build upon these past reviews and provide a more comprehensive review of entitlement’s background, measures, definitions, conceptualizations, theoretical frameworks, and the empirical studies that have operationalized entitlement. Furthermore, I will offer novel and actionable ideas for future research.

In the remainder of this review, I provide a historical background on the entitlement construct and a background of the entitlement construct in management research including its many definitions and conceptualizations, measures, and theoretical frameworks. Next, I review entitlement studies done in a work context and summarize the various ways that entitlement has been modeled and empirically tested. Finally, I

conclude with a discussion on challenges in entitlement research and recommendations for future research directions to help advance this very important and timely topic in management literature.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF THE ENTITLEMENT CONSTRUCT

Although primarily researched in psychology, the concept of entitlement has received research attention from several other disciplines as well. The variability in entitlement conceptualizations and definitions from various disciplines might influence entitlement outcomes and insights. Naumann et al. (2002a, 2002b) reviewed scholarly perspectives on entitlement from law, sociology, anthropology, political science, philosophy, and marketing disciplines. The field of law treats entitlement as a right, which cannot be taken away without due process (Black, 1990). Thus, one's entitlement level is dichotomous (i.e., something is owed to a person or not). From a legal perspective, examples of entitlement include social security, welfare, and fundamental rights. Sociology scholars assume that perceptions of entitlement vary along a continuum. For example, in the social work field, entitlement is conceptualized as a tendency for some individuals to perceive a sense of privilege (Woodruff, 1996). In the field of anthropology, scholars are interested in how people from different cultures perceive themselves as being entitled to special rights (Carroll, 1994). For example, indigenous people often believe they are entitled to political power due to contextual factors (e.g., length of settlement) as opposed to reciprocity factors. Political science scholars view entitlement as a global right for democracy (Franck, 1992). The assumption of democratic entitlement is that those who govern do so with the consent of the governed. From a philosophy viewpoint, working for something entitles an individual to receive

something in return (Locke, 1960). In other words, individuals must earn their level of entitlement. Marxist theories assume a relationship between work and income entitlement. From this perspective, employees are entitled to a product and the full fruits of their labor because they earned it. This viewpoint emphasizes the idea of reciprocity. Lastly, from a marketing perspective, customers often perceive they are entitled to certain things (Naumann et al, 2002b). The marketing literature has examined customers' misalignments between what they expected and what they actually received and how this affects their satisfaction. Although these various fields rely on different definitions and assumptions in their examinations of entitlement, there is some general agreement across fields regarding the concept. Specifically, Naumann et al. (2002a, 2002b) identified that all of these fields treat entitlement as related to what a person perceives he/she deserves; however, the fields differ in why it is deserved. Despite the many disciplines that have studied entitlement, management scholars have predominantly borrowed and built upon entitlement research from psychology, specifically personality psychology. Interestingly, Naumann et al. (2002a, 2002b) did not include the field of psychology in their historical examination of employee entitlement. In the following section, I will discuss definitions and conceptualizations and measures of entitlement in the psychology literature.

Definitions and Conceptualizations

Arguably, entitlement has received the most attention from the field of personality psychology. Entitlement first emerged in personality psychology through the narcissism literature. Narcissism has a mature research history and is defined as “an extremely positive and inflated view of the self combined with limited empathy of others [...] (and characterized by) intense self-love” (DuBrin, 2012, 1). Narcissism was introduced into

the psychology literature by Ellis in 1898 and made a focal construct by Freud (1914-1957). Clinically, narcissism evolved as a personality disorder gaining further attention (American Psychiatric Association, 1994). Raskin and Terry (1988) provide an encompassing history of narcissism research and highlight entitlement as a component of narcissism. In their study, Raskin and Terry (1988) developed the Narcissism Personality Inventory (NPI). Through factor analysis, they identified seven first-order components of narcissism: authority, exhibitionism, superiority, vanity, exploitativeness, entitlement, and self-sufficiency. Raskin and Terry (1988) define entitlement as “the expectation of special favors without assuming reciprocal responsibilities” (p. 891). With the development of the NPI, narcissism became a very popular individual difference variable and was conceptualized as part of the Dark Triad (narcissism, Machiavellianism, and psychopathy; Paulhus & Williams, 2002). In 2004, Campbell and colleagues made entitlement a popular individual difference variable of its own with their development of the Psychological Entitlement Scale (PES). Campbell et al. (2004) define entitlement as “a stable and pervasive sense that one deserves more and is entitled to more than others” (p. 31). Their concept of entitlement reflects a sense of entitlement across situations, not an entitlement that results from a specific situation. This is perhaps the most widely used definition of entitlement in both psychology and management disciplines. Despite the difference between narcissism and entitlement, the terms have been used interchangeably (e.g., Twenge & Campbell, 2009). Rather, entitlement should be thought of as part of the “constellation of traits under the banner of narcissism” (Miller & Konopaske, 2014). I refer to this conceptualization of entitlement as psychological entitlement or trait entitlement.

Measures

There are three measures used to capture trait entitlement in psychology—the Entitlement subscale (ENT) of the Narcissistic Personality Inventory (NPI; Raskin & Terry, 1988), the Psychological Entitlement Scale (PES; Campbell et al., 2004), and the entitlement subscale of the Grandiose Narcissism Scale (GNS; Foster, McCain, Hibberts, Brunell, & Johnson, 2015). The NPI's ENT is the most commonly used measure of psychological entitlement. It is a six-item, forced-choice scale. Unfortunately, Raskin and Terry (1988) reported a low initial reliability of .50 for the ENT subscale. Raskin and Terry (1988) demonstrated initial construct validity for the NPI by correlating it with several observational and self-report data. They did the same with the subscales and found that the ENT was positively correlated with hostility, need for power, ambition, independence, toughness, dominance, change, rebellion, and distrust; and negatively correlated with self-control and tolerance (Raskin & Terry, 1988). Despite its popularity, the ENT has been criticized as an insufficient stand-alone measure due to poor reliability and limited evidence of validity (Campbell et al., 2004). Moreover, its forced-choice format can potentially result in restriction of range problems (Pryor, Miller, & Gaughan, 2008).

In response to the limitations of the ENT, Campbell and colleagues (2004) developed an alternative measure of trait entitlement—the Psychological Entitlement Scale (PES). The PES is a nine-item, seven-point Likert-type scale. Campbell et al. (2004) reported an initial reliability of .87. Campbell et al. (2004) conducted a series of nine studies to demonstrate initial construct validity. These studies found that the PES is negatively related to agreeableness, emotional stability, loyalty, perspective taking, and

empathy towards romantic partners and positively related to narcissism, entitlement-related behavior (e.g., taking candy intended for children), entitlement-related attitude (e.g., perceived self-deserved salary compensation in a company facing budget cuts), a dismissive attachment style in romantic relationships, and aggression following criticism (Campbell et al., 2004). In comparison to the ENT, the PES is presented in a better format and demonstrates greater initial construct validity and reliability.

Pryor et al. (2008) conducted an in-depth comparison of the ENT and PES in relation to general personality traits and personality disorders. The correlation between the ENT and PES was .46 (Pryor et al., 2008). They found that the two measures share similar nomological networks and appear to capture personality traits related to antagonism and to correlate with Narcissistic Personality Disorder. The similarity in the personality correlates of the ENT and PES suggests that these measures might be used interchangeably. However, the PES is the only one that is internally consistent and is recommended to use as a stand-alone measure (Campbell et al., 2004; Pryor et al., 2008). Furthermore, the ENT appears to measure a more pathological, “darker” side that may be useful for clinicians or researchers who are interested in personality pathology (Pryor et al., 2008).

Recently, Foster et al. (2015) developed the Grandiose Narcissism Scale (GNS) as a better alternative to the NPI. Like the NPI, the GNS also has an entitlement subscale comprised of five items on a six-point Likert-type scale. Foster et al. (2015) report an initial reliability of .76 for the entitlement subscale. Although the entitlement subscale of the GNS appears to be a promising measure of psychological or trait entitlement, it is still

a new measure that has not yet undergone psychometric scrutiny and has not yet been used for entitlement research in a work context.

BACKGROUND OF THE ENTITLEMENT CONSTRUCT IN MANAGEMENT RESEARCH

The review of entitlement in psychology provides a useful starting point to review entitlement in organizations. I will continue the literature review by focusing on entitlement in management and examining three specific areas. First, I will present various definitions and conceptualizations of entitlement used in the management literature. Second, I will examine the various measures used to capture entitlement in a work context. Third, I will review the theoretical frameworks that have been used to explain entitlement in the workplace.

Definitions and Conceptualizations

There is an abundance of entitlement conceptualizations in the management literature; however, most can be categorized in one of two ways. The more prevalent conceptualization of entitlement is that it is a stable individual difference. This is referred to as trait entitlement. In contrast, an alternative conceptualization of entitlement views it as a flexible state and considers the broader social context around the individual. I call this “state entitlement”. Traits and states often intertwine and therefore it is sometimes difficult to distinguish between the two. In short, traits are stable characteristics across time and settings and states are temporary feelings or behaviors that depend on an individual’s situation and motives at a specific time. Table 1 summarizes definitions of entitlement in the management literature.

Insert Table 1 about here

Scholars in management who conceptualize entitlement as a trait borrow directly from the personality psychology literature reviewed above (e.g., Harvey & Harris, 2010; Harvey, Harris, Gillis, & Martinko, 2014; Harvey & Martinko, 2009; Maynard, Brondolo, Connelly, & Sauer, 2015; Thompson & Gregory, 2012). Specifically, they draw on Campbell et al.'s (2004) conceptualization of psychological entitlement as “a stable and pervasive sense that one deserves more and is entitled to more than others” (p. 31). Definitions of trait entitlement emphasize that actual deservingness is not relevant, and that entitlement is a global trait that is stable across time and a variety of settings, including the workplace.

Other scholars have utilized similar trait-like definitions of entitlement, but more specific to the work context (e.g., Bryne, Miller, & Pitts, 2010; Fisk, 2010; Foley, Ngo, & Loi, 2016; Jordan et al., 2017; Miller & Konopaske, 2014; Naumann et al., 2002a; Naumann et al., 2002b; Neville, 2011). In general, these definitions reflect an equity theory perspective where entitled employees have a preference for over-reward versus under-reward. (e.g., Adams, 1963; 1965; Huseman, Hatfield, & Miles, 1985; 1987). A notable exception to the trait entitlement conceptualization is Jordan et al.'s (2017) situation activated trait entitlement. In contrast to entitlement as a general trait, Jordan et al. (2017) propose that entitlement has a latent potential that can be activated by specific personal experiences and situational factors. For example, a specific environment (e.g., the workplace) can activate entitlement.

There are a few scholars who have made important distinctions between trait entitlement and other related constructs. Feather (2003, 2008, 2009; Feather & Johnstone, 2001) established a distinction between entitlement and deservingness. Specifically, entitlement refers to the actor's framework and involves rights, rules, and social norms (Feather, 2003). In contrast, deservingness refers to some action of individuals that gives way to corresponding outcomes (Feather, 1999). Bing, Garner, Ammeter, and Novicevic (2009) and Miller (2009) stress that entitlement and benevolence are not two ends of the same spectrum. Miller (2009) differentiates entitlement and benevolence as "entitlement is a characteristic of individuals who prefer to get more from their workplace than they give, whereas benevolence is a characteristic of individuals who prefer to give more than they receive" (p. 329). Harvey and Harris (2010), Harvey et al. (2014) and Laird, Harvey, and Lancaster (2015) discuss the difference between justifiable entitlement and heightened entitlement. According to Harvey and Harris (2010), justifiable entitlement includes things such as basic education and safety whereas heightened entitlement is "a stable tendency toward highly favorable self-perceptions and a tendency to feel deserving of high levels of praise and reward, regardless of actual performance levels" (p. 1640). Similarly, Tomlinson (2013) acknowledges this same idea and refers to justifiable entitlement as legitimate entitlement. However, justifiable or legitimate entitlement is not the construct that worries so many organizations and managers and is not the interest of entitlement research in management—it is heightened entitlement that is the concern. Fisk (2010) refers to the idea of heightened entitlement as excessive entitlement and Tomlinson (2013) refers to it as over-entitlement. Lastly, Brummel and Parker (2015) emphasize the differences between entitlement and obligation. According to Brummel

and Parker (2015), entitlement is “the degree to which individuals believe that they deserve the time, resources, and considerations of society” (p. 130) whereas obligation is “the degree to which individuals believe that they owe time, resources, and consideration to society” (p. 129). In short, entitlement is what individuals believe they are owed and obligation is what individuals believe they owe. However, obligations are sometimes perceived as entitlements, creating an imbalance in a relationship (e.g., employer-employee). In summary, management scholars have predominantly considered entitlement from a trait perspective.

In contrast to the dominating trait entitlement research, some research indicates that entitlement is not always a stable individual difference and that entitlement is dependent on context (e.g., Chatrakul Na Ayudhya & Smithson, 2016; Herman & Lewis, 2012; Hochwarter et al., 2007; Hochwarter et al., 2010; Lewis & Smithson, 2001; O’Leary-Kelly et al., 2017). There are two streams of literature that conceptualize entitlement in a non-trait way: Lewis and colleagues and Hochwarter and colleagues. Lewis and colleagues (Chatrakul Na Ayudhya & Smithson, 2016; Herman & Lewis, 2012; Lewis & Smithson 2001) investigate how the environment, specifically the legal and cultural environments, influences entitlement. However, this stream of research is not specific to a work context and thus not as promising for management future research. Hochwarter and colleagues (Hochwarter et al., 2007; Hochwarter et al., 2010; O’Leary-Kelly et al., 2017) investigate how the workplace influences entitlement, which is of great interest to management scholars and therefore a promising stream of research. O’Leary-Kelly et al. (2017) believe that a key limiting factor in prior research is the strong emphasis on entitlement as a stable trait that does not consider contextual factors. They

identify two main reasons that this one-sided treatment of entitlement restricts our knowledge. First, conceptualizations of entitlement as a trait limits insight into organizational phenomena. Because entitlement is very similar to other individual traits like narcissism, superiority, and self-esteem (Campbell et al., 2004), trait entitlement research can provide only marginal incremental contributions to organization scholars. Second, a trait conceptualization restricts the focus for organizational interventions that might address the numerous detrimental outcomes (e.g., job tension, anxiety, job dissatisfaction, counterproductive work behaviors) associated with entitlement in the workplace. The trait perspective over-emphasizes the entitled individual's personality and creates a tunnel-vision that neglects to consider how other factors may help overcome these negative attitudes and behaviors. Hochwarter et al. (2007) introduced the idea of perceived coworker entitlement and how employees who perceive coworkers as entitled are affected. O'Leary-Kelly et al. (2017) take perceived coworker entitlement one step further and emphasize the misalignment in the entitled individual's perception and those of their coworkers. They develop a theoretical model called "work situated entitlement" (WSE). They posit that WSE is "a workplace condition reflective of a misalignment between an employee's perceptions and the perceptions of a relevant observer regarding an employee's deservingness for outcomes, such that the employee's perceptions exceed those of the observer" (O'Leary-Kelly et al., 2017). This definition has a few important components. First, it stresses that entitlement is a condition dependent on context (i.e., the workplace) and not necessarily a stable trait. Second, it emphasizes that entitlement is a perception held by an entity. They argue that individuals do not typically label themselves as entitled. Rather, it is the observation, perception, and assessment of another

party (e.g., coworkers) that makes this designation. Other than Hochwarter and colleagues (2007; 2010; O’Leary-Kelly et al., 2017), only a few researchers advocate that entitlement may be best assessed by observers rather than self-reports (e.g., Fisk, 2010; Tomlinson, 2013). Third, it emphasizes an incongruence in perceptions. In short, O’Leary-Kelly et al. (2017) argue that in the workplace, “a person is deemed entitled when an external assessment of deservingness (i.e., by coworkers) is inconsistent with the individual’s own deservingness assessment” (p. 419). O’Leary-Kelly and colleagues (2017) conceptualize entitlement as an alignment construct which shares similarities with person-group fit and person-job fit research. They suggest that WSE is conditional on the misalignment between an individual and an observer’s perceptions within the work context. However, it is possible that WSE will not be identified, even if employees feel a coworker has high state entitlement (e.g., if there is no misalignment—the entitled employee recognizes he/she is not deserving, but still demands high outcomes and other employees also recognize the entitled employee is not deserving). Consequently, the WSE approach might not always pick up on state entitlement. Therefore, the field can benefit from the development of an alternative non-trait conceptualization of entitlement. While the incongruence approach of WSE is perhaps a worthwhile avenue for future research, I propose that WSE is a stream of research within something I call state entitlement. However, for state entitlement research to advance, there needs to be a clear definition of state entitlement like Campbell et al.’s (2004) definition of trait entitlement. Consequently, I present a definition of state entitlement: a context-dependent sense that one unjustifiably deserves more than others.

While my definition of state entitlement also emphasizes the importance of context, it contrasts from O’Leary-Kelly and colleagues’ (2017) definition of WSE in four ways: (1) it does not emphasize the misalignment of perceptions between the employee and the relevant observer, (2) it stresses unjustifiable deservingness, (3) it is generalizable to other contexts, and (4) it is not limited to perceptions of others. I argue that it does not really matter if there is a misalignment between the perceptions of the entitled employee and the relevant observer; it really only matters if the relevant observer perceives the employee as unjustifiably entitled. This is an important distinction because the relevant observer who perceives a coworker as unjustifiably entitled will experience negative outcomes associated with this perception regardless of how the unjustifiably entitled individual feels. Thus, I do not focus on the misalignment of perceptions. However, I do give emphasis to the importance of unjustifiable deservingness. If an individual truly deserves certain outcomes, then they are not entitled but rather justifiably deserving. For example, if an employee works hard and performs well, then he/she justifiably deserves a pay raise. This is consistent with Harvey and Harris’s (2010) idea of justifiable entitlement and Tomlinson’s (2013) notion of legitimate entitlement. However, if an individual is entitled and not deserving, then they are unjustifiably entitled. For example, if an employee does not work hard and does not perform well, then he/she does not justifiably deserve a pay raise. Thus, if the employee believes that he/she should get a pay raise then this is unjustifiable entitlement. Additionally, my definition also emphasizes that context is important, but I do not limit my definition to a work context. State entitlement can be studied in many contexts; thus, my definition is more generalizable, yet still stresses the importance of whatever that context may be. Finally,

my definition is not conditional on the perceptions of others. Although using perceptions of others is a promising way to capture state entitlement, I believe that state entitlement captured using self perceptions via a self-report measure could be useful in some situations. For instance, state entitlement captured using a self-report measure would be useful to examine consequences of an individual's own entitlement in a situation. Thus, I do not unnecessarily limit my definition of state entitlement to perceptions of others. In summary, while my definition of state entitlement draws from O'Leary-Kelly and colleagues' (2017) conceptualization of entitlement, it is a distinctive definition of its own right. Specifically, my definition is a general definition of state entitlement whereas O'Leary-Kelly et al.'s (2017) definition is specific to state entitlement perception misalignments in the workplace, perhaps a subcategory of research within state entitlement.

While I acknowledge that state entitlement can be captured as both a self-report and a perception of others (e.g., coworkers), I believe that the perception of others is a very promising area of research within the state entitlement perspective. Like WSE, perceived coworker entitlement can be thought of as another stream of research within state entitlement. Perceived coworker entitlement is a promising avenue for future entitlement research in management and has only received limited attention (e.g., Hochwarter et al., 2007; 2010). It is important to look at the consequences an entitled employee can have not only on themselves but also on their coworkers. This contrasts with the vast majority of entitlement research in management that has only looked at the consequences of entitlement to the entitled individual. The limited research on perceived coworker entitlement by Hochwarter and colleagues (2007; 2010) has not offered a

formal definition of perceived coworker entitlement and has only begun to explore the effects of perceived coworker entitlement. Expanding upon my definition of state entitlement, I offer a definition for perceived coworker entitlement. I define perceived coworker entitlement as the extent to which an employee perceives a coworker to act as if he/she believes he/she unjustifiably deserves more than others regardless of his/her actual contributions. In summary, perceived coworker entitlement can be thought of as under the umbrella of state entitlement, emphasizing perceptions of others and a work context. Most entitlement research in management has neglected the fact that entitlement can be conceptualized differently than a trait (for exceptions see Hochwarter et al., 2007; Hochwarter et al., 2010; O’Leary-Kelly et al., 2017; Tomlinson, 2013). I argue that trait entitlement and state entitlement are two different constructs that must be treated as such because they might have different consequences and be mitigated different ways. This trait and state distinction is similar to other organizational behavior constructs. For example, trust is conceptualized as both a trait and a state. Specifically, a predisposition to trust is a trait whereas trust in a particular trustee is a state (Mayer et al., 1995). Nonetheless, dispositional traits (e.g., predisposition to trust, self-efficacy, self-esteem) directly impact corresponding situation-specific states (Tomlinson, 2013). Thus, it is possible that trait entitlement directly influences state entitlement. Following this logic, O’Leary-Kelly et al. (2017) and Tomlinson (2013) integrate both trait entitlement and state entitlement into a single framework (but without using these terms). O’Leary-Kelly et al. (2017) propose that trait entitlement is an antecedent to individual self-assessment which form deservingness perceptions which form work situated entitlement. The interaction of work situated entitlement and social interactions influence perceptions of

work situated entitlement which has cognitive, emotional, and behavioral responses.

Tomlinson (2013) proposes that trait entitlement (combined with other situational factors) is an antecedent to entitlement beliefs which forms expectations and has attitudinal, behavioral, and psychological outcomes. Specifically, Tomlinson (2013) proposes that the higher an individual is in trait entitlement, the higher their entitlement beliefs are likely to be.

In summary, researchers have used a range of entitlement definitions. While I do not believe it is possible, or even desirable, for all scholars to agree on one definition of entitlement, I do believe that the definition used might have different implications on entitlement research. For example, trait entitlement is very different than perceived coworker entitlement. Therefore, it is important for scholars to specify which type of entitlement they are studying and to clearly define it.

Measures

There are two main approaches that management scholars have taken to measure entitlement in the workplace. The first approach is borrowing the PES (Campbell et al., 2004) and the ENT subscale of the NPI (Raskin & Terry, 1988) from the field of psychology. In fact, the PES is the most widely used measure of entitlement in management research. It should also be noted that the entitlement subscale of the GNS (Foster et al., 2015) has not yet been used in management research to study entitlement. While the PES and ENT subscale of the NPI may be useful for capturing trait entitlement, they are not good for state entitlement. For example, an item in the ENT is “If I ruled the world it would be a better place” and an item in the PES is “If I were on the Titanic, I would deserve to be on the *first* lifeboat!” (Raskin & Terry, 1988; Campbell et al., 2004).

These items are not specific to a work context. From a state perspective, someone might feel entitled in a work setting but not think they deserve to be on the first lifeboat if they were on the Titanic. Furthermore, not everyone might know what the Titanic was. Thus, even without empirical evidence, we can conclude that the PES and ENT are probably not adequate to capture state entitlement in organizations. Thus, the measures borrowed from psychology should only be used to measure trait entitlement and care should be taken when they are used in a work context or across cultures. The second approach is constructing and/or using measures of entitlement intended to be used in a work setting. These measures include Huseman et al.'s (1985) Equity Sensitivity Instrument (ESI), Sauley and Bedeian's (2000) Equity Preference Questionnaire (EPQ), Hochwarter et al.'s (2007) Perceived Entitlement Behaviors of Others at Work Scale (PEBOWS)¹, and Brummel and Parker's (2015) Obligation and Entitlement Scale (OES). Table 2 summarizes the measures used to measure entitlement in management research. Most are self-report measures and have achieved reasonable initial reliabilities. Table 3 summarizes the measures used and analytic methodology employed in entitlement studies in management. This table is composed of the measures, the context, and the methodology employed.

 Insert Table 2 and Table 3 about here

Some researchers (e.g., Bing et al., 2009) use the Equity Sensitivity Instrument (ESI) developed by Huseman et al. (1985) to capture entitlement. The ESI is a five-item

¹ Hochwarter et al.'s (2007) measure does not have an official name or acronym. Hochwarter et al. (2007) refer to it as the perceived entitlement behaviors of others at work scale. I abbreviate it as PEBOWS.

forced distribution, self-report scale with a reported initial reliability of .83 (Huseman et al., 1985). The ESI assesses an individual's sensitivity to equity by tapping into an individual's preferences for outcomes versus inputs in a general work situation. Individuals are then placed along a continuum that ranges from benevolents to entitleds, with equity sensitives in the middle. Benevolents are individuals who prefer that their inputs exceed their outcomes. Entitleds are individuals who prefer that their outcomes exceed their inputs. Lastly, equity sensitives are individuals who prefer that their outcomes equal their inputs. While the ESI categorizes individuals on one end of the continuum as entitled, this measure was not designed to capture the construct of entitlement. Rather, the ESI is based on equity theory (Adams, 1963, 1965) and was designed to capture perceptions of and reactions to inequity. Although the ESI was not developed as a measure of entitlement, entitlement is a component of the equity sensitivity construct. Sauley and Bedeian (2000) identify measurement problems of the ESI to include poor content validity, sample-specific scoring, and its reliance on cut scores. Furthermore, its forced-distribution format forces individuals to allocate a set number of points between benevolent and entitlement statements. Thus, benevolence and entitlement will always be perfectly negatively correlated and be conceptualized as opposite ends of the same continuum, which represents equity sensitivity as a unidimensional construct (Davis & Bing, 2008). However, it is conceivable that benevolence and entitlement are two separate dimensions (Davis & Bing, 2008). In fact, Davis and Bing (2008) found that a two-factor model of the ESI had a superior fit over Huseman et al.'s (1985) original one factor model of the ESI.

Other researchers (e.g., Byrne et al., 2010; Miller & Konopaske, 2014; Miller, 2009) have used the Equity Preference Questionnaire (EPQ) developed by Sauley and Bedeian (2000), also a measure of equity sensitivity. Sauley and Bedeian (2000) constructed the EPQ using more rigorous scale development methods in efforts of overcoming the shortcomings of the ESI. The EPQ is a sixteen-item, self-report measure. Instead of a forced distribution format, the EPQ uses a five-point Likert-type response scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. Sauley and Bedeian (2000) used factor analysis to argue that a single factor was the most succinct. However, Foote and Harmon (2006) found support for three factors and Shore and Strauss (2008) found evidence of four factors. Sauley and Bedeian (2000) conducted two studies for evidence of content validity, two studies to establish construct validity, a laboratory experiment to support predictive validity, and a test-retest reliability study to provide evidence regarding the consistency of the EPQ's measurements across time. They reported initial reliabilities ranging from .84 to .88 (Sauley & Bedeian, 2000). While it appears that the EPQ is more psychometrically sound than the ESI, there is a debate in the field over which measure is superior. Some scholars declare that the ESI is the better measure of equity sensitivity (e.g., Foote & Harmon, 2006); however, others believe that the EPQ is the superior measure (e.g., Shore & Strauss, 2008). Regardless, both are intended to measure equity sensitivity, and not perceived entitlement.

One more measure of trait entitlement was recently developed by Brummel and Parker (2015). Brummel and Parker (2015) developed the Obligation and Entitlement Scale (OES). The OES is comprised of a nine-item obligation scale and a nine-item entitlement scale. Both scales are self-report and utilize a five-point Likert-type response

format ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. The obligation scale achieved an initial reported reliability of .81 and the entitlement scale an initial reported reliability of .84 (Brummel & Parker, 2015). Brummel and Parker (2015) propose an orthogonal structure for self-report perceptions of obligation and entitlement to capture whether individuals have tendencies toward other-orientation or self-interest. Unlike the other measures of trait entitlement, the OES was developed using the responses of over 10,000 participants from around the world implying greater external validity. However, the OES is a newer measure that has not been widely used, so care should be taken.

Overcoming the weaknesses of borrowing measures from psychology, using equity sensitivity measures, and using other trait entitlement measures, Hochwarter et al. (2007) constructed a scale designed to measure perceived entitlement behaviors of others at work, compatible with the state perspective of entitlement. The Perceived Entitlement Behaviors of Others at Work Scale (PEBOWS) is a six-item measure with a five-point Likert-type response format ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. Hochwarter et al. (2007) reported an initial reliability of .94 and demonstrated initial criterion validity. However, the measure has not been subjected to the scrutiny needed to demonstrate adequate construct and discriminant validity. A unique feature of the PEBOWS is that it is the only scale designed to measure perceived entitlement of others, so it is not a self-report measure. Thus, the PEBOWS is useful to measure perceived coworker entitlement.

Theoretical Frameworks

Numerous theoretical frameworks have been used to explain entitlement in the workplace. Table 4 summarizes the theories that management scholars have used. The

theories that have been utilized the most are attribution theory (Kelley & Michela, 1980; Weiner, 1972, 1985), conservation of resource theory (Hobfoll, 1989), and equity theory (Adams, 1963, 1965).

Insert Table 4 about here

Attribution theory supposes that one attempts to understand the behavior of others by attributing feelings, beliefs, and intentions to them (Kelley & Michela, 1980; Weiner, 1972, 1985). There are various attribution styles that are stable tendencies toward biased causal explanations (Harvey & Martinko, 2009). Harvey and Martinko (2009) theorize that entitlement promotes a self-serving attribution style. Although it is natural to work towards a positive self-image, entitled individuals tend to be less willing than others to accept information that is not consistent with this view (Harvey & Martinko, 2009). Thus, a self-serving attribution style biases individuals toward attributing negative events to external factors and positive events to internal factors (Harvey & Martinko, 2009). More specifically, entitled individuals tend to have a self-serving attribution style that possesses attributional biases that cause them to take credit for desirable outcomes while deflecting blame for negative outcomes to external factors, including others (Harvey & Harris, 2010). Harvey and Martinko (2009) found that trait entitlement and outcomes including turnover intentions, supervisor conflict, and job satisfaction are partially mediated by self-serving attribution style. Harvey and Harris (2010) found that the self-serving attribution style of entitled individuals promotes anger and frustration because of the tendency to attribute negative outcomes to other people and perceiving these individuals

as an impediment to achieving their desired outcomes. As a result, Harvey and Harris (2010) found that this frustration mediates the positive relationship between trait entitlement and abusive coworker behaviors.

Two other articles that consider an attributional theory framework are Brouer et al. (2011) and O’Leary-Kelly et al. (2017). Brouer et al. (2011) investigate trait entitlement through an attribution theory lens. They offer a theoretical framework predicting that trait entitlement is positively related to stress, based on the logic that entitled individuals tend to have self-serving attribution styles and as a result, inflated levels of self-evaluative internal resources (e.g., self-esteem, self-efficacy). Alternatively, from a state perspective, O’Leary-Kelly et al. (2017) propose that individuals and workgroups are likely to develop opposing perceptions of the causes of work situated entitlement (WSE) due to attributional biases. Specifically, both individuals and workgroups will develop self-serving attribution styles that will create interesting dynamics in WSE situations.

A second theoretical framework utilized is conservation of resource theory, developed by Hobfoll (1989). The theory is an integrated model of stress that integrates several stress theories. According to the model, individuals seek to acquire and maintain resources (e.g., objects, personal characteristics, conditions, energies) and stress occurs when there is an actual or threatened loss of resources (Hobfoll, 1989). Hochwarter et al. (2010) investigated how observing others’ entitlement behavior can create a stressful work context. In short, Hochwarter et al. (2010) say that entitled individuals seek others’ assets for personal gain, which is likely to strain social relationships. In this situation, observers of entitlement behavior perceive their resources as either lost or threatened and

as a result they experience stress. Hochwarter et al. (2010) examine how a coping resource, political skill, can neutralize the strain. Across three samples, Hochwarter and colleagues (2010) empirically found that political skill moderates the relationship between perceived entitlement behavior by others and job tension.

Brouer et al. (2011), whom I noted earlier used an attributional framework, also apply conservation of resource theory to explain the relationship between trait entitlement and stress. Whereas attribution theory was useful to help explain the formation and maintenance of entitled individuals' inflated self-perceptions and expectations, conservation of resource theory is useful to provide insight into the self-defeating nature of entitlement perceptions. Brouer and colleagues (2011) argue that conservation of resource theory may apply differently to entitled individuals. They argue that entitled individuals are able to develop and maintain inflated levels of internal coping resources including self-esteem, self-efficacy, and optimism. Contrary to conservation of resource theory, high levels of resources are not a good thing for entitled individuals. Inflated levels of resources give these individuals an unrealistic outlook so when they experience disappointment and unmet expectations, they are likely to experience stress. Like Hochwarter et al. (2010), Brouer et al. (2011) also found that political skill can moderate this relationship. Additionally, Laird et al. (2015) utilize conservation of resource theory to investigate the moderating effects of trait entitlement and tenure on the felt accountability-job satisfaction relationship. Following the same logic as Brouer et al. (2011), Laird and colleagues (2015) acknowledge the artificial inflation of entitled individuals' resources.

A third theoretical framework employed by entitlement research in management is equity theory (e.g., Byrne et al., 2010; Miller, 2009; Miller & Konopaske, 2014; Naumann et al., 2002b; O'Leary-Kelly et al., 2017). Equity theory utilizes the idea that individuals compare themselves to others from social comparison theory (Festinger, 1954, 1957) and cognitive dissonance theory (Festinger, 1957), two other theories that have been used to help explain entitlement in the workplace (e.g., Byrne et al., 2010; Foley et al., 2016; Herman & Lewis, 2012; Miller, 2009). Social comparison theory is the idea that individuals evaluate themselves and then compare themselves with similar others to obtain self-information (Festinger, 1957). Cognitive dissonance theory states that dissonance is usually manifested by anxiety and distress that leads to action that is oriented toward reducing the dissonance (Festinger, 1954, 1957). According to equity theory, outcomes are perceived as fair when the ratio of outcomes to inputs is equal across individuals (Adams, 1963, 1965). However, when the outcome to input ratios across individuals are not proportionate, dissonance is manifested by anxiety and distress which motivates individuals to restore equity. Byrne et al. (2010) utilize equity theory and social comparison theory to argue that employees compare themselves to their coworkers and their job satisfaction depends on how favorable the comparisons are. However, equity theory is not without its criticisms. Namely, equity theory is criticized for being overly simplistic and not taking into account how individual differences affect people's perceptions of fairness. One individual difference construct that is derived from equity theory and seen in the entitlement literature is equity sensitivity (Huseman et al., 1985, 1987). The equity sensitivity construct suggests that people have differing sensitivity for levels of equity in the workplace (Huseman et al., 1985, 1987). According

to Huseman et al. (1985, 1987), preferences for equity can be expressed on a continuum from preferences for extreme under-benefit to preferences for extreme over-benefit and the three archetypal classes are benevolents, equity sensitivities, and entitlements (Huseman et al., 1985, 1987). Because of the dimension label “entitled”, some scholars have equated equity sensitivity’s entitlements to trait entitlement (e.g., Bing et al., 2009; Foote & Harmon, 2006; Miller, 2009; Shore & Strauss, 2008). These scholars argue that entitled individuals prefer to be over-rewarded and are more focused on what outcomes they receive from the organization. Although entitlement and equity sensitivity are related constructs, future research is warranted to explore their overlaps and differences. While attribution theory, conservation of resource theory, and equity theory have been utilized the most in investigating entitlement in the workplace, research is still in its infancy. Future research should continue to explore the theories in Table 4 and consider additional theories as well to help us understand and learn more about entitlement in the workplace. Additionally, many of these theories have yet to be used to explain the effects of perceived coworker entitlement from a state perspective.

REVIEW OF EMPIRICAL ENTITLEMENT RESEARCH

The objective of this section of the review is to examine empirical articles that operationalize trait or state entitlement in the workplace. This review of empirical entitlement research includes perceived entitlement of others and self-reported entitlement. I found that entitlement research could be classified into three distinct groups representing different approaches to modeling entitlement in the workplace. Four articles modeled entitlement as a dependent variable, 15 articles modeled entitlement as an independent variable, and five articles examined entitlement as a moderating variable

affecting relationships between antecedents and outcomes. In my review, I did not find any articles that examined entitlement as a mediating variable. In this section, I will discuss the method I used to find articles that consider entitlement in the workplace. Next, I will review the studies that examine antecedents of entitlement, consequences of entitlement, and entitlement as a moderator.

Method

I sought to include all empirical articles that examine entitlement in the workplace. I also include any article that proposes a testable relationship between entitlement and other variables. Using ABI/INFORM Collection Database, I conducted an advanced search for scholarly articles in English with the words “entitlement” and “workplace” or “work” or “organization” in the abstract. I also included relevant articles that other articles cited but did not yield in my search. My search returned 415 articles.

All the articles were then reviewed to determine whether they should be included in the review. First, I sought to only include articles that explore heightened or excessive entitlement—not legitimate or justifiable entitlement. I found that many articles conceptualized entitlement in a legal sense. For example, these articles looked at work entitlements in the sense that employees are entitled to benefits, worker’s compensation, etc. These articles are examples of legitimate or justifiable entitlement and were not included in the review. The elimination of these articles left me with 36 articles, as summarized in Table 1. Second, since my objective was to include articles that were empirical in nature, I only included articles that tested relationships between entitlement and other variables. This process yielded 20 articles that are included in my review of empirical entitlement research.

Studies Examining the Antecedents of Entitlement

Determining what yields entitlement in the workplace is important in understanding the entitlement construct. Furthermore, perhaps entitlement in the workplace can be minimized if we know what causes it and thus what might prevent it. Table 5 summarizes the four articles that model entitlement as a dependent variable. The table details measures of entitlement, independent variables, and key findings for each article.

Insert Table 5 about here

Brummel and Parker (2015) used the OES in two studies to investigate whether entitlement varied by age, gender, and geographical region. In study one, they surveyed 10,822 participants from 141 countries. In study two, they surveyed 207 employees from the United States. They found that gender, age, and culture relate to entitlement. Specifically, females and individuals from collectivist cultures were positively related to entitlement and age was negatively related to entitlement. Hurst and Good (2009) conducted a study with 193 college seniors and found that job expectations, perceptions of careers, and future supervisory support expectations positively relate to entitlement perceptions. Using equity theory and social exchange theory, Miller (2009) used the EPQ to measure entitlement in a two study design. Study one surveyed 382 undergraduate students and study two surveyed 455 undergraduate students. Miller (2009) found that empathy is positively related to entitlement and positive affect is negatively related to entitlement; however, feminine role identity is not related to entitlement. Also utilizing

equity theory, Miller and Konopaske (2014) also conducted two studies using the EPQ to measure entitlement. Study one surveyed 214 employed students and study two surveyed 270 employed students. They found that Machiavellianism and Protestant work ethic are positively related to perceived entitlement.

Figure 1 summarizes empirically significant antecedents and consequences of entitlement. The plus and minus signs indicate factors increasing and decreasing entitlement, respectively. Of the four articles that have examined antecedents of entitlement, age and positive affect are negatively related to entitlement and collectivism, empathy, future supervisory support expectations, female gender, job expectations, Machiavellianism, perceptions of careers, and Protestant work ethic positively relate to entitlement. However, there are several hypothesized antecedents of entitlement that have not yet been tested, were tested but not significant, or have not yet been hypothesized. In short, limited research has examined the antecedents of the entitlement construct.

Insert Figure 1 about here

Studies Examining Consequences of Entitlement

If entitlement is indeed prevalent in the workplace, then there should be consequences to both the entitled individuals and individuals who perceive entitlement behavior from others. Table 6 summarizes the 15 articles that model entitlement as an independent variable. The table details measures of entitlement, dependent variables, and key findings. Consequences are the most studied area of entitlement in the workplace and

can be categorized into three main categories: attitudinal, behavioral, and wellbeing outcomes.

Insert Table 6 about here

Attitudinal consequences of entitlement include increased salary deservingness (Campbell et al., 2004), job frustration (Harvey & Harris, 2010), turnover intent (Harvey & Martinko, 2009), job tension (Hochwarter et al., 2007; Hochwarter et al., 2010), and decreased job satisfaction (Foley et al., 2016; Harvey & Martinko, 2009; Hochwarter et al., 2007; Maynard et al., 2015). Job satisfaction is the most studied outcome variable of entitlement in the workplace, being a variable of interest in four of the 15 articles (Foley et al., 2016; Harvey & Martinko, 2009; Hochwarter et al., 2007; Maynard et al., 2015). Using justice theories, Hochwarter et al. (2007) were the first to study the relationship between entitlement and job satisfaction. They hypothesized that perceived entitlement of others is a stressor and may have a negative influence on employee attitudinal and behavioral outcomes, including job satisfaction. In their first study, they found that perceived entitlement behavior was associated with decreased job satisfaction. In their second study, they replicated the results with a longitudinal design. Utilizing attribution theory, Harvey and Martinko (2009) also hypothesized a negative relationship between entitlement and job satisfaction, stemming from unmet expectations and self-serving attribution styles. In contrast to Hochwarter et al.'s (2007) study, Harvey and Martinko (2009) focused on trait entitlement and the impact of an individual's entitlement on their own job satisfaction. However, there was no significant relationship found. Similarly,

Foley et al. (2016) found no direct relationship between trait entitlement and job satisfaction. However, they did find a significant relationship between trait entitlement and job satisfaction that was fully mediated by downward social comparison. Maynard et al. (2015) also investigated the relationship between trait entitlement and job satisfaction. Using relative deprivation theory, Maynard and colleagues (2015) hypothesized that highly entitled employees are more likely to desire and feel that they deserve more compared to less entitled employees and as a result they will feel deprivation and experience negative attitudes including job dissatisfaction. They found a significant, negative relationship between entitlement and job satisfaction.

Perhaps the most studied domains of work behavior are performance, organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), and counterproductive work behavior (CWB). Behavioral consequences of entitlement include increased CWB (Grijalva & Newman, 2015) and decreased OCB (Hochwarter et al., 2007). Several scholars have proposed that entitlement will have negative behavioral effects (e.g., Fisk, 2010; Tomlinson, 2013), but few have empirically investigated these important behavioral consequences. Grijalva and Newman (2015) used an international convenience sample of 433 individuals and found that trait entitlement is positively related to CWB. Interestingly, Brummel and Parker (2015) found that trait entitlement was positively related to self-reported OCB and self-reported performance. Other behavioral consequences of entitlement that have been theorized include volunteering (Brummel & Parker, 2015), charitable giving (Brummel & Parker, 2015), socially responsible workplace decisions (Thomason et al., 2015), and resistance to organizational change (Tomlinson, 2013).

Similarly, there have been many theorized wellbeing consequences of entitlement in the workplace; however, few have empirically tested them. Empirically significant wellbeing consequences of entitlement include increased stress (Maynard et al., 2015) and depression (Hochwarter et al., 2007). Using the ENT subscale of the NPI and a sample of 292 employees, Maynard et al. (2015) empirically found that trait entitlement was positively related to stress utilizing relative deprivation theory. Hochwarter et al. (2007) argue that perceptions of others' entitlement act as a stressor which can lead to a depressed mood at work, among other things. Using the PEBOWS and justice theories, Hochwarter et al. (2007) found a positive relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and depression. Other wellbeing outcomes of entitlement that have been theorized but not tested include anxiety (Tomlinson, 2013), burnout (Fisk & Neville, 2011), and work-life balance outcomes (Chatrakul Na Ayudhya & Smithson, 2016; Herman & Lewis, 2012; Lewis & Smithson, 2001; Poelmans & Sahibzada, 2004).

Again, Figure 1 summarizes empirically significant antecedents and consequences of entitlement. There is an apparent trend that entitlement leads to increased undesirable consequences and decreased desirable consequences for both entitled employees and the people around them. However, there are several hypothesized consequences of entitlement that have not yet been tested, were tested but not significant, or have not yet been hypothesized. In short, additional research is needed to examine the consequences of the entitlement construct.

Studies Examining Entitlement as a Moderator

While entitlement directly affects a number of attitudinal, behavioral, and wellbeing outcomes, some studies have focused on entitlement as an important moderator

between other variables. Table 7 summarizes five articles that use entitlement as a moderator and includes measures of entitlement, independent variables, dependent variables, and key findings. Three of these studies utilized trait entitlement as a moderator and examined job satisfaction as an outcome (Byrne et al., 2010; Laird et al., 2015; Maynard et al., 2015). Using justice theories, Byrne et al. (2010) found that for individuals high in trait entitlement, perceived favorability of recruitment and selection practices was positively related to job satisfaction and perceived favorability of safe working practices was negatively related to job satisfaction. Conversely, Byrne et al. (2010) found that for individuals low in trait entitlement, perceived favorability of recruitment and selection practices was not significantly related to job satisfaction and perceived favorability of safe working practices was positively related to job satisfaction. Utilizing conservation of resource theory, Laird et al. (2015) found that trait entitlement moderates the relationship between accountability and job satisfaction, such that entitled employees demonstrated lower job satisfaction than non-entitled employees. Using relative deprivation theory, Maynard et al. (2015) found that trait entitlement does not moderate the negative relationship between objective over qualification and job satisfaction.

Aside from job satisfaction, Maynard et al. (2015), Bing et al. (2009), and Wheeler et al. (2013) found that trait entitlement moderates relationships with other outcomes as well. Maynard et al. (2015) found that trait entitlement moderates the positive relationship between perceived overqualification and objective over qualification, such that the relationship will be weaker at higher levels of trait entitlement. They also found that trait entitlement moderates the positive relationship

between objective over qualification and work stress, such that the relationship will be stronger at lower levels of trait entitlement. Using equity sensitivity, Bing et al. (2009) found that trait entitlement moderates the negative relationship between benevolence and money obsession, such that the relationship will be weaker at higher levels of trait entitlement. Utilizing self-regulation theory, Wheeler et al. (2013) found that trait entitlement moderates the indirect effect of abusive supervision to coworker abuse via emotional exhaustion, such that employees with higher levels of trait entitlement and higher levels of abusive supervision experience higher levels of emotional exhaustion. Evident by the limited research on entitlement as a moderator and the neglect of entitlement as a mediator, there are many opportunities for future research.

Insert Table 7 about here

In sum, research to date has begun to explore questions of how entitlement affects a wide variety of outcomes and what contributes to entitlement. Despite this, many gaps remain, given the limited number of studies that measure entitlement in a work setting. Moreover, only a few studies have examined entitlement as a moderator and no studies have considered entitlement as a mediator. Additionally, few studies have examined state entitlement and perceived coworker entitlement from a state entitlement perspective. It is likely that there are discrepancies between the entitled individual's perception and the referent other's (i.e. coworker's) perception and these differences need to be sorted out. For example, it possible that an entitled individual will view his/her own performance as high, but a referent other will view the entitled individual's performance as low. It is also

important to investigate the consequences to the perceiver as a result of their unfavorable perceptions. Thus, there is still a lot to learn about entitlement in the workplace.

ENTITLEMENT RESEARCH CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES

The entitlement field is disorganized and still in its infancy. This review can help organize future research efforts. The review illustrates that researchers have begun to examine the antecedents and consequences of entitlement. However, significant opportunities exist for researchers to explore how entitlement in the workplace is influenced by a variety of variables, as well as how such variables influence many organizational outcomes, both individually and in combination. In this section, I examine challenges and gaps that remain and describe important areas for future research. In short, I advocate that future research must move beyond psychological (i.e. trait) entitlement, use linguistic precision, consider perceived coworker entitlement, consider ways to mitigate effects of perceived coworker entitlement, improve measures of entitlement, explore entitlement's nomological network, and consider entitlement's "bright" side.

Move Beyond Psychological Entitlement

Management scholars must distinguish entitlement research in management from psychology. Replicating research from the field of psychology does not capture aspects that are unique to organizations. A large contribution that organizational behavior scholars can make to move entitlement research beyond what has been done in the realm of psychology is to consider the importance of context (Johns, 2006). Context is the who, what, when, where, and why. Future research needs to consider the various situational opportunities and constraints that affect the occurrence and meaning of entitlement in the workplace. Contextual factors may be important antecedents and moderators to consider

in models of entitlement in the workplace. Also, qualitative research might provide valuable insight into contextual influences that quantitative research is unable to capture. Some contextual variables that might be interesting to consider in entitlement research are individual differences, culture, organizational culture, family businesses, industry, tenure, and age. One contextual variable of particular importance might be generation, specifically the investigation of Millennials. Millennials are considered the most entitled generation yet (Hoyle, 2017). As Millennials flood the workplace, managers need guidance on how best to handle their inflated expectations, as well as the effects that they have on others (e.g., coworkers, managers, subordinates). In summary, studying entitlement from a state perspective with an emphasis on contextual factors and boundary conditions can help entitlement research in management progress more than the traditional trait entitlement conceptualization.

Use Linguistic Precision

For entitlement research in the field of management to advance scholars must come to agreed upon definitions and conceptualizations of entitlement. Evident by the many definitions discussed in this review, the field lacks coherence. While it would be limiting to only consider one definition and conceptualization of entitlement, there needs to be consensus within the different streams of research. I propose that there are two main conceptualizations of entitlement: trait and state. I argue that there needs to be agreed upon definitions for both trait and state entitlement. There seems to be a consensus that trait entitlement utilizes Campbell et al.'s (2004) definition or variations of it. However, state entitlement is a newer conceptualization of entitlement that has not received as much research attention. Hopefully this review and the label "state entitlement" brings

research attention to it so it can be built upon. Furthermore, it is crucial for scholars to use linguistic precision when they discuss entitlement to avoid confusion. Specifically, scholars need to explicitly state which they are interested in, perhaps by using the phrases “trait entitlement” and “state entitlement” rather than just “entitlement”. As I discussed above, trait entitlement and state entitlement are related, yet separate constructs and should be treated as such.

Consider Perceived Coworker Entitlement

Most existing research on entitlement in the workplace examines subjective self-reported entitlement. This is evident by the various self-report measures of entitlement. However, entitlement is not an isolated phenomenon that only affects entitled individuals—it also impacts those around them. In fact, the perception of others is likely to have a more substantial impact on organizations, relative to the impact the entitled individual may have due to sheer numbers. Future research should build upon Hochwarter and colleagues’ (2007, 2010; O’Leary-Kelly et al., 2017) idea of perceived coworker entitlement and investigate the negative effects that entitled employees have on others, including coworkers. Other groups that also merit research attention are entitled individuals’ managers and subordinates.

One explanation for the effects of perceived coworker entitlement lies within attribution theory. According to attribution theory, attribution is the process by which individuals explain the causes of behavior (Kelley & Michela, 1980; Weiner, 1972, 1985). In short, people observe, analyze, and try to explain behaviors. There are two main types of attribution: internal and external. Internal attribution is when behavior is attributed to the individual whereas external attribution is when behavior is attributed to

external factors. For example, a student gets a poor grade on a test. An internal attribution is that the student did not study for the test and an external attribution is that the test was very difficult or unfair.

Self-serving bias is one facet of attribution theory that has already received some research attention by entitlement scholars (e.g., Brouer et al., 2011; Harvey & Harris, 2010; Harvey & Martinko, 2009; Jordan et al., 2017). However, self-serving bias has primarily been used to explain how entitled individuals protect themselves against negative feedback. More relevant to perceived coworker entitlement is the fundamental attribution error facet of attribution theory. When people strive to explain the behavior of others, they can fall into traps, including fundamental attribution error. Fundamental attribution error is the tendency for people to overvalue dispositional explanations (i.e., internal factors) and undervalue situational explanations (i.e., external factors) for the behavior of others. In relation to perceived coworker entitlement, when an employee perceives a coworker as having inflated expectations and/or contributing minimal work, the employee's assumption might be that their coworker is entitled (an internal factor). The employee might neglect to see that there are situational explanations (external factors) for their behavior. For example, perhaps the coworker has high expectations because they have worked extra hard and long and have taken on additional responsibilities. Similarly, perhaps it only appears that the coworker is contributing minimally, but in reality, he/she is taking care of a lot of tasks that others do not see. Or, perhaps the coworker is sick or just lost a loved one. However, due to fundamental attribution error, the perceiving employee does not attribute the coworker's observable behavior to these situational factors. Instead, the employee attributes the coworker's

observable behavior to internal factors including their disposition or personality, such as assuming the coworker is entitled. Right or wrong, the employee perceives their coworker as entitled. From an equity theory (Adams, 1963, 1965) perspective the employee will feel under rewarded in comparison to the entitled coworker and will subsequently experience negative consequences. Moreover, perceiver trait entitlement might exacerbate the effects of perceived coworker entitlement. From an attribution theory perspective, a highly trait entitled perceiver might be more prone to a self-serving bias compared to a low trait entitled perceiver and therefore might experience inflated consequences as a result of perceiving coworker entitlement. From an equity theory perspective, a highly trait entitled perceiver is likely to be more equity sensitive and feel more under rewarded than a low trait entitled perceiver and therefore might experience intensify consequences of perceiving coworker entitlement. In addition to investigating the role of the perceiver's trait entitlement, future research should also explore what these negative consequences include. Perhaps some of these negative consequences will be decreased in-role behavior, organizational citizenship behavior, pay satisfaction, and job satisfaction and increased counterproductive work behavior and emotional exhaustion.

Future research might also consider whether self-reported and perceived entitlement perceptions align. Perhaps some people are not entitled, but they are perceived as such. Similarly, perhaps some people are entitled, but they are not perceived as such. Investigating these differences could shed light on ways that individuals can regulate their entitlement (i.e., entitlement regulation) to prevent negative individual and organizational consequences.

Consider Ways to Mitigate Effects of Perceived Coworker Entitlement

If perceived coworker entitlement is indeed a problem and causes undesirable consequences, then it is important to explore ways to mitigate them. There are two different approaches to mitigating these undesirable outcomes. First, the perceiving employee might lessen these undesirable outcomes based on their individual differences. For example, perhaps individuals with certain personality traits (e.g., high core self-evaluations, high positive affect, low negative affect, low equity sensitivity) are better able to cope with perceived coworker entitlement and subsequently do not experience distress and subsequently undesirable consequences as severe as individuals who do not possess those traits. An alternative approach is to investigate how the organization and managers can mitigate these undesirable outcomes. For example, perhaps implementing fair practices (e.g., organizational justice) can lessen the effects of perceived coworker entitlement. Figure 2 illustrates a proposed model of mitigating negative consequences of perceived coworker entitlement. Future research should empirically test whether individual differences and organizational practices can moderate the positive relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and numerous undesirable outcomes such that they lessen the severity of the undesirable outcomes.

Insert Figure 2 about here

Improve Measures of Entitlement

Valid and reliable measures are needed to capture entitlement in a work setting. The entitlement subscale (ENT) of the Narcissistic Personality Inventory (NPI) has a low

reliability and should not be used as a standalone measure. The Psychological Entitlement Scale (PES) demonstrates evidence of reliability and validity in psychology studies; however, it is not a measure designed for a work setting. The Equity Sensitivity Instrument (ESI; Huseman et al., 1985) and the Equity Preference Questionnaire (EPQ; Sauley & Bedeian, 2000) are scales intended to measure equity sensitivity and their entitlement dimensions do not appear to be stable. The Obligation and Entitlement Scale (OES; Brummel & Parker, 2015) distinguishes entitlement from obligation with its two-factor model; however, it is not specific to a work setting either. The Perceived Entitlement of Others at Work Scale (PEBOWS; Hochwarter et al., 2007) demonstrates initial evidence of reliability and some validity; however, it has only been used in two studies and has yet to demonstrate strong validity. Not only do existing measures merit additional psychometric testing, but it is also important for researchers to match an appropriate measure to their conceptualization of entitlement. For example, it is not appropriate to use the PES to capture perceived coworker entitlement. Future research opportunities include validating and/or improving existing measures and developing new ones to capture both trait and state entitlement specific to a work setting.

Explore Entitlement's Nomological Network

Scholars need to explore more than just consequences of entitlement—more antecedents, moderators, and mediators need to be considered. Moreover, entitlement's nomological network needs to be elucidated and explored. There are many variables that have not yet been considered in entitlement theorizing and research that may have important organizational implications. As discussed above, organizational justice would be a new variable to consider in entitlement research. Other variables to consider include

job characteristics, job practices, organizational culture, team dynamics, team support (e.g., TMX), and supervisor support (e.g., LMX). Moreover, it would be valuable to replicate existing studies for generalizability purposes and to identify boundary conditions, with a consideration for context. For example, industry and culture might be important boundary conditions to consider.

It is also paramount to distinguish differences between entitlement from the entitled individual's point of view and the point of view of a referent other (e.g., coworkers, managers, subordinates). It is likely that there are different and perhaps even opposite relationships between trait and state entitlement and other variables. For example, it is possible that an entitled employee will view their performance highly whereas their manager may not. Therefore, it is important for future research to take into account both entitled individuals' perspectives and others while exploring entitlements nomological network.

Consider Entitlement's "Bright Side"

Lastly, researchers should consider a "bright side" rather than just the "dark side" of entitlement. While past research has almost singularly focused on entitlement as a *bad* thing, it has been speculated that entitlement can be beneficial in some contexts. For example, Hochwarter et al. (2010) speculate that entitlement behavior might serve important sense making and coping functions in organizations in ambiguous contexts where there is a disconnect between employee contributions and rewards. Moreover, perhaps curvilinear relationships could be investigated to determine if there is a threshold for when entitlement attitudes and behaviors are beneficial versus detrimental. For example, there might be a curvilinear relationship between entitlement and job

performance. Maybe the self-esteem and confidence that often comes with entitlement contributes to job performance, but only to a certain point before job performance suffers. Moreover, perhaps the prevalence of Millennials in the workforce and the generation's high levels of entitlement and high expectations can drive social progress to make the workplace better for all.

CONCLUSION

Entitlement in the workplace, by all popular accounts, is pervasive. Yet organizational scholars have yet to examine the phenomenon in depth. The majority of existing management research on entitlement conceptualizes entitlement as a stable trait, implying that research should focus on how to best manage entitled employees, or how to identify them in interviews (and not hire them). The trait conceptualization of entitlement is useful but limiting. Alternatively, if entitlement is conceptualized *in situ*, then researchers can explore how to alter or change entitlement perceptions to result in the most positive outcomes for all parties. My hope is that this review will help to motivate, organize, and further the field such that additional insights into this phenomenon can be gained.

III. IN THE EYE OF THE BEHOLDER: INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES IN ENTITLEMENT PERCEPTIONS

ABSTRACT

In this study, I examine the moderated and mediated relationships between perceived coworker entitlement, psychological distress, individual differences, and individual outcomes. Specifically, I use equity theory and referent cognitions theory to investigate the mediating role of psychological distress in the relationships among perceived coworker entitlement and in-role behavior, organizational citizenship behavior, counterproductive work behavior, and pay satisfaction. I also explore the moderating roles of individual difference variables including core self-evaluations, affect, and equity sensitivity in the relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and psychological distress. Finally, I investigate the combined moderated mediation effect. Using a sample of 200 working professionals, I empirically tested the hypotheses. I found that core self-evaluations and equity sensitivity significantly moderate the relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and psychological distress. I conclude with a discussion on theoretical contributions, practical implications, strengths and limitations, and directions for future research.

INTRODUCTION

Is the glass half empty or half full? This expression highlights the tendency for two people to see the same situation in different ways. The reason people might see the same situation in different ways is simple—individual differences. One area of research

that has only begun to consider the important role of individual differences is entitlement. Entitlement in the workplace is an emerging stream of research in the management literature. The majority of entitlement studies have conceptualized entitlement as “a stable and pervasive sense that one deserves more and is entitled to more than others” (Campbell, Bonacci, Shelton, Exline, and Bushman: 31). Unfortunately, trait entitlement neglects the broader social context that surrounds the individual. However, some scholars suggest that entitlement may not always be a trait and may be better conceptualized as an observed state that considers the greater context (e.g., Hochwarter, Meurs, Perrewe, Royle, & Matherly, 2007; Hochwarter, Summers, Thompson, Perrewe, & Ferris, 2010; O’Leary-Kelly, Rosen, & Hochwarter, 2017).

In general, individuals do not label themselves as entitled; it is the perceptions of an observer (e.g., a coworker) that creates this designation. Consequently, the observer is likely to experience detrimental outcomes via psychological distress, “an unpleasant subjective state” (Mirowsky & Ross, 2002: 23), as a result of their perceptions of others’ high levels of entitlement. However, perceptions are greatly influenced by individual differences. It is possible that different people perceive and react to entitlement differently. For example, an individual may perceive a coworker as highly entitled, but because of an individual difference (e.g., equity sensitivity), not experience psychological distress and any negative outcomes. Thus, in this study, I investigate how psychological distress mediates the relationship among perceived coworker entitlement and in-role behavior, organizational citizenship behavior, counterproductive work behavior, and pay satisfaction. Additionally, I examine how individual differences moderate the relationship

between perceived coworker entitlement and psychological distress and the combined moderated mediation effect.

Research on entitlement in the workplace is in its infancy, especially in regard to perceiver individual differences. In fact, there are only two studies to date that have considered the role of individual differences in entitlement perceptions. Hochwarter et al. (2007) found attention control to be a significant moderator in the relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and job and health outcomes. Moreover, Hochwarter and colleagues (2007) suggest that future research should investigate additional perceiver characteristics including personality traits and equity sensitivity. Hochwarter et al. (2010) found political skill to be a significant moderator of the perceived coworker entitlement—job tension relationship. They also discussed mastery, optimism, and generational differences as other possible individual difference variables. In short, perceiver individual differences have received limited attention in entitlement research. The present study examines perceptions of entitlement in the workplace and individual differences that might influence these perceptions utilizing equity theory and referent cognitions theory as a theoretical framework. First, I begin with a review of the limited research on entitlement in the workplace, with an emphasis on perceived coworker entitlement research from the state entitlement perspective. Second, I develop mediating hypotheses between perceived coworker entitlement and various outcomes via psychological distress. Third, I discuss the role that perceiver individual differences might have on these hypothesized relationships and develop additional hypotheses regarding the moderating roles of these perceiver individual differences. Fourth, I offer moderated mediation hypotheses. Fifth, I test the hypotheses using a sample of

employees and their managers. I conclude with a discussion on contributions to research, implications for practice, strengths and limitations, and directions for future research.

THEORY AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

Entitlement research in the management literature has predominantly built upon entitlement research from the field of personality psychology. First, I will review the evolution of entitlement research from the field of psychology to the field of management. Specifically, I will discuss two main entitlement conceptualizations in the field of management: trait and state. Next, I distinguish perceived coworker entitlement from self-reported entitlement and hypothesize mediating relationships between perceived coworker entitlement and various outcomes via psychological distress using equity theory and referent cognitions theory. Finally, I will discuss the importance of perceiver individual differences and hypothesize how these individual differences might influence the relationships between perceived coworker entitlement and psychological distress. Figure 3 illustrates my proposed model.

Insert Figure 3 about here

Psychological Entitlement

Entitlement emerged in the field of personality psychology through the study of narcissism. Ellis (1898) introduced narcissism to the field of psychology and Freud (1914-1957) soon made it a focal construct. Narcissism is defined as “an extremely positive and inflated view of the self combined with limited empathy of others [...] (and characterized by) intense self-love” (DuBrin, 2012, 1). Raskin and Terry (1988)

developed the Narcissistic Personality Inventory (NPI) to measure narcissism and found that entitlement is a component of narcissism. Raskin and Terry (1988) define entitlement as “the expectation of special favors without assuming reciprocal responsibilities” (p. 891). However, entitlement was not a central concept in the psychology literature until Campbell and colleagues (2004) developed the Psychological Entitlement Scale (PES). Campbell et al. (2004) define entitlement as “a stable and pervasive sense that one deserves more and is entitled to more than others” (p. 31). This definition of psychological entitlement reflects a stable sense of entitlement across time and space.

Trait Entitlement

In the management literature, definitions of entitlement are abundant. However, most entitlement definitions can be categorized in one of two ways: trait or state. The more predominant conceptualization of entitlement is that it is a stable individual difference (i.e., trait entitlement). In contrast, the less common conceptualization of entitlement views it as a state and emphasizes the role of context (i.e., state entitlement). Management scholars who conceptualize entitlement as a trait borrow directly from the personality psychology literature and emphasize that entitlement is a global trait that is stable across time and a variety of settings (e.g., Harvey & Harris, 2010; Harvey, Harris, Gillis, & Martinko, 2014; Harvey & Martinko, 2009; Maynard, Brondolo, Connelly, & Sauer, 2015; Thompson & Gregory, 2012). Other scholars have also utilized trait-like definitions of entitlement more specific to the work context (e.g., Bryne, Miller, & Pitts, 2010; Fisk, 2010; Fisk & Neville, 2011; Foley, Ngo, & Loi, 2016; Miller & Konopaske, 2014; Naumann et al., 2002). From the trait-based perspective, entitlement describes an individual characteristic rather than how contextual factors might influence an individual.

In short, this perspective conceptualizes entitlement as a feature of one's personality that is not easily changed. Although trait entitlement is generally captured using self-report measures from the entitled individual, traits can be captured via others' perceptions (Williams, Pillai, Deptula, Lowe, & McCombs, in press).

State Entitlement

O'Leary-Kelly et al. (2017) argue that to only consider trait entitlement in management research would be a disservice to the field. They believe that a trait conceptualization of entitlement limits insights into organizational phenomena due to its similarity to other individual traits (e.g., narcissism, superiority, self-esteem) and restricts the focus for tactics that might address the numerous detrimental outcomes (e.g., job tension, anxiety, job dissatisfaction, counterproductive work behaviors) associated with entitlement in the workplace (O'Leary-Kelly et al., 2017). In short, trait entitlement over-emphasizes the individual and creates a tunnel-vision that neglects the broader context. Addressing this shortcoming, I argue that entitlement can also be conceptualized as a state that takes into account the importance of context. I define state entitlement as a context-dependent sense that one unjustifiably deserves more than others. The only other definition of entitlement that takes this state perspective is O'Leary-Kelly et al.'s (2017) idea of "work situated entitlement" (WSE). WSE is "a workplace condition reflective of a misalignment between an employee's perceptions and the perceptions of a relevant observer regarding an employee's deservingness for outcomes, such that the employee's perceptions exceed those of the observer" (O'Leary-Kelly et al., 2017). However, WSE is a more specific definition of state-like entitlement that emphasizes a misalignment in perceptions whereas my definition of state entitlement is broader. In fact, WSE can be

thought of as an interesting stream of literature within state entitlement. Another related stream of literature within state entitlement is perceived coworker entitlement, which I will discuss next.

Perceived Coworker Entitlement

In addition to defining entitlement other than as a trait and taking into account context, O’Leary-Kelly and colleagues (2017) also emphasize the importance of perceptions in entitlement. In contrast to self-report trait entitlement, I believe that state entitlement might best be captured via perceptions of others. Other than Hochwarter and colleagues (2007; 2010; O’Leary-Kelly et al., 2017), only a few researchers have considered that entitlement might be best assessed by observers rather than self-reports (e.g., Fisk, 2010; Tomlinson, 2013). Capturing entitlement using the perceptions of others is important because individuals do not typically label themselves as entitled. Rather, it is the perception of another party (e.g., a coworker) that makes this designation. In fact, an individual who is perceived by others as entitled may not realize he/she is portraying this entitlement persona. Moreover, an individual who does not exhibit trait entitlement may still be perceived by others as entitled. Therefore, capturing entitlement using the perceptions of others is more likely to identify entitlement and avoid bias. When individuals perceive others as entitled, especially in the workplace, they are likely to experience negative outcomes. Interestingly, perceived coworker entitlement has not received a lot of research attention despite its potential to make large contributions to the entitlement literature. Therefore, I investigate perceived coworker entitlement in the present study.

The closest definition of perceived coworker entitlement in the entitlement literature is O’Leary-Kelly et al.’s (2017) definition of work situated entitlement (WSE). While O’Leary-Kelly et al.’s (2017) idea of WSE is a strong starting point for a definition of perceived coworker entitlement, I disagree with its emphasis on misalignments. O’Leary-Kelly et al.’s (2017) idea of misalignment is interesting, and possibly a worthwhile avenue to explore. However, I think a simpler approach towards studying perceived coworker entitlement will be just as fruitful, if not more. I argue that misalignment is not as important as the perception of others and the situation. That is, it does not matter as much if the target perceives himself/herself as highly entitled; it matters more how others perceive the target and the situation. For example, if the target perceives himself/herself as highly entitled, and an observer perceives the target as highly entitled (i.e., there is no misalignment), the observer will experience negative outcomes if the entitlement is unjustifiable. Thus, I define perceived coworker entitlement as the extent to which an employee perceives a coworker to act as if he/she believes he/she unjustifiably deserves more than others regardless of his/her actual contributions. My definition of perceived coworker entitlement differs from O’Leary-Kelly et al.’s (2017) definition of WSE because it does not make a misalignment of perceptions between the entitled coworker and the relevant observer a necessary condition for perceived coworker entitlement. However, it should be noted that how the target perceives himself/herself might change his/her behavior and the way he/she is perceived.

Employees perceived as highly entitled are often described as disrespectful, intolerant, obnoxious, arrogant, and aggressive (Hochwarter et al., 2007). Succinctly, entitlement behavior can include anything that minimizes contributions and maximizes

benefits. For example, an entitled individual may consistently be late, take extra breaks, use company resources for personal benefit, expect special perquisites, expect higher pay, expect first pick for requesting time off, etc. The negative attitudes and demanding behavior attributed to entitlement can cause the interpersonal work context to become increasingly toxic and cause undesirable consequences to others (Hochwarter et al., 2007). Whether an individual believes he/she is entitled or not does not matter when it comes to the perceptions of others. If another party observes, perceives, and assesses an individual as entitled, then that party is likely to suffer from negative consequences of his/her perceptions, regardless of whether the coworker believes they are entitled or not. Consequences of entitlement to the entitled individual have received much more research attention than the consequences of entitlement to the people around the entitled individual. Theorized attitudinal consequences of entitlement include increased salary deservingness (Campbell et al., 2004), withdrawal (Fisk & Neville, 2011), job frustration (Harvey & Harris, 2010), turnover intent (Harvey & Martinko, 2009; Tomlinson, 2013), job tension (Hochwarter et al., 2007; Hochwarter et al., 2010), and decreased job satisfaction (Foley et al., 2016; Harvey & Martinko, 2009; Hochwarter et al., 2007; Maynard et al., 2015; Tomlinson, 2013). Theorized behavioral consequences of entitlement include increased counterproductive work behavior (Fisk, 2010; Grijalva & Newman, 2015) and decreased performance (Tomlinson, 2013) and organizational citizenship behaviors (Hochwarter et al., 2007). Finally, theorized wellbeing consequences of entitlement include increased stress (Brouer, Wallace, & Harvey, 2011; Maynard et al., 2015), burnout (Fisk & Neville, 2011), job tension (Hochwarter et al., 2007, 2010), anxiety and depression (Hochwarter et al., 2007; Tomlinson, 2013), and

decreased overall wellbeing (Fisk & Neville, 2011; O’Leary-Kelly et al., 2017). While scholars have proposed that entitlement will have these detrimental effects, few have empirically investigated these important consequences. Moreover, even fewer scholars have theorized and tested consequences of perceived coworker entitlement for the individuals who perceive the entitlement behavior. Hochwarter et al. (2007) found that perceived coworker entitlement was associated with increased tension and depressed mood at work and decreased satisfaction and organizational citizenship behaviors. Hochwarter et al. (2010) found that perceived coworker entitlement was associated with increased job tension. O’Leary-Kelly et al. (2017) propose that perceived coworker entitlement is negatively related to wellbeing and that different levels of perceived coworker entitlement are related to various cognitive appraisals. In sum, entitlement can have detrimental effects on the perceiver in addition to the entitled individual and these effects have received very limited research. I recognize this important gap in the literature and attempt to gain more insight into the negative effects of perceived coworker entitlement.

Psychological Distress

I argue that perceived coworker entitlement can cause the negative effect of psychological distress (also referred to as distress). Psychological distress is “an unpleasant subjective state” that impacts an individual’s level of functioning and is largely associated with symptoms of anxiety (e.g., feeling tense, restless, irritable, worried, afraid) and depression (e.g., feeling sad, demoralized, hopeless, lonely, worthless) (Mirowsky & Ross, 2002: 23). Distress can also be thought of as the opposite of wellbeing (Mirowsky & Ross, 2002). It can result from a variety of events (e.g., losing

a loved one, illness, divorce, adverse work experiences) and is characterized by unpleasant feelings and difficulty coping. I argue that when an individual perceives a coworker as highly entitled that this is an adverse work experience that can act as a stressor and cause distress to this individual. For example, he/she might perceive a coworker consistently being late, taking extra breaks, using company resources for personal benefit, expecting special perquisites, expecting higher pay, and expecting first pick for requesting time off. These behaviors and expectations can act as stressors to the perceiver because he/she is not receiving the same special treatment and some of these things directly affect him/her. Perhaps this individual can no longer take off work the days he/she desired, must pick up the slack of the entitled coworker, etc. Consequently, the distressed individual will experience unpleasant feelings and might have difficulty coping with these feelings resulting in negative outcomes. Because no two people experience one event in the same way, distress is a subjective experience. Thus, the severity that an individual experiences distress is dependent on the situation and how they perceive it. For example, an employee who perceives a coworker as entitled over time may experience greater distress than an employee who perceives a coworker as entitled in an isolated event. Similarly, an employee who perceives multiple coworkers as entitled may experience greater distress than an employee who perceives a single coworker as entitled. Moreover, the employee's personality might impact how they perceive a coworker as entitled or not. For example, an employee who is extremely equity sensitive may experience greater distress than an employee who is more tolerant of equity differences.

Equity theory (Adams, 1963, 1965) and referent cognitions theory (Folger, 1986) are useful in helping to explain the negative effects of perceived coworker entitlement via distress. The essence of equity is that across persons, there should be an equivalent ratio of outcomes to inputs (Adams, 1965). Outcomes are the tangible and intangible consequences that an employee receives from the organization and include salary, benefits, perquisites, job security, recognition, etc. Inputs are the contribution made by the employee for the organization and include time, education, experience, effort, loyalty, hard work, commitment, ability, etc. In a work context, equity theory suggests that employees seek to maintain equity between the inputs that they bring to a job and the outcomes that they receive from it relative to the perceived inputs and outcomes of a comparison other (e.g., a coworker). This does not mean that individuals must have equal inputs and outcomes; however, it does mean that the ratio between these inputs and outcomes must be proportionate. If the equity ratios of an individual and their comparison other are proportionate, then there is no distress experienced. However, if the equity ratios are not proportionate, then distress is experienced. According to equity theory, when there is distress, efforts will be made to restore equity within the relationship. By definition, entitled individuals expect to be over-rewarded. According to equity theory, both the person who is over-rewarded and the person who is under-rewarded will experience distress and attempt to eliminate their distress by restoring equity. However, an over-rewarded entitled individual does not experience this distress because they prefer their ratio of outcomes to inputs to be greater compared to their referent other. In fact, an entitled individual may even experience distress when their ratio of outcomes to inputs is proportionate to their referent other's ratio of outcomes to inputs. Moreover, an

individual who perceives a coworker as entitled, either due to the coworker being over-rewarded or by his or her constantly higher-than-deserved expectations seeking to be over-rewarded, experiences distress associated with being under-rewarded in comparison to the entitled coworker. Consequently, the distressed employee will be motivated to restore equity in the relationship.

Utilizing referent cognitions theory, the individual experiences a distressed present state as a product of what has happened in the past (Folger, 1986). According to referent cognitions theory, people reflect upon present outcomes and imagine how things could have been in contrast to what actually took place (Folger, 1986). Referent cognitions both simulate imaginable past events and what the end result of those events might have been (Folger, 1986). Folger (1986) calls these “referent outcomes” and places them on a continuum. High referent outcomes are alternative, imagined outcomes that are hedonically superior to the actual outcome. Conversely, low referent outcomes are alternative, imagined outcomes that are no better or worse than the actual outcome. When an individual perceives a coworker as entitled, he/she might observe the individual putting fewer inputs into their job and/or getting more outputs from the organization.

According to referent cognitions theory, the perceiver will reflect upon this circumstance and imagine alternative referent cognitions. For example, the perceiver might imagine the entitled individual not acting in an entitled way (e.g., putting in more inputs, getting out fewer outputs) and therefore not experiencing the distress he/she feels. Now that the perceiver has imagined this high referent outcome that is more favorable for him/her, the perceiver thinks about what could have been and experiences a sense of deprivation because the high referent outcome would have been superior to what actually

happened. For instance, if the entitled coworker put in more time and effort then maybe the workload would have been more favorable for the perceiver. Furthermore, if the entitled coworker did not get more outputs from the organization then maybe there would have been more output for the perceiver. Consequently, this deprivation results in felt distress. Thus, I hypothesize that perceived coworker entitlement is positively related to psychological distress.

Hypothesis 1. Perceived coworker entitlement is positively related to psychological distress.

Undesirable Outcomes

As a result of psychological distress, individuals are likely to respond in a few undesirable ways to restore equity and alleviate this stress. One way distressed employees may react is to decrease their inputs in an effort to restore equity (Adams, 1963, 1965). This can result in decreased in-role behavior. In other cases, distressed employees may go into survival mode and only perform required job tasks (Tanner, 2018). This course of action will decrease extra-role behaviors including organizational citizenship behavior targeted at both individuals and the organization. Alternatively, distressed employees may become resistant and act out at the organization (Tanner, 2018). This undesirable behavior will manifest itself as counterproductive work behavior targeted at the organization. Similarly, distressed employees might become overly competitive against others (Tanner, 2018). This behavior is also an example of counterproductive work behavior but targeted at individuals rather than the organization. Instead of focusing on inputs, perhaps distressed employees will focus on outputs. Thus, distressed employees may push for more output from the organization (Adams, 1963, 1965). A common

outcome that employees seek is pay. Thus, distressed employees seeking additional outcomes are likely not satisfied with their current pay. In summary, employees who perceive a coworker as highly entitled might experience distress. Distressed employees will seek to restore equity to relieve this stress in one or more of the following ways: decrease inputs, go into survival mode, become resistant, become overly competitive, and/or push for more output (Tanner, 2018). These reactions correspond to the following negative outcomes: decreased in-role behavior, decreased organizational citizenship behavior targeted at both individuals and the organization, increased counterproductive work behavior targeted at the organization, increased counterproductive work behavior targeted at individuals, and pay dissatisfaction, respectively. Next, I will use equity theory and referent cognitions theory to form hypotheses about these negative effects as a result of perceived coworker entitlement via psychological distress.

In-role behavior. In-role behavior is a component of job performance and is how well an individual performs a job. In-role behavior, or task performance, is an individual's performance of core required job activities and contribution to organizational performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997). More specifically, it refers to behavior that addresses the requirements specified in the job description and formal reward system (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997).

Job performance in general and especially in-role behavior have not received a lot of attention in entitlement research. Brummel and Parker (2015) found that trait entitlement is positively related to self-reported in-role behavior of the entitled individual. However, Brummel and Parker (2015) conceptualize entitlement as a trait and use a trait-based measure of entitlement. Also, Brummel and Parker (2015) capture in-role behavior

as a self-reported measure rather than from their managers. These are two important distinctions between Brummel and Parker's (2015) study and the present study. In contrast to Brummel and Parker (2015), Tomlinson (2013) proposes that trait entitlement is negatively associated with job performance of the entitled individual. Although seemingly contradictory, the difference between Brummel and Parker's (2015) hypothesis and Tomlinson's (2013) proposition is an important one. Brummel and Parker (2015) captured performance as a self-report from the entitled individuals, who are more likely to cognitively distort their self-concepts and report higher job performance. In contrast, if Tomlinson's (2013) proposition were to be tested capturing performance from another source (e.g., a manager), then it may receive empirical support due to the use of an unbiased source.

The effect of perceived coworker entitlement on the perceiver's in-role behavior has not yet been examined. Moreover, psychological distress has never been considered as a mediating variable in this relationship. According to equity theory and referent cognitions theory, when employees perceive inequity and can imagine high referent outcomes, they experience distress and they seek to alleviate this distress by restoring equity. One way that employees can restore equity is by directly altering their inputs. For example, distressed employees might put less time and effort into their formal job duties and consequently hurt their in-role behavior. Thus, I argue that individuals who perceive entitlement attitudes and behaviors from a coworker will decrease their in-role behavior in an effort to relieve distress and restore equity. Therefore, I hypothesize that psychological distress mediates the negative relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and in-role behavior.

Hypothesis 2. Psychological distress mediates the negative relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and in-role behavior.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior. Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), also called extra-role performance, is “individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and in the aggregate promotes the efficient and effective functioning of the organization” (Organ, 1988: 4). Organizational citizenship behaviors are practically important because they “improve organizational efficiency and effectiveness by contributing to resource transformations, innovativeness, and adaptability” (Williams & Anderson, 1991: 601). Conceptual and empirical research suggests that organizational citizenship behavior has two broad categories: organizational citizenship behavior that benefits the organization in general (OCBO) and organizational citizenship behavior that benefits specific individuals and thus indirectly benefits the organization (OCBI; Williams & Anderson, 1991). Examples of OCBO include giving advance notice when unable to come to work and adhering to informal rules to maintain order. Examples of OCBI include helping others who have been absent and taking a personal interest in other employees.

Organizational citizenship behavior has been previously studied as a consequence of entitlement. Brummel and Parker (2015) found empirical evidence that trait entitlement is positively related to self-reported OCBI. Brummel and Parker (2015) did not study perceived coworker entitlement and thus did not capture the effects on the perceiver. However, Hochwarter et al. (2007) did focus on perceived coworker entitlement and the effect on the perceiver. Hochwarter et al. (2007) found that perceived coworker entitlement is negatively associated with organizational citizenship behavior.

The difference in direction between these two studies can be attributed to the target of the organizational citizenship behavior, either the perceiver or the entitled individual. Similar to Hochwarter et al. (2007), I argue that perceived coworker entitlement is negatively associated with organizational citizenship behavior. However, I conceptualize organizational citizenship differently than Hochwarter et al. (2007) by utilizing Williams and Anderson's (1991) OCBO and OCBI factors of organizational citizenship behavior. Moreover, no previous research has examined the mediating role of psychological distress in the relationship among any type of entitlement and organizational citizenship behavior.

In addition to altering inputs via in-role behavior, another way that an employee who perceives entitlement from a coworker and as a result experiences distress can restore equity is to decrease their organizational citizenship behavior. In fact, it is more likely that distressed employees will alter their extra-role behaviors before their in-role behaviors. In short, employees are more likely to forgo the extra things they do before their required job responsibilities because the consequences are not as severe. For example, employees are not likely to lose their jobs if they do not perform organizational citizenship behaviors, but they may lose their jobs if they do not perform their formal job responsibilities. Distressed employees are more likely to only do what they need to do to survive, and nothing more. This is called survival mode. When in survival mode, distressed employees are likely to decrease their organizational citizenship behavior by decreasing OCBI and/or decreasing OCBO. Distressed employees might decrease their OCBI by not helping their coworkers. For example, they might not help coworkers when they are absent and/or take personal interests into their coworkers' lives. Similarly,

distressed employees might decrease their OCBO by not engaging in behavior that helps the organization. For example, they might not give advance notice when they know they will be absent and/or neglect informal rules. Thus, I argue that individuals who perceive entitlement attitudes and behaviors of a coworker will decrease their organizational citizenship behavior in an effort to relieve distress and restore equity. Therefore, I hypothesize that psychological distress mediates the negative relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and OCBI and OCBO.

Hypothesis 3a. Psychological distress mediates the negative relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and OCBI.

Hypothesis 3b. Psychological distress mediates the negative relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and OCBO.

Pay Satisfaction. Pay satisfaction is “the amount of positive or negative feelings that individuals have toward their pay” (Miceli & Lane, 1991). Heneman and Schwab (1985) argue that pay satisfaction is made up of four dimensions: level, benefits, raises, and structure/administration. Pay level is the employee’s direct compensation (i.e., wage or salary). Benefits are the employee’s indirect pay (e.g., insurance, pension, 401k). Raises refer to the changes in the employee’s pay level. Pay structure/administration refers to the pay levels/grades for different jobs within the organization. Although Naumann et al. (2002) proposed that entitlement is negatively related to pay satisfaction, pay satisfaction has never been empirically investigated as a consequence of entitlement. Moreover, the effects of perceived coworker entitlement on the perceiver’s pay satisfaction have not yet been theorized.

Using equity theory and referent cognitions theory, I argue that perceived coworker entitlement can have a negative effect on the perceiver's pay satisfaction via psychological distress. Employees seek equity which is achieved when the input-output ratio of the employee equals that of a referent other. By definition, entitled employees prefer for their outputs to be greater than their inputs. Thus, when employees use a coworker that they perceive to be highly entitled as their referent other, then they will feel under-rewarded and a sense of inequity. Moreover, the employees will imagine what could have been had the entitled individual acted differently. This inequity and referent cognition lead to felt distress which motivates the employees to regain equity and relieve this stress. Instead of altering their inputs, perhaps the distressed employees will push for more output from the organization. An employee who perceives their coworker as highly entitled is likely to believe that the entitled coworker is over-rewarded. In comparison, the employee is likely to believe that he/she is under-rewarded. Furthermore, if things were different (a referent cognition), then maybe there would not have been an inequity. To restore this inequality, the distressed employee might ask for more pay from their employer. In the meantime, the distressed employee will likely have low pay satisfaction. Thus, I argue that when an employee perceives a coworker as entitled, he/she will experience psychological distress and will be motivated to push for more outcomes in an effort to restore equity and relieve the distress. In the meantime, the distressed employee will not be satisfied with his/her pay. Therefore, I hypothesize that psychological distress mediates the negative relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and pay satisfaction.

Hypothesis 4. Psychological distress mediates the negative relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and pay satisfaction.

Counterproductive work behavior. Counterproductive work behavior is behavior that harms the organization or its members. Counterproductive work behavior and organizational citizenship behavior have long been considered opposites (Spector, Bauer, & Fox, 2010). Similar to organizational citizenship research, counterproductive work behavior can be targeted to the organization (i.e., CWBO) or to individuals (i.e., CWBI; Spector, Fox, Penney, Bruursema, Goh, & Kessler, 2005). Thus, CWBO is harmful behavior targeted at the organization and CWBI is harmful behavior aimed at individuals. Examples of CWBO include purposely wasting the organization's resources, telling people outside the job what a lousy place you work for, and staying home from work and saying you were sick when you were not (Spector et al., 2010). Examples of CWBI include insulting someone about their job performance, making fun of someone's personal life, and starting an argument with someone at work (Spector et al., 2010). The relationship between entitlement and counterproductive work behavior has only begun to be explored and has received mixed results. Brummel and Parker (2015) found that trait entitlement is negatively related to self-reported counterproductive work behavior. Contradictory, Grijalva and Newman (2015) found that trait entitlement is positively related to counterproductive work behavior. In addition to studying counterproductive work behavior as a whole in relation to entitlement, other scholars have studied aspects of counterproductive work behavior in relation to entitlement. For example, Harvey et al. (2014) found that trait entitlement was positively associated with abusive supervision perceptions, upward undermining, and organizational deviance and

Harvey & Harris (2010) found that job frustration fully mediated the relationship between trait entitlement and coworker abuse. In addition to empirical evidence, Fisk (2010) and Tomlinson (2013) theorized that individuals high in trait entitlement will be more likely to engage in counterproductive work behaviors. Although the relationship between entitlement and counterproductive work behavior has been studied in the past, it has contradictory results, and the counterproductive work behavior of the perceiver has never been studied. Moreover, psychological distress has never been considered as a mediating variable in this relationship.

In contrast to in-role behavior and organizational citizenship behavior, I argue that psychological distress is positively associated with counterproductive work behavior. If employees perceive entitlement from a coworker, then they will experience inequity and have high referent cognitions, and subsequently, experience distress. Consequently, this distress might motivate the employees to engage in counterproductive work behavior in an effort to restore equity and relieve the distress. There are two different ways that distressed employees might react in relation to counterproductive work behavior. First, they can become resistant and act out at the organization. This manifest itself in CWBO. For example, resistant distressed employees might act out by purposely wasting their organization's resources, telling others outside the organization what a lousy place they work for, and staying home from work and saying they were sick when they were not. Second, they can become overly competitive against others. This manifest itself in CWBI. For example, overly competitive distressed employees might insult their coworkers, make fun of their coworkers' personal lives, and start arguments at work. Thus, I argue that when employees perceive coworker entitlement, they will experience

psychological distress and will be motivated to engage in counterproductive work behavior in an effort to restore equity and relieve distress. If an employee believes that an individual is entitled, then he/she is likely to engage in CWBI behaviors towards the entitled individual. Moreover, if an employee blames their organization for indulging an entitled coworker, then he/she is likely to engage in CWBO behaviors towards the organization in retaliation. Of course, both CWBI and CWBO behaviors can take place. Therefore, I hypothesize that psychological distress mediates the positive relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and CWBI and CWBO.

Hypothesis 5a. Psychological distress mediates the positive relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and CWBI.

Hypothesis 5b. Psychological distress mediates the positive relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and CWBO.

Perceiver Individual Differences

I argue that the hypothesized relationships above are moderated by individual differences because how we perceive others is shaped by our individual differences. Moreover, how we perceive others will dictate the severity of our experienced distress and consequently our attitudes and behavior. Individuals are unique in terms of their backgrounds, personalities, abilities, attitudes, emotions, etc. Hence, individual differences present a challenge to managers in organizations. Managers are tasked with managing individuals who possess a multitude of varying characteristics. Thus, the better managers understand these individual differences, the more effective they can be at managing them.

Understanding individual differences stem from Kurt Lewin's (1936) idea that behavior is a function of the person and the environment. Further developed by interactional psychology, this approach contends that one must know something about the person and the situation in order to understand human behavior. In this study, I address the role of personality in the context of entitlement in the workplace. Nelson and Quick (2016) define personality as "a relatively stable set of characteristics that influences an individual's behavior" (p. 36). Personality is determined by both heredity and the environment and is what makes an individual behave consistently in a variety of settings. The most prevalent theory used in personality research is trait theory. According to trait theory, a combination of observable traits forms an individual's personality and can be used to understand behavior (Nelson & Quick, 2016).

While the trait perspective of personality provides a lot of insight into understanding behavior, it is not without its critics. Some scholars argue that simply identifying traits is not sufficient because personality is dynamic and never completely stable. Furthermore, many trait theorists ignore the importance of context. In response to the criticisms of trait theory, some researchers have taken a more integrative approach to the study of personality. The integrative approach focuses on both situational variables and personality traits as predictors of attitudes and behaviors. In the present study, I utilize the integrative approach by focusing on the situational variable perceived entitlement in the workplace and the personality traits core self-evaluations, affect, and equity sensitivity as predictors of psychological distress. Specifically, I argue that these personality traits act as moderators that might mitigate the severity of psychological distress due to the stress of perceived coworker entitlement in the workplace.

There are a few personality characteristics that have particularly strong influences on individuals in organizations. Perhaps the most influential are core-self evaluations and affect (Nelson & Quick, 2016). Another trait that is particularly relevant to this context is equity sensitivity. Next, I will discuss how core-self evaluations, affect, and equity sensitivity might moderate the relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and psychological distress.

Core self-evaluations. Judge, Locke, and Durham (1997) introduced the concept of core self-evaluations (CSE) in an effort to find a useful personality predictor of organizational outcomes. Core self-evaluations are a set of personality traits that represent an individual's self-concept (Nelson & Quick, 2016). Core self-evaluations are “a broad, latent, higher-order trait indicated by four well-established traits in the personality literature: (1) self-esteem, the overall value that one places on oneself as a person (Harter, 1990); (2) generalized self-efficacy, an evaluation of how well one can perform across a variety of situations (Locke, McClelland, & Knight, 1996); (3) neuroticism, the tendency to have a negativistic cognitive/explanatory style and to focus on negative aspects of the self (Watson, 2000); and (4) locus of control, beliefs about the causes of events in one's life—locus is internal when individuals see events as being contingent on their own behavior (Rotter, 1966)” (Judge, Erez, Bono, & Thoresen, 2003: 304). Succinctly, core self-evaluations are the fundamental appraisal of one's worthiness, effectiveness, and ability. Thus, high core self-evaluations are desirable. Individuals with high core self-evaluations have high self-esteem, high generalized self-efficacy, low neuroticism (i.e., emotional stability), and an internal locus of control.

Judge et al. (2003) found that core self-evaluations predict job satisfaction, job performance, and subjective wellbeing. In fact, core self-evaluations outperform the Big Five and all other predictors, except for general mental ability (GMA), of both job satisfaction and job performance (Nelson & Quick, 2016). Because psychological distress is the opposite end of the same continuum as subjective wellbeing, it is reasonable to suggest that core-self evaluations might significantly moderate the relationship between perceived entitlement and psychological distress.

Using equity theory and referent cognitions theory, I established that an employee who perceives coworker entitlement is likely to experience distress due to inequity and deprivation. I also established that if an employee experiences distress, then he/she is likely to experience undesirable outcomes such as decreased in-role behavior, organizational citizenship behavior, and pay satisfaction and increased counterproductive work behavior. However, if the perceiver has high core self-evaluations, then he/she has an overall positive self-concept and may be able to mitigate the severity of the distress and consequently these undesirable outcomes. I believe that a perceiver with high core self-evaluations will be able to better cope with the stress of perceived coworker entitlement and not experience as much distress as an individual with low core self-evaluations. For example, individuals with high self-esteem, high generalized self-efficacy, low neuroticism, and internal locus of control have traits that better equip them to deal with entitlement. Individuals with high self-esteem place an overall high value on themselves and are not as likely to let an entitled coworker alter this evaluation. Individuals with generalized self-efficacy believe that they can perform well across a variety of situations, including when they need to deal with entitled coworkers.

Individuals low in neuroticism do not tend to focus on the negatives that individuals low in neuroticism might focus on in the event of perceived coworker entitlement. Finally, individuals with an internal locus of control believe that events are a direct result of their own behavior and will not attribute how things are to the entitled coworker. Thus, they are less likely to imagine referent cognitions centered on how an entitled coworker may have behaved differently. Thus, I argue that individuals who exhibit high core self-evaluations are more skillful in controlling their feelings, attitudes, and behaviors when they perceive coworker entitlement and experience less distress compared to individuals who exhibit low core self-evaluations. Specifically, I hypothesize that the positive relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and psychological distress will be weaker for individuals who exhibit high core-self evaluations.

Hypothesis 6. CSE moderates the positive relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and psychological distress, such that the relationship is weaker for those who exhibit high CSE.

Affect. Affect can be conceptualized as either a trait or a state. In the present study I focus on trait affect, or dispositional affect (from here on referred to as “affect”). Affect has two dominant dimensions: positive affect and negative affect (Watson & Tellegen, 1985). Although the terms positive affect and negative affect suggest that these two dimensions are opposites, they are distinct dimensions (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). In fact, it is possible for an individual to have both high positive and negative affect. Positive affect (PA) is the tendency to experience positive moods over time and across a variety of settings whereas negative affect (NA) is the tendency to experience negative moods over time and across a variety of settings (Watson & Tellegen, 1985).

High positive affect is characterized by high energy, full concentration, and pleasurable engagement (Watson et al., 1988). In contrast, low positive affect is characterized by sadness and lethargy (Watson et al., 1988). High negative affect is characterized by anger, disgust, guilt, and fear (Watson et al., 1988). In contrast, low negative affect is characterized by calmness and serenity (Watson et al., 1988). In sum, high positive affect and low negative affect are perceived as positive traits.

Affect is commonly used in management research to emphasize the importance of individual differences. However, the role of perceiver affect has not been investigated in entitlement research. Similar to core self-evaluations, I believe the perceiver's positive affect and negative affect will influence how he/she perceives coworker entitlement and experiences distress. Specifically, if an employee has high positive affect he/she may be better equipped with his/her high energy to mitigate the distress associated with his/her perception. Likewise, his/her full concentration and pleasurable engagement allow him/her to downplay the negativity associated with his/her perception of a coworker's entitlement, reducing any distress he/she may experience and allowing him/her to focus on his/her own job outcomes. Alternately, an employee low in positive affect may not be able to overcome the stress he/she experiences from perceiving coworker entitlement due to his/her sadness and lethargy. Thus, I hypothesize that the positive relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and psychological distress will be weaker for individuals who exhibit high positive affect.

Hypothesis 7a. PA moderates the positive relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and psychological distress, such that the relationship is weaker for those who exhibit high PA.

Similarly, I argue that individuals low in negative affect are able to handle perceptions of entitlement better than individuals high in negative affect, such that they do not experience as much distress. Perhaps a low negative affect individual's calmness and serenity modulates the effect of perceived coworker entitlement on distress, such that the relationship is weaker for those with low negative affect. Alternatively, the anger and disgust that typifies individuals with high negative affect might be amplified when they perceive a coworker as highly entitled, causing the positive relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and distress to be even stronger for those with high negative affect. Therefore, I hypothesize that the positive relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and psychological distress will be weaker for individuals who exhibit low negative affect.

Hypothesis 7b. NA moderates the positive relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and psychological distress, such that the relationship is weaker for those who exhibit low NA.

Equity sensitivity. Equity sensitivity is a construct developed by Huseman, Hatfield, and Miles (1985, 1987) based on equity theory (Adams, 1963, 1965). Equity sensitivity is a dispositional characteristic that reflects the sensitivity of individuals to the presence (or absence) of equity in an exchange (Huseman et al., 1985, 1987). Research on equity sensitivity has demonstrated that individuals differ in terms of their degree of tolerance for disparities in outcome to input ratios that place them at a relative disadvantage to a referent other and that these differences in tolerance have a meaningful effect on employee attitudes, behaviors, and wellbeing in the workplace (Huseman et al., 1985, 1987; King, Miles, & Day, 1993; Miles, Hatfield, & Huseman, 1989; Sauley &

Bedeian, 2000). Specifically, individuals less concerned with disparities in outcome to input ratios are low in equity sensitivity and are thus more tolerant of such disparities. In contrast, individuals more concerned with disparities in outcome to input ratios are high in equity sensitivity and are thus less tolerant of such disparities. Although Hochwarter et al. (2007) suggest that equity sensitivity should be considered as a moderator in the relationship between perceived entitlement and work outcomes, equity sensitivity has never been investigated as a perceiver individual difference in entitlement research.

Again, using equity theory and referent cognitions theory, I established that employees will experience distress if they perceive entitlement from a coworker because their outcome to input ratios are not proportionate and their referent cognitions are more favorable. However, applying the idea of equity sensitivity, I can hypothesize how different individuals might perceive the outcome to input ratios differently and subsequently experience different levels of distress and develop different referent cognitions. For example, if the perceiver has high equity sensitivity then he/she will be extremely sensitive to a perceived disparity in the outcome to input ratios and will be motivated to restore equity. Similarly, high equity sensitive individuals are more likely to develop referent cognitions with proportionate outcome to input ratios. In contrast, if the perceiver has low equity sensitivity, then he/she will exhibit a greater tolerance for the perceived disparity in the outcome to input ratios. In fact, he/she may not even perceive an inequity in the first place. Moreover, low equity sensitive individuals are less likely to develop referent cognitions with proportionate outcome to input ratios because equity is not as important to them. Thus, individuals low in equity sensitivity will not experience the same severity of distress and not be as motivated to restore equity compared to an

individual high in equity sensitivity. Therefore, I hypothesize that the positive relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and psychological distress will be weaker for individuals who exhibit low equity sensitivity.

Hypothesis 8. Equity sensitivity moderates the positive relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and psychological distress, such that the relationship is weaker for those who exhibit low equity sensitivity.

Moderated Mediation

In addition to the mediation and moderation hypotheses, I provide moderated mediation hypotheses. Moderated mediation, or conditional indirect effects, “occurs when the strength of an indirect effect depends on the level of some variable, or in other words when mediation relations are contingent on the level of a moderator” (Preacher, Rucker, & Hayes, 2007: 193). There are multiple ways that the strength of an indirect effect may be dependent upon a moderator. One of these ways is when the first path in an otherwise simple mediation model is moderated by another variable(s), as is the case in Figure 3 (Preacher et al., 2007). In short, the relationships between perceived coworker entitlement and in-role behavior, organizational citizenship behavior, counterproductive work behavior, and pay satisfaction are mediated by psychological distress. This conditional indirect effect depends on core self-evaluations, positive affect, negative affect, and equity sensitivity to the extent that the interaction coefficients depart from zero (Preacher et al., 2007). In short, core self-evaluations, positive affect, negative affect, and equity sensitivity moderate the psychological distress mediated relationships between perceived coworker entitlement and various outcomes on the path between perceived coworker entitlement and psychological distress. This means that core self-

evaluations, positive affect, negative affect, and equity sensitivity can either strengthen or weaken the mediation effect. For example, I argue that high core self-evaluations, high positive affect, low negative affect, and low equity sensitivity weaken the mediation and mitigate the negative consequences because they lessen the felt distress. Alternatively, I argue that low core self-evaluations, low positive affect, high negative affect, and high equity sensitivity strengthen the mediation and enhance the negative consequences because they heighten the felt distress. Thus, I hypothesize moderated mediation relationships for all of the individual difference variables (i.e., core self-evaluations, positive affect, negative affect, equity sensitivity) and outcome variables (i.e., in-role behavior, OCBI, OCBO, CWBI, CWBO, and pay satisfaction).

Hypothesis 9a-f. The negative relationships between perceived coworker entitlement and (a) in-role behavior, (b) OCBI, (c) OCBO, and (d) pay satisfaction and the positive relationships between perceived coworker entitlement and (e) CWBI and (f) CWBO, are mediated by psychological distress and moderated by CSE such that the relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and psychological distress will be weakened when there is high CSE.

Hypothesis 10a-f. The negative relationships between perceived coworker entitlement and (a) in-role behavior, (b) OCBI, (c) OCBO, and (d) pay satisfaction and the positive relationships between perceived coworker entitlement and (e) CWBI and (f) CWBO are mediated by psychological distress and moderated by PA such that the relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and psychological distress will be weakened when there is high PA.

Hypothesis 11a-f. The negative relationships between perceived coworker entitlement and (a) in-role behavior, (b) OCBI, (c) OCBO, and (d) pay satisfaction and the positive relationships between perceived coworker entitlement and (e) CWBI and (f) CWBO are mediated by psychological distress and moderated by NA such that the relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and psychological distress will be weakened when there is low NA.

Hypothesis 12a-f. The negative relationships between perceived coworker entitlement and (a) in-role behavior, (b) OCBI, (c) OCBO, and (d) pay satisfaction and the positive relationships between perceived coworker entitlement and (e) CWBI and (f) CWBO are mediated by psychological distress and moderated by equity sensitivity such that the relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and psychological distress will be weakened when there is low equity sensitivity.

METHOD

Participants and Procedures

The present research is part of a multi-study project and part of this data will be used in other studies. After receiving IRB approval (see Appendices A and B), data was collected using an online survey software system (Qualtrics®) during the fall and winter of 2017-2018. A link to the employee survey was distributed to alumni of a training program for a large financial company on the east coast of the United States through social media. Because respondents were targeted via social media, an actual response rate cannot be calculated. However, of the 256 employees who took the survey, 56 of them did not complete the survey or did not consent to participate in this study. At the end of

the employee survey was a place for the participants to enter their manager's e-mail address. The online software system automatically generated an e-mail to the manager with a link to the manager survey. The online software system created a unique identifying code to match up the employee and manager survey responses. Of the 256 completed employee surveys, 39 managers completed the manager survey, resulting in a response rate of 15.23%. After accounting for incomplete surveys and participants who did not consent, the final sample includes 200 employees and 30 managers. Participation was voluntary and anonymous. Employees average 31.46 years of age, 3.80 years of organization tenure, 90% have a 4-year college degree or higher, and 49.5% are male (49.0% are female). Managers average 43.47 years of age, 8.13 years of organization tenure, 76.7% have a 4-year college degree or higher, and 50.0% are male (50.0% are female).

Measures

Perceived coworker entitlement. Perceived coworker entitlement ($\alpha = .90$) was measured using Hochwarter et al.'s (2007) six-item perceived entitlement scale by employees rating each item on a five-point scale anchored by 1: Strongly disagree and 5: Strongly agree.

Core self-evaluations. Core self-evaluations ($\alpha = .83$) was measured using the 12-item Core Self-Evaluations Scale (CSES; Judge et al., 2003) by employees rating each item on a five-point scale anchored by 1: Strongly disagree and 5: Strongly agree.

Positive and negative affect. Positive affect ($\alpha = .91$) and negative affect ($\alpha = .85$) were measured using the 20-item Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS;

Watson et al., 1988) by employees rating each item on a five-point scale anchored by 1: Very slightly or not at all to 5: Extremely.

Equity sensitivity. Equity sensitivity ($\alpha = .89$) was measured using the 16-item Equity Preference Questionnaire (EPQ; Sauley & Bedeian, 2000) by employees rating each item on a five-point scale anchored by 1: Strongly disagree and 5: Strongly agree.

Psychological distress. Psychological distress ($\alpha = .85$) was measured using Goldberg's (1972) 12-item General Health Questionnaire (GHQ-12) by employees rating each item on a four-point scale anchored by 0: Better than usual to 3: Much less than usual.

In-role behavior. In-role behavior (employee-rated $\alpha = .89$, manager-rated $\alpha = .84$) was measured using the seven-item in-role behavior subscale of Williams and Anderson's (1991) job performance scale by both employees and managers rating each item on a seven-point scale anchored by 1: Strongly disagree and 7: Strongly agree.

Organizational citizenship behavior (OCBI/O). OCBI (employee-rated $\alpha = .88$, manager-rated $\alpha = .87$) and OCBO (employee-rated $\alpha = .72$, manager-rated $\alpha = .74$) were measured using the 14-item organizational citizenship behavior subscale of Williams and Anderson's (1991) job performance scale by both employees and managers rating each item on a seven-point scale anchored by 1: Strongly disagree to 7: Strongly agree.

Pay satisfaction. Pay satisfaction ($\alpha = .95$) was measured using the 18-item Pay Satisfaction Questionnaire (Heneman & Schwab, 1985) by employees rating each item on a five-point scale anchored by 1: Very dissatisfied to 5: Very satisfied.

Counterproductive work behavior (CWBI/O). CWBI ($\alpha = .84$) and CWBO ($\alpha = .65$) were measured using the ten-item short version of the Counterproductive Work

Behavior Checklist (CWB-C; Spector et al., 2010) by employees rating each item on a five-point scale anchored by 1: Never to 7: Every day.

Control variables. Employee control variables include social desirability, age, and organizational tenure. Social desirability ($\alpha = .71$) was measured using Hays, Hayashi, and Stewart's (1989) five-item social desirability scale by both employees and managers rating each item on a five-point scale anchored by 1: Definitely false to 5: Definitely true.

Data Analysis

Regression analysis was used to test the research hypotheses using SPSS Version 24.0. While structural equation modeling (SEM) would have been a more robust data analysis method, the sample size in terms of ratio cases to the number of model parameters was 200:122. While ratio standards vary, Kline (2011) recommends a minimum ratio of 5:1. Too small a ratio leads to low statistical power, as is the case of this study. Consequently, I used SPSS and multiple regression for the data analysis.

RESULTS

The purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and in-role behavior, OCBI, OCBO, pay satisfaction, CWBI, and CWBO. I have hypothesized that psychological distress is a mediating variable in these relationships and that core self-evaluations, positive affect, negative affect, and equity sensitivity are first-stage moderators. In the following, I present the descriptive statistics, the results of the hypotheses tests, and the results of additional analyses. I conclude by providing an overall summary of the statistical findings.

Descriptives

First, I used exploratory factor analysis (EFA) with R-type item sorting to evaluate the dimensionality of the scales (Schriesheim, Coglisier, Scandura, Lankau, & Powers, 1999). I utilized principal axis factoring and constrained the measures to one factor to interpret factor structures. All measures factored satisfactorily to one factor with high factor loadings ($>.4$) except for equity sensitivity, psychological distress, core self-evaluations, manager-rated in-role behavior, employee-rated OCBO, manager-rated OCBO, and social desirability. Table 8 summarizes the problematic items and their factor loadings for these measures. However, all of these measures are established measures and there is no theoretical justification for removing the items with low factor loadings. Since I do not know what the poor loadings are due to, I did not eliminate these problematic items based on this one sample because that could capitalize on chance and possibly affect the content validity of the measures and bias the results. Therefore, all items were retained to compute the measure scores used in the subsequent analysis.

Insert Table 8 about here

Second, I computed mean measure scores and ran reliabilities of the measures. All measures achieved a Cronbach's alpha of greater than .70 except for CWBO ($\alpha = 0.65$). Third, I ran descriptive statistics for the data. The sample size is 200 employee responses and 30 manager responses. Means, standard deviations, correlations, and reliabilities of the measures and control variables are reported in Table 9. Correlations between constructs are less than 0.70. For control variables, social desirability is positively

correlated with core self-evaluations, positive affect, equity sensitivity, in-role behavior, pay satisfaction, OCBI, and OCBO, and negatively correlated with negative affect, psychological distress, CWBI, and CWBO. Age is positively correlated with equity sensitivity, OCBI, OCBO, and organizational tenure, and negatively correlated with negative affect. Organizational tenure is positively related to equity sensitivity, in-role behavior, OCBI, OCBO, and age, and negatively correlated with negative affect. All variables of interest are significantly correlated with other variables at $p < .05$ or better.

Insert Table 9 about here

Hypotheses Tests

Next, I used multiple regression analysis to test the hypotheses. Multiple regression analysis is a statistical technique used to analyze the relationship between a single dependent variable and several independent variables (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1995). The objective of multiple regression analysis is to use independent variables whose values are known to predict a dependent variable (Hair et al., 1995). In this study, several multiple regression models were run to predict the dependent variables of interest: psychological distress, in-role behavior, OCBI, OCBO, pay satisfaction, CWBI, and CWBO. Table 9 summarizes the regression models used to predict psychological distress (Hypotheses 1, 6, 7a, 7b, and 8). Table 11 summarizes the regression models used to predict in-role behavior (Hypotheses 2, 9a, 10a, 11a, and 12a), OCBI (Hypotheses 3a, 9b, 10b, 11b, and 12b), OCBO (Hypotheses 3b, 9c, 10c, 11c, and

12c), pay satisfaction (Hypotheses 4, 9d, 10d, 11d, and 12d), CWBI (Hypotheses 5a, 9e, 10e, 11e, and 12e), and CWBO (Hypotheses 5b, 9f, 10f, 11f, and 12f).

Insert Tables 10-11 about here

There are four main assumptions of multiple regression that the individual variables must meet: (1) normality, (2) linearity, (3) homoscedasticity, and (4) independence of error terms (Hair et al., 1995). Normality of the error term distributions was confirmed by histogram plots of residuals. Linearity of the phenomenon was confirmed using residual plots. Constant variance of the error terms, or homoscedasticity, were also confirmed using residual plots, specifically by plotting residuals against the predicted dependent variable values. Finally, independence of the error terms was confirmed by plotting the residuals against a sequencing variable. In addition to checking the four main assumptions of multiple regression, I also looked for influential observations, or outliers, when examining these plots and checked for issues with multicollinearity using variance inflation factor (VIF) and tolerance scores. Using a suggested cutoff from Hair et al. (1995), I confirmed that all tolerance scores were below .10 and all VIF scores were above .10. There were no issues of outliers or multicollinearity.

Once the assumptions were met, I proceeded to test the hypotheses. Hypothesis 1 posited that perceived coworker entitlement is positively related to psychological distress. To test this, I used hierarchical multiple regression. I included perceived coworker entitlement into the regression analysis following the control variables. The results of this

hypothesis test are shown in Model 2, Table 10. The perceived coworker entitlement term is not significant ($\beta = -0.05, p = .23$). Thus, Hypothesis 1 is not supported.

The next set of hypotheses (Hypotheses 2-5) suggest psychological distress may act as a mediator between perceived coworker entitlement and several outcomes, including in-role behavior, OCBI, OCBO, pay satisfaction, CWBI, and CWBO. Using Hayes's (2018) SPSS extension, PROCESS, I tested these hypotheses using Hayes's (2013) conditional process modeling method. Conditional process modeling is a useful technique when the research goal is to understand and describe the conditional nature of the mechanism(s) by which a variable transmits its effect on another and testing hypotheses about such contingent effects (Hayes, 2013). PROCESS has many models built into its programming that combine moderation and mediation. PROCESS does all of the required regression analysis, estimates both conditional (i.e., simple slopes) and unconditional direct and indirect effects, and provides all output that is needed for inference (Hayes, 2013). Furthermore, PROCESS distinguishes between which effects are conditional and which are not and produces output accordingly. For inference, PROCESS generates errors, *p*-values, and confidence intervals for direct effects and bootstrap confidence intervals for conditional indirect effects. All PROCESS requires is a specification of the variables in the model, the model number being estimated (Hayes, 2013: 442), the role each variable plays in the model, and any additional option you would like to implement. I specified Model 4 for mediation. In order to confirm a mediating variable and its significance in the model, the indirect effect must be statistically significant. There are several ways to test the significance of the indirect effect including a test of joint significance (Baron & Kenny, 1986), the Sobel test, and

bootstrapped confidence intervals. Of these methods, using the bias-corrected bootstrapped confidence intervals is the most preferred and recommended (Hayes, 2013). The test of joint significance is a liberal test with high Type I error and the Sobel test (Sobel, 1982) is a conservative test with high Type II error. The Sobel test can be inaccurate because it relies on an assumption of a normal distribution whereas the bootstrapping method is a robust technique that can be applied to non-normal data. In short, if the bootstrapped confidence interval does not include zero, then there is mediation, but if it does include zero then there is no mediation relationship (Hayes, 2013). The mediation models are summarized in Table 11.

Hypotheses 2 posited that psychological distress mediates the negative relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and in-role behavior. The confidence interval includes zero (-.01, .03). Thus, psychological distress does not mediate the negative relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and in-role behavior and Hypothesis 2 is not supported.

Hypothesis 3a posited that psychological distress mediates the negative relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and OCBI. The confidence interval includes zero (-.02, .03). Thus, psychological distress does not mediate the negative relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and OCBI and Hypothesis 3a is not supported.

Hypothesis 3b posited that psychological distress mediates the negative relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and OCBO. The confidence interval includes zero (-.02, .03). Thus, psychological distress does not mediate the negative

relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and OCBO and Hypothesis 3b is not supported.

Hypothesis 4 posited that psychological distress mediates the negative relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and pay satisfaction. The confidence interval includes zero (-.02, .06). Thus, psychological distress does not mediate the negative relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and pay satisfaction and Hypothesis 4 is not supported.

Hypothesis 5a posited that psychological distress mediates the positive relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and CWBI. The confidence interval includes zero (-.02, .00). Thus, psychological distress does not mediate the positive relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and CWBI and Hypothesis 5a is not supported.

Hypothesis 5b posited that psychological distress mediates the positive relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and CWBO. The confidence interval includes zero (-.03, .01). Thus, psychological distress does not mediate the positive relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and CWBO and Hypothesis 5b is not supported.

The next set of hypotheses (Hypotheses 6-8) suggest various individual differences moderate the relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and psychological distress. To test these hypotheses, I used hierarchical multiple regressions. In the first step, the control variables (i.e., age, tenure, social desirability). The control variables were not significant in any of the models. Next, the two variables used in the interaction term were included for each model. Third, the interaction term was included

for each model. To avoid potentially problematic high multicollinearity with the previous two variables added, the two variables making up the interaction term were mean centered before computing the interaction term (Aiken & West, 1991; Dawson, 2014). Additionally, simple slope plots are reported for significant moderation effects to illustrate the effect. Benchmarks of one standard deviation above and below the mean were used in these plots, a benchmark which is commonly used in the management literature (Dawson, 2014).

Hypothesis 6 posited that core self-evaluations moderates the relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and psychological distress, such that the relationship is weaker for those who exhibit high core self-evaluations. The results of this hypothesis are shown in Model 4, Table 10. Evidence of a significant moderated effect is present. The interaction coefficient is negative and significant ($\beta = -0.12, p < .05$). Thus, Hypothesis 6 is supported. Hypothesis 7a posited that positive affect moderates the positive relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and psychological distress, such that the relationship is weaker for those who exhibit high positive affect. The results of this hypothesis are shown in Model 6, Table 10. The interaction coefficient is not significant ($\beta = 0.01, p = .88$). Thus, Hypothesis 7a is not supported. Hypothesis 7b posited that negative affect moderates the positive relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and psychological distress, such that the relationship is weaker for those who exhibit low negative affect. The results of this hypothesis are shown in Model 8, Table 10. The interaction coefficient is not significant ($\beta = 0.04, p = .49$). Thus, Hypothesis 7a is not supported. Hypothesis 8 posited that equity sensitivity moderates the positive relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and psychological distress,

such that the relationship is weaker for those who exhibit low equity sensitivity. The results of this hypothesis are shown in Model 10, Table 10. Evidence of a marginally significant moderated effect is present. The interaction coefficient is negative and significant ($\beta = -0.12, p < .10$). Thus, Hypothesis 8 is supported. The plots of the significant moderations from Hypotheses 6 and 8 are presented in Figures 4 and 5, respectively. Figure 4 shows an enhancing effect that as perceived coworker entitlement increases and core self-evaluations decreases, psychological distress increases. Figure 5 shows an enhancing effect that as perceived coworker entitlement increases and equity sensitivity increases, psychological distress increases.

Insert Figures 4 and 5 about here

The last set of hypotheses suggest moderated mediation relationships. According to Edwards and Lambert (2007), moderated mediation is when the mediated effects are dependent on the level of a moderator. Using Hayes's (2018) SPSS extension, PROCESS, I tested these hypotheses using Hayes's (2013) conditional process modeling method. Hayes's (2013) conditional process modeling method is based on moderated mediation depicted by Preacher, Rucker, and Hayes (2007). Following Hayes's (2013) user guide to PROCESS, I specified Model 7 for moderated mediation with the moderation in the first stage. An option I implemented was centering variables that are used to form interactions, to avoid potential multicollinearity problems between the interaction term and variables that make it up (Aiken & West, 1991; Dawson, 2014).

Specifically, I propose that various individual differences (core self-evaluations, positive affect, negative affect, equity sensitivity) moderate the first stage of the relationships between perceived coworker entitlement and various outcomes (in-role behavior, OCBI, OCBO, pay satisfaction, CWBI, CWBO) via psychological distress relationships. Hypotheses 9a-f suggest that core self-evaluations moderate the first stage of the perceived coworker entitlement and various outcomes: (a) in-role behavior, (b) OCBI, (c) OCBO, (d) pay satisfaction, (e) CWBI, (f) CWBO, via psychological distress relationships. Hypotheses 10a-f suggest that positive affect moderates the first stage of the perceived coworker entitlement and various outcomes: (a) in-role behavior, (b) OCBI, (c) OCBO, (d) pay satisfaction, (e) CWBI, (f) CWBO, via psychological distress relationships. Hypotheses 11a-f suggest that negative affect moderates the first stage of the perceived coworker entitlement and various outcomes: (a) in-role behavior, (b) OCBI, (c) OCBO, (d) pay satisfaction, (e) CWBI, (f) CWBO, via psychological distress relationships. Hypotheses 12a-f suggest that equity sensitivity moderates the first stage of the perceived coworker entitlement and various outcomes: (a) in-role behavior, (b) OCBI, (c) OCBO, (d) pay satisfaction, (e) CWBI, (f) CWBO, via psychological distress relationships.

For moderated mediation to be supported in PROCESS, first the interaction term must have a significant effect on the mediator (Hayes, 2013). Therefore, Hypotheses 10a-f and 11a-f are not supported because the interaction term is not significant, as found in Hypotheses 7a and 7b, respectively. However, the interaction terms used in Hypotheses 9a-f and 12a-f are significant, as found in Hypotheses 6 and 8, so they were tested using PROCESS. Next, the conditional indirect effect must be interpreted. If the conditional

indirect effect of the interaction term on in-role behavior via the mediator (psychological distress) changes depending on the size of the interaction term, then moderation is present in the mediation relationship (Hayes, 2013). Finally, the index of moderated mediation should be reported, and it should be noted if its confidence interval includes zero. If its confidence interval does not include zero, then there is moderated mediation, but if it does include zero, then there is no moderated mediation relationship (Hayes, 2013).

Table 12 summarizes Hypotheses 9a-f and Hypotheses 12a-f. As shown in Table 12, the conditional indirect effect of the interaction terms (perceived coworker entitlement*core self-evaluations or perceived coworker entitlement*equity sensitivity) on the dependent variables (in-role behavior, OCBI, OCBO, pay satisfaction, CWBI, or CWBO) via the mediator (psychological distress) generally do not change depending on the size of the interaction term. Furthermore, the confidence intervals all include zero, indicating that there are no significant moderated mediation relationships. Thus, Hypotheses 9a-f and 10a-f are not supported.

Insert Table 12 about here

In summary, the only supported hypotheses are Hypothesis 6 and Hypothesis 8. Thus, core-self evaluations and equity sensitivity are two individual differences that moderate the relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and psychological distress. Table 13 presents a summary of the hypothesis tests.

Insert Table 13 about here

Additional Analysis

Next, I ran a supplemental analysis including manager data for in-role behavior, OCBI, and OCBO, in an attempt to overcome common method bias and explore if the above relationships remain the same or are different. However, due to a small sample size of only 30, this analysis has weak statistical power and must be interpreted with caution. This analysis was conducted the same way as the main analysis, using hierarchical multiple regression and Hayes's (2018) SPSS extension, PROCESS. I repeated this analysis with the only change being using manager-rated in-role behavior, OCBI, and OCBO instead of employee self-reported in-role behavior, OCBI, and OCBO. Thus, only Hypotheses 2, 3a-b, 9a-c, and 12a-c were examined in this supplemental analysis. Although Hypotheses 10a-c and 12a-c include in-role behavior, OCBI, and OCBO as dependent variables, they were not included because the interaction term is not significant. Thus, these hypotheses will not be supported regardless of using employee or manager-rated in-role behavior, OCBI, and OCBO variables.

Hypotheses 2 posited that psychological distress mediates the negative relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and in-role behavior. The confidence interval includes zero (-.12, .17). Thus, psychological distress does not mediate the negative relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and manager-rated in-role behavior and Hypothesis 2 is still not supported.

Hypothesis 3a posited that psychological distress mediates the negative relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and OCBI. The confidence interval includes zero (-.10, .22). Thus, psychological distress does not mediate the negative relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and manager-rated OCBI and Hypothesis 3a is still not supported.

Hypothesis 3b posited that psychological distress mediates the negative relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and manager-rated OCBO. The confidence interval includes zero (-.20, .12). Thus, psychological distress does not mediate the negative relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and manager-rated OCBO and Hypothesis 3b is still not supported.

Hypotheses 9a-c suggest that core self-evaluations moderate the first stage of the perceived coworker entitlement and (a) in-role behavior, (b) OCBI, and (c) OCBO via psychological distress relationships. Hypotheses 12a-c suggest that equity sensitivity moderate the first stage of the perceived coworker entitlement and (a) in-role behavior, (b) OCBI, and (c) OCBO via psychological distress relationships. Table 12 summarizes Hypotheses 9a-c and Hypotheses 12a-c. As shown in Table 12, the conditional indirect effect of the interaction terms (perceived coworker entitlement*core self-evaluations or perceived coworker entitlement*equity sensitivity) on the dependent variables (manager-rated in-role behavior, manager-rated OCBI, manager-rated OCBO) via the mediator (psychological distress) generally do not change depending on the size of the interaction term. Furthermore, the confidence intervals all cross zero, indicating that there are no significant moderated mediation relationships. Thus, Hypotheses 9a-c and 10a-c are still not supported.

DISCUSSION

This study examines the relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and in-role behavior, OCBI, OCBO, pay satisfaction, CWBI, and CWBO via psychological distress. Furthermore, it investigates the moderating effects of core self-evaluations, positive affect, negative affect, and equity sensitivity. In summary, I only found that core self-evaluations and equity sensitivity are significant moderators in the relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and psychological distress. In the following, I will discuss contributions to research, implications for practice, strengths and limitations of this study, and directions for future research.

Contributions to Research

This research takes the state entitlement perspective to examine how employees perceive their entitled coworkers and how these perceptions negatively affect them by building upon Hochwarter and colleagues (2007, 2010) work. This study is the first in this stream of research to consider how personality traits of the perceiver might lessen the negative effects that an employee experiences as a result of perceiving entitlement from coworkers. I found empirical support that core self-evaluations and equity sensitivity are important individual differences that lessen the psychological distress that one experiences as a result of working with entitled individuals. This is initial evidence that people perceive and react to entitled individuals differently depending on their personalities.

Implications for Practice

This research has important implications for practice. This study provides initial evidence that individual differences make a difference in how individuals react to

entitlement perceptions. Specifically, individuals with high core self-evaluations and low equity sensitivity are less likely to be negatively affected by entitled coworkers. On the other hand, individuals with low core self-evaluations and high equity sensitivity are more likely to be negatively affected by entitled coworkers. Therefore, it is important for employees to be aware of their own personalities and how they might be able to lessen negative effects of entitled coworkers. At the same time, it is just as important for employees to gain awareness as to why they may be more sensitive to their entitled coworkers so hopefully, they can better manage these perceptions and not let them negatively impact them at work. Furthermore, it is useful for managers to identify differences in their employees, so they can help manage these differences or at least be aware of why some employees might react to entitlement differently than others.

Strengths and Limitations

Strengths of this study include utilizing well-established measures and collecting data from a group of working professionals. Additionally, new variables were considered, and new relationships were supported from the promising state entitlement perspective. Despite these strengths, there are several limitations of this research. First, the data collected was cross-sectional and included primarily self-reported data, with the exception of a small sample of manager-rated in-role behavior, OCBI, and OCBO data. Due to a small manager sample size, this study is subject to common method bias and only employee self-reported data was used in the main analysis (Spector, 2006). I attempted to control for common method bias by collecting manager data and measuring social desirability; however, it is possible that results may be different if this study were to be replicated with a larger multi-source data collection effort. Additionally, the cross-

sectional nature of the data limits the ability to interpret causality and thus this study only examines relationships between the constructs of interests. Second, this study lacked the sample size to conduct the analysis using structural equation modeling. Structural equation modeling is a more robust method compared to multiple regression because it can test the structural model and measurement model simultaneously, and would have been a preferable method in this study (Kline, 2011). Third, the majority of respondents are young professionals from the United States. Therefore, it is not possible to determine whether entitlement perceptions vary across generations or cultures, as some research indicates (e.g., Twenge, 2006). Fourth, the majority of hypotheses were not supported. There was no evidence of a significant relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and psychological distress in this study. Therefore, either psychological distress is not related to perceived coworker entitlement or perhaps there is a measurement issue. The insignificance of this relationship subsequently ruled out all mediating and moderated mediation hypotheses in this study.

Directions for Future Research

There is abundant opportunity for future research in this area. First, future research should investigate the direct relationships between perceived coworker entitlement and the dependent variables removing the problematic psychological distress mediator. Then, the moderating relationships involving the individual difference variables can be tested instead of moderated mediation models involving psychological distress. Psychological distress was not found to be a significant mediator. Although Goldberg's (1972) 12-item General Health Questionnaire (GHQ-12) is a common measure of distress, perhaps another measure of distress would yield significant results.

Alternatively, perhaps distress is not a mediator in these relationships and other variables (e.g., job satisfaction) should be considered as mediating variables instead. Furthermore, more individual difference variables should be considered as moderators and perhaps antecedents to perceived coworker entitlement. For example, the perceiver's trait entitlement could build upon individual differences in equity sensitivity and yield new insights. Moreover, individual differences as antecedents versus moderators should be disentangled. Second, the effects of entitled individuals in the workplace should be investigated from more perspectives than just coworkers. For example, future research might explore how entitled individuals affect their managers and subordinates in addition to their coworkers. Therefore, it is important to explore their perceptions of entitlement in the workplace and how entitled individuals affect people in various roles. Leader-member exchange (LMX) could be an interesting stream of research to incorporate in this stream of research. Third, future research should attempt to collect sufficient sample sizes of multi-source data to overcome common method bias that plagues the entitlement literature. Finally, future research should consider the trait entitlement of the entitled individual and the state entitlement perceptions of that entitled individual from a relevant observer to help understand discrepancies between perceptions of the entitled individual and relevant observers.

CONCLUSION

This study provides initial evidence that individual differences influence how individuals perceive entitlement in the workplace and as a result experience distress or not. Not all employees are the same. Employees are people who have different backgrounds, experiences, and personalities. Therefore, not all employees react to things

the same way. Some employees may not be sensitive to entitled coworkers whereas other employees may be extremely sensitive to entitled coworkers and suffer detrimental outcomes as a consequence. Therefore, it is important to understand why and how employees perceive entitlement differently so hopefully these negative effects can be minimized.

IV. PERCEIVED COWORKER ENTITLEMENT AND ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE

ABSTRACT

In this study, I examine the relationships among perceived coworker entitlement and negative attitudinal, behavioral, and wellbeing consequences to the perceiver including job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, and emotional exhaustion. Furthermore, I investigate the moderating role of organizational justice in these relationships utilizing Colquitt's (2001) four factor model of organizational justice comprised of distributive justice, procedural justice, interpersonal justice, and informational justice, using fairness theory as a theoretical framework. Using a sample of 200 working adults, I found a significant relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and organizational citizenship behavior. Additionally, I found empirical support that high procedural justice weakens the relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and job satisfaction and high distributive, interpersonal, and informational justice each weakens the relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and emotional exhaustion. Using a small sample of 30 working adults and their managers, I also found initial evidence that high interpersonal and informational justice each weaken the relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and organizational citizenship behavior targeted at the organization.

INTRODUCTION

Matters of justice are central in all aspects of our lives. For example, spouses desire fair treatment by their partners; siblings insist on being treated fairly; athletes demand “a level playing field”; and litigants seek justice in court. Although justice is prevalent in all parts of our lives, justice in the workplace appears to be especially important to people. Perhaps it is the fact that we spend approximately half of our waking hours at work or that the metrics used for assessing justice in the workplace are operationalized routinely. For instance, differences in job performance, pay, and work conditions serve as constant reminders of justice in the workplace. For these reasons and countless others, people seem to be keenly aware of matters of justice and injustice in the workplace.

Not surprisingly, organizational justice is one of the most popular topics of study by management scholars today. Interestingly, organizational justice and entitlement have never been studied together. However, scholars have utilized justice-related theoretical frameworks in entitlement research which makes organizational justice a natural construct to examine in relation to entitlement. For example, Byrne, Miller, and Pitts (2010); Miller and Konopaske (2014); Miller (2009); and O’Leary-Kelly, Rosen, and Hochwarter (2017) have used equity theory (Adams, 1963, 1965) as a theoretical framework in entitlement research. Similarly, Bing, Davison, Garner, Ammeter, and Novicevic (2009); Bryne et al. (2010); Miller and Konopaske (2014); and Miller (2009) utilized equity sensitivity (Huseman, Hatfield, & Miles, 1985, 1987) to help explain entitlement in the workplace. Other justice-related theories that have been considered by management scholars in the study of entitlement in the workplace include balance theory

(e.g., O’Leary-Kelly et al., 2017), fairness theory (e.g., Hochwarter et al., 2007; O’Leary-Kelly et al., 2017), referent cognitions theory (e.g., Hochwarter et al., 2007), relative deprivation theory (e.g., Maynard, Brondolo, Connelly, & Sauer, 2015), social comparison theory (e.g., Byrne et al., 2010; Foley, Ngo, & Loi, 2016; Herman & Lewis, 2012), social exchange theory (e.g., Poelsmans & Sahibzada, 2004), and social justice theory (e.g., Lewis & Smithson, 2001). Much of the limited research on entitlement in the workplace has examined entitlement from a justice perspective; however, many of the justice theories (e.g., fairness theory) are underdeveloped in relation to entitlement and the important construct of organizational justice has yet to be considered.

While prior research on entitlement in the workplace utilizing justice-related theories has provided novel insights, I believe that elaborating on how fairness theory can explain entitlement in the workplace and considering the relationship between organizational justice and entitlement can yield additional new and interesting insights. For example, most of the existing research on entitlement utilizing justice-related theories focus on the allocation of resources and interpersonal relations, which correspond to two of Colquitt’s (2001) four factors of organizational justice: distributive justice and interpersonal justice. Existing research has not touched upon Colquitt’s (2001) other two categories of organizational justice: procedural justice and informational justice. Moreover, most entitlement research has focused on effects to the entitled individuals and has neglected the impact that entitled individuals may have on others (e.g., coworkers). I address these important gaps by considering all four aspects of organizational justice and examining the effects of entitlement on others via perceptions of coworker entitlement.

When individuals perceive coworker entitlement in the workplace, they are likely to experience negative attitudinal, behavioral, and wellbeing consequences due to feeling a sense of unfairness. Thus, I will examine one attitudinal consequence, one behavioral consequence, and one wellbeing consequence and use fairness theory as a theoretical framework. The purpose of this study is to use fairness theory to investigate how the organization can potentially mitigate these negative effects of entitlement via organizational justice. Specifically, my research question is: How does organizational justice moderate the relationships between perceived coworker entitlement and the perceiver's job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, and emotional exhaustion?

First, I begin with a review of the limited research on entitlement in the workplace, with an emphasis on perceived coworker entitlement research. Second, I discuss how fairness theory is a useful theoretical framework for explaining effects of perceived coworker entitlement. Third, I discuss attitudinal, behavioral, and wellbeing consequences of perceived coworker entitlement—specifically, job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, and emotional exhaustion and develop hypotheses. Fourth, I review the organizational justice literature with a focus on Colquitt's (2001) four factor model and hypothesize how all four dimensions of organizational justice might mitigate these negative consequences of perceived coworker entitlement to the perceiver. Fifth, I test the hypotheses using a sample of employees and their managers. Finally, I conclude with a discussion on contributions to research, implications for practice, strengths and limitations, and directions for future research.

THEORY AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

Entitlement research in the management literature is in its infancy stage. I will begin with a review of entitlement research and a justification for why I focus on perceived coworker entitlement. Next, I present fairness theory as a theoretical framework and utilize it to theorize attitudinal, behavioral, and wellbeing consequences of perceived coworker entitlement: job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, and emotional exhaustion, respectively. Next, I review the mature research stream of organizational justice. Specifically, I utilize Colquitt's (2001) four factor model of organizational justice, which is comprised of distributive justice, procedural justice, interpersonal justice, and informational justice. Then I hypothesize how each dimension of organizational justice might moderate the relationships between perceived coworker entitlement and job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, and emotional exhaustion. Figure 6 illustrates my proposed model.

Insert Figure 6 about here

Perceived Coworker Entitlement

Entitlement research in management has primarily built upon entitlement research in psychology. The field of psychology conceptualizes entitlement as a facet of narcissism (Raskin & Terry, 1988) and as a personality trait (Campbell, Bonacci, Shelton, Exline, & Bushman, 2004). Campbell et al. (2004) define psychological entitlement as “a stable and pervasive sense that one deserves more and is entitled to more than others” (p. 31). The majority of management scholars define and conceptualize entitlement the same

way as psychology scholars do: as a trait that is stable across time and a variety of settings (e.g., Harvey & Harris, 2010; Harvey, Harris, Gillis, & Martinko, 2014; Harvey & Martinko, 2009; Maynard et al., 2015; Thompson & Gregory, 2012). In fact, Campbell et al.'s (2004) definition is the most widely used entitlement definition in the management literature. However, there is an emerging second stream of entitlement research in the management literature that conceptualizes entitlement differently. O'Leary-Kelly and colleagues (2017) argue that it would be a disservice to the field to only conceptualize entitlement as a trait. O'Leary-Kelly et al. (2017) believe that a key limiting factor in prior research is the strong emphasis on entitlement as a stable trait that does not take into account the essential role of context. After all, context is what distinguishes the field of management from other fields, including psychology (Johns, 2006). They also argue that this one-sided treatment of entitlement as a trait restricts our knowledge because it limits insights into organizational phenomenon due to its similarity with other individual traits (e.g., narcissism, superiority, self-esteem). Additionally, O'Leary-Kelly et al. (2017) argue that the trait conceptualization of entitlement restricts the focus for organizational interventions that might address the numerous negative outcomes (e.g., job dissatisfaction, counterproductive work behaviors, decreased wellbeing) associated with entitlement in the workplace. The trait perspective tends to over-emphasize the entitled individual's personality and neglect other factors that may help overcome these negative consequences. Although O'Leary-Kelly et al. (2017) acknowledge the restrictions of trait entitlement, they do not propose the idea of state entitlement. However, I propose that state entitlement is trait entitlement's counterpart. I define state entitlement as a context-dependent sense that one unjustifiably deserves more

than others. My definition contrasts trait entitlement in that it emphasizes context and acknowledges that entitlement is not always stable and pervasive.

While O’Leary-Kelly et al. (2017) did not propose the idea of state entitlement, they did propose the idea of work situated entitlement (WSE). According to O’Leary-Kelly et al. (2017), WSE is “a workplace condition reflective of a misalignment between an employee’s perceptions and the perceptions of a relevant observer regarding an employee’s deservingness for outcomes, such that the employee’s perceptions exceed those of the observer” (p. 419). WSE can be thought of as a stream of research that falls under the state entitlement conceptualization. WSE introduced the idea of perceived coworker entitlement, which is a valuable line of inquiry. To date, most entitlement research looks at the consequences of trait entitlement to the entitled individual. However, entitled individuals are not kept in isolated bubbles. Therefore, they can negatively affect those around them. The effects of entitlement on others are perhaps more impactful to organizations relative to just the entitled individual. Instead of studying the effects that entitled individuals might experience, it is more impactful to examine the effects that entitled employees might have on all of the people around them, a considerably larger population than just the entitled individuals. Therefore, I investigate the effects of coworker entitlement on others in the present study.

In contrast to the traditional self-report measures of trait entitlement (e.g., Campbell et al., 2004), O’Leary-Kelly et al. (2017) argue that coworker entitlement might best be captured via perceptions from others (e.g., a coworker). Hochwarter et al. (2007) developed the first entitlement measure made specifically for a work context and for capturing perceived entitlement behavior of others. The idea of capturing perceptions

of others is important because individuals do not typically label themselves as entitled. Instead, it is the perception of another party (e.g., a coworker) that makes this designation. Theoretically, an individual who is perceived by others as entitled may not believe that he/she is entitled. Furthermore, an individual who does not exhibit trait entitlement might still be perceived by others as entitled. In the workplace, it is equally or more important how other people perceive an individual because multiple individuals can be potentially affected. Whether an individual believes that he/she is entitled or not, if he/she is perceived as highly entitled then he/she is likely to affect his/her coworkers' attitudes, behaviors, and wellbeings. Common behavior that is often perceived as entitlement behavior can include anything that minimizes contributions and maximizes benefits. For example, an entitled individual may habitually show up late, take excessive breaks, utilize company resources for personal benefit, expect special perquisites, demand higher pay, expect first pick for requesting time off, etc. In turn, these observed entitlement behaviors can have a negative effect on the workplace and those in it (Hochwarter et al., 2007). Thus, in the present study, I focus on perceived coworker entitlement from the state perspective. I define perceived coworker entitlement as the extent to which an employee perceives a coworker to act as if he/she believes he/she unjustifiably deserves more than others regardless of his/her actual contributions. Although similar to O'Leary-Kelly et al.'s (2017) definition of WSE, my definition does not assume that a misalignment must exist between the observer and entitled employee for the observer to perceive entitlement. I argue that it does not matter if the target perceives himself/herself as highly entitled; it matters how others perceive the target and the situation. For example, if the target perceives himself/herself as highly

entitled, and an observer perceives the target as highly entitled (i.e., there is no misalignment), the observer will still experience negative outcomes if the entitlement is unjustifiable. In this study, I examine the attitudinal consequence job satisfaction, the behavioral consequence organizational citizenship behavior, and the wellbeing consequence emotional exhaustion. Next, I will discuss fairness theory and how it is useful in explaining the consequences of perceived coworker entitlement to the perceiver and how organizational justice can modulate these undesirable effects.

Fairness Theory

Developed by Folger and Cropanzano (1998, 2001), fairness theory is a justice theory that conceptualizes justice/fairness as accountability. The main assumption of fairness theory is the assignment of blame (Folger & Cropanzano, 2001). According to fairness theory, “when people identify an instance of unfair treatment, they are holding someone accountable for an action (or inaction) that threatens another person’s material or psychological wellbeing” (Folger & Cropanzano, 2001: 1). However, if no one is to blame, then there is no social injustice. Thus, the essence of accountability is fundamental to justice. When people judge the fairness of someone’s actions, they are trying to deem whether to hold that person accountable or not for those actions (or inactions). In contrast to other justice theories (e.g., equity theory, referent cognitions theory), fairness theory emphasizes the process by which accountability judgments are made.

Folger and Cropanzano (1998, 2001) developed fairness theory as a model of accountability. Fairness theory maintains that accountability is comprised of three interrelated components (Folger & Cropanzano, 2001). First, an unfavorable condition must exist. There must be a negative state of event(s) relative to a given frame of

reference. In short, there must be something unfavorable for which someone might be held accountable. Second, the event(s) must be due to discretionary actions conducted by the person whose accountability is judged. For instance, a person who had no feasible alternatives or was forced to do something is typically not held accountable because he/she had no other option. Third, the unfavorable condition must be harmful and violate some ethical principle of interpersonal conduct. For example, a dentist may cause harm during a necessary tooth extraction but will not be blamed and held accountable for a charge of injustice because he/she has not behaved in an unethical manner.

Applying fairness theory's three elements is useful for explaining the effects of perceived coworker entitlement. Imagine working day after day with a coworker who you perceive as acting in an entitled manner. For example, your coworker habitually arrives late, takes extra-long lunch breaks, is slow and sloppy in their work, uses company time and resources for personal matters, demands the best office, expects to pick their time off before everyone else, demands a higher salary and other perquisites, etc. Consequently, this coworker's behavior directly affects you. For example, you are stuck picking up their slack and double checking or perhaps even redoing their work. Additionally, perhaps your lunch break is consistently getting pushed back or cut short because of this coworker and you never get days off around the holidays because this coworker has already taken them off. Moreover, perhaps your office is stuck in the back which could hurt your career growth because you are not as visible and accessible. Also, maybe your organization has a fixed budget for salary and bonuses and your income is directly impacted because the entitled individual demands more of the pot. In this example, there is a good chance that you might feel a sense of unfairness and injustice. As a result, it is likely that you blame

this coworker you perceive as entitled for these unfavorable events. After all, all three components of accountability are present. First, an unfavorable condition exists because an entitled coworker is directly impacting you at work. Second, the unfavorable condition exists due to your entitled coworker's voluntary actions. No one coerced your coworker to behave in that way and there were alternative ways that he/she could have behaved. For example, he/she could come into work on time, put more effort into their work, and not expect/demand special treatment at your expense. Third, your entitled coworker's actions are harmful to you and violate ethical principles. For example, it is not ethical to use company resources for personal benefit, perform sloppy work, and expect rewards for poor performance. Moreover, this behavior is harmful to you because you must work harder and longer. Thus, coworker entitlement is directly related to each of the three components of accountability and your entitled coworker is the person you blame for the harm directly caused by his/her actions.

Next, you try to make sense of the situation by adding your own imagination, thoughts, perceptions, ideas, and interpretations. During this process, you will think about what it would have been like if things had been different. This imagined alternative way that things could have been serves as a frame of reference. When you compare *what actually is* versus *what might have been*, counterfactual thinking occurs (Folger & Cropanzano, 2001). Counterfactual thinking is simply counter to the facts, or the *what might have been*. This counterfactual thinking also directly relates to each of the three elements of accountability in fairness theory. First, you think about what it *would* have been like if a different situation had occurred (e.g., your coworker did not act in an entitled way) and realize that this situation would have been more positive for you.

Second, you imagine how your coworker *could* have behaved differently and realize that there were alternative courses of action. Third, you imagine what your coworker *should* have ethically done. Hence, the *would*, *could*, and *should* are the essential elements of accountability (Folger & Cropanzano, 2001). Once you compare what actually happened to what you imagine *would*, *could*, and *should* have happened, you feel harmed. As a result of this injustice, this harm can manifest itself in your attitudes, behaviors, and wellbeing. Next, I will discuss some of these harmful, negative consequences.

Negative Consequences

Past entitlement research has theorized and found positive relationships between entitlement and various negative attitudinal, behavioral, and wellbeing consequences. Theorized attitudinal consequences of entitlement include increased salary deservingness (Campbell et al., 2004), withdrawal (Fisk & Neville, 2011), job frustration (Harvey & Harris, 2010), turnover intent (Harvey & Martinko, 2009; Tomlinson, 2013), job tension (Hochwarter et al., 2007; Hochwarter et al., 2010), and decreased job satisfaction (Foley et al., 2016; Harvey & Martinko, 2009; Hochwarter et al., 2007; Maynard et al., 2015; Tomlinson, 2013). Theorized behavioral consequences of entitlement include increased counterproductive work behavior (Fisk, 2010; Grijalva & Newman, 2015) and decreased performance (Tomlinson, 2013) and organizational citizenship behaviors (Hochwarter et al., 2007). Finally, theorized wellbeing consequences of entitlement include increased stress (Brouer, Wallace, & Harvey, 2011; Maynard et al., 2015), burnout (Fisk & Neville, 2011), job tension (Hochwarter et al., 2007, 2010), anxiety and depression (Hochwarter et al., 2007; Tomlinson, 2013), and decreased overall wellbeing (Fisk & Neville, 2011; O’Leary-Kelly et al., 2017). While scholars have proposed that entitlement will have

these detrimental effects, few have empirically investigated these important consequences. Moreover, even fewer scholars have theorized and tested consequences of perceived coworker entitlement for the individuals who perceive the entitlement behavior. Instead, the vast majority of entitlement research focuses on the entitled individual and the consequences to the entitled individual. However, there are a few exceptions. Hochwarter et al. (2007) found that perceived coworker entitlement was associated with increased tension and depressed mood at work and decreased satisfaction and organizational citizenship behaviors. Hochwarter et al. (2010) found that perceived coworker entitlement was associated with increased job tension. O’Leary-Kelly et al. (2017) propose that perceived coworker entitlement is negatively related to wellbeing and that different levels of perceived coworker entitlement are related to various cognitive appraisals. It is evident that entitlement can have harmful effects on the perceiver in addition to the entitled individual and these effects have received very limited research. I recognize this important gap in the literature and attempt to gain more insight into the negative effects of perceived coworker entitlement in the present study by examining job satisfaction as an attitudinal consequence, organizational citizenship behavior as a behavioral consequence, and emotional exhaustion as a wellbeing consequence. Although Hochwarter et al. (2007) studied job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior, I use a new theoretical framework and different measures. Moreover, I differentiate organizational citizenship behavior targeted at individuals and the organization.

Job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is how content an individual is with their job. In this affective sense, “job satisfaction can be considered as a global feeling about [a] job” (Spector, 1997: 2). Job satisfaction has long been an important construct in organizational

behavior research and is the most studied outcome of entitlement in management research. Hochwarter et al. (2007) were the first and only to examine the relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and job satisfaction. They found that perceived coworker entitlement has a negative relationship with job satisfaction. Similarly, Foley et al. (2016), Harvey and Martinko (2009), Maynard et al. (2015) and Tomlinson (2013) theorize a negative relationship between trait entitlement and job satisfaction of the entitled individual. However, empirical results are mixed. Foley et al. (2016) and Harvey and Martinko (2009) found no significant relationship between trait entitlement and job satisfaction, whereas Maynard et al. (2015) found a significant negative relationship between trait entitlement and job satisfaction.

Due to past mixed empirical results and limited research, I examine the relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and job satisfaction. Utilizing fairness theory, if an individual perceives a coworker as highly entitled, then the perceiver will experience injustice. The perceiver will develop a new frame of reference to compare what actually is to what it *would*, *could*, and *should* have been. During this process of counterfactual thinking, the perceiver will assess accountability and blame to the entitled coworker for the harm he/she experienced. One way that the perceiver can be harmed is their attitudes, including job satisfaction. I argue that this experienced unfairness will result in the individual feeling less content with their job and having low job satisfaction, or job dissatisfaction. This job dissatisfaction can stem from the stress of working with a highly entitled coworker who creates more work for others and receives undeserving rewards. In the perceiver's imagined alternative frame of reference, his/her coworker did not act in an entitled manner and consequently, the perceiver did not have

to work harder to pick up the slack of their coworker and did not have to witness him/her receiving undeserving rewards. This imagined, alternative frame of reference is more favorable for the perceiver. The perceiver imagined how things *would, could, and should* have been better and as a result, he/she experiences a feeling of deprivation because his/her favorable imagined alternative frame of reference is not reality. Therefore, I hypothesize that perceived coworker entitlement is negatively related to job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 1. Perceived coworker entitlement is negatively related to job satisfaction.

Organizational citizenship behavior. In addition to affecting attitudinal outcomes including job satisfaction, I argue that perceived coworker entitlement will also negatively impact behavioral outcomes including organizational citizenship behavior. Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), also called extra-role performance, is “individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and in the aggregate promotes the efficient and effective functioning of the organization” (Organ, 1988: 4). Organizational citizenship behaviors are practically important because they “improve organizational efficiency and effectiveness by contributing to resource transformations, innovativeness, and adaptability” (Williams & Anderson, 1991: 601). Conceptual and empirical research suggests that organizational citizenship behavior has two broad categories: organizational citizenship behavior that benefits the organization in general (OCBO) and organizational citizenship behavior that benefits specific individuals and thus indirectly benefits the organization (OCBI; Williams & Anderson, 1991). Examples of OCBO include giving advance notice when unable to come to work and adhering to informal rules to maintain

order. Examples of OCBI include helping others who have been absent and taking a personal interest in other employees.

Organizational citizenship behavior has been previously studied as a consequence of entitlement. Brummel and Parker (2015) found empirical evidence that trait entitlement is positively related to self-reported OCBI. Brummel and Parker (2015) did not study perceived coworker entitlement and thus did not capture the effects on the perceiver. However, Hochwarter et al. (2007) did focus on perceived coworker entitlement and the effect on the perceiver. Hochwarter et al. (2007) found that perceived coworker entitlement is negatively associated with organizational citizenship behavior. The difference in direction between these two studies can be attributed to the target of the organizational citizenship behavior, either the perceiver or the entitled individual. Similar to Hochwarter et al. (2007), I argue that perceived coworker entitlement is negatively associated with organizational citizenship behavior. However, I conceptualize organizational citizenship differently than Hochwarter et al. (2007) did by utilizing Williams and Anderson's (1991) OCBO and OCBI factors of organizational citizenship behavior.

In addition to harming attitudes, an entitled coworker can also harm behaviors. One behavior that an entitled coworker can harm is the perceiver's organizational citizenship behavior. If an employee perceives a coworker as entitled and blames them for the unfavorable conditions he/she has caused, then the employee might lose motivation to conduct extra-role behaviors. Extra-role behaviors are likely to be altered before in-role behaviors (i.e., formal job responsibilities) because they are discretionary behaviors and are not formally required as part of the job. Once an employee who

perceives a coworker as entitled is able to make sense of the situation and imagine how things *would, could, and should* be, he/she is going to be less likely to participate in organizational citizenship behaviors targeted at both individuals and the organization. The perceiver might have been picking up the slack of the entitled coworker at first, but after imagining an alternative way that things could have gone the employee will have a new frame of reference. After counterfactual thinking with this new frame of reference, the employee may decide to stop doing extra things typified as OCBI for this coworker, and perhaps other coworkers too. For example, the perceiver might stop helping coworkers when they have been absent or come in late and no longer take a personal interest in their lives. Similarly, the perceiver might decrease or stop OCBO if they also blame the organization or their manager for allowing entitlement in the workplace. For example, the perceiver might stop giving notice when he/she will be absent and neglect informal rules. Thus, I hypothesize that when an employee perceives coworker entitlement, he/she will decrease organizational citizenship behavior targeted at both individuals and the organization.

Hypothesis 2a. Perceived coworker entitlement is negatively related to OCBI.

Hypothesis 2b. Perceived coworker entitlement is negatively related to OCBO.

Emotional exhaustion. In addition to affecting attitudinal and behavioral outcomes, I propose that perceived coworker entitlement will also harm wellbeing outcomes, including emotional exhaustion. Emotional exhaustion is a component of burnout and defined as “feelings of being emotionally overextended and exhausted by one’s work” (Maslach & Jackson, 1981: 101). Emotional exhaustion has not been directly studied in the entitlement literature; however, a few scholars have studied burnout and

other wellbeing outcomes. Fisk and Neville (2011) studied the effects of entitled patrons on wait staff and found entitled patrons negatively affected the wait staff's wellbeing, including increased burnout. Brouer et al. (2011) hypothesize that trait entitlement is positively associated with stress and Maynard et al. (2015) found empirical evidence that trait entitlement is positively associated with stress. Moreover, both Tomlinson (2013) and O'Leary-Kelly et al. (2017) include wellbeing as outcomes in their conceptual models of entitlement in the workplace. From a perceived entitlement perspective, perceived coworker entitlement is associated with increased job tension (Hochwarter et al., 2007) and depressed mood at work (Hochwarter et al., 2010). Although limited, previous research suggests entitlement has undesirable implications for wellbeing.

From a fairness theory perspective, it is understandable that perceived coworker entitlement can cause harm to the perceiver in the form of emotional exhaustion. If an employee perceives a coworker as entitled, then the perceiver will experience a sense of unfairness. Consequently, the perceiver will make sense of the situation by developing an alternative frame of reference consisting of what *would*, *could*, and *should* have happened to make the situation more favorable for him/her. After counterfactual thinking, the perceiver will attribute accountability and blame to the entitled coworker for the harm he/she experienced. This harm includes emotional exhaustion because the perceiver has had to deal with this entitled coworker and the extra work and stress that he/she has caused him/her. Moreover, if the perceiver has worked with this entitled coworker over time, then the perceiver might feel depleted from the excessive and continuous stress put on him/her by working with this individual. Furthermore, the sense making process that the employee goes through trying to explain the situation can be emotionally exhausting.

Thus, I hypothesize that perceived coworker entitlement is positively related to emotional exhaustion.

Hypothesis 3. Perceived coworker entitlement is positively related to emotional exhaustion.

Organizational Justice

Research that seeks to explain the impact of justice on effective organizational functioning is under the realm of organizational justice research (Greenberg, 1987, 1990). Organizational justice is defined as “people’s perceptions of fairness in organizations” (Greenberg & Colquitt, 2005: xi). In fact, the terms justice and fairness are used interchangeably by most management scholars (including the author of this dissertation). Justice has become an increasingly popular construct in the social sciences (Colquitt, 2001). Organizational justice research developed in four waves (Colquitt, Greenberg, & Zapata-Phelan, 2005). Initially, scholars focused on the justice of decision outcomes, called distributive justice (Adams, 1965; Deutsch, 1975; Leventhal, 1976). Distributive justice stemmed from equity theory (Adams, 1963, 1965) and is fostered when the ratio of outcomes to inputs is equal across persons. In the second wave, scholars focused on the justice of the processes that lead to decision outcomes, called procedural justice (Leventhal, 1980; Leventhal, Karuza, & Fry, 1980; Thibaut & Walker, 1975). Procedural justice is fostered through input during a decision-making process or by adherence to fair process criteria (Leventhal et al., 1980; Thibaut & Walker, 1975). In the third wave, scholars focused on the justice of how people are treated, called interactional justice. Interactional justice is the fairness of the interpersonal treatment people receive as procedures are enacted (Bies & Moag, 1986). Interactional justice is fostered when

decision makers treat those involved with respect and explain the rationale for the decisions made (Colquitt, 2001). Finally, in the fourth wave, scholars developed integrative models and theories to explain organizational justice. Although the developments within each wave are important, organizational justice needs to be investigated in its entirety to provide the best insights (Colquitt et al., 2005). Thus, I consider all aspects of organizational justice in the present research.

Unfortunately, construct discrimination problems plague the field (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001). There are one-factor, two-factor, three-factor, and four-factor models of organizational justice (Colquitt & Shaw, 2005). Some researchers find high correlations between the factors and view organizational justice from a one-factor perspective (Colquitt et al., 2001). Others integrate distributive and procedural justice for support of a two-factor conceptualization of organizational justice (Greenberg, 1990). However, with the introduction of interactional justice, the two-factor model of organizational justice was challenged. Some researchers conceptualize interactional justice as part of procedural justice while others conceptualize it as a third factor of organizational justice (Colquitt, 2001). Furthermore, Colquitt (2001) found support for a four factor model by splitting interactional justice into interpersonal justice and informational justice.

Colquitt (2001) attributes the lack of consensus over the dimensionality of the organizational justice construct to inconsistent and poor measurement. Consequently, Colquitt (2001) investigates the theoretical dimensionality of organizational justice and creates a new justice measure. Using factor analysis, Colquitt (2001) advocates a four-factor model of organizational justice comprised of distributive justice, procedural

justice, interpersonal justice, and informational justice. Colquitt (2001) found empirical support to split interactional justice into the interpersonal and informational dimensions, as Greenberg (1993) suggested. I subscribe to Colquitt's (2001) four factor model of organizational justice, as it has gained the most acceptance in the field and provides an integrative approach that considers all four aspects of organizational justice. Next, I will discuss each dimension in detail and theorize how they might mitigate negative consequences of perceived coworker entitlement.

Distributive justice. Distributive justice is “the fairness of resource distributions, such as pay, rewards, promotions, and the outcome of dispute resolutions” (Colquitt et al., 2005: 5). Outcomes can be tangible (e.g., pay) as well as intangible (e.g., recognition). Inherent in the workplace is the notion that not all employees are treated alike. For instance, some employees get hired for jobs whereas others do not. Moreover, some employees enjoy rapid promotions and higher pay whereas others may never advance and experience lower pay. Because employees are routinely differentiated in the workplace, concerns about fairness are naturally triggered. Thus, it is no surprise that distributive justice was the focus of the first wave of organizational justice research (Colquitt et al., 2005).

The dominant conceptualization of distributive justice is equity (Colquitt et al., 2005) based on Adams' (1963, 1965) equity theory. Equity theory posits that inputs should be proportionate to outcomes across persons (Adams, 1965). Inputs can include “education, intelligence, experience, training, skill, seniority, age, sex, ethnic background, social status, and, of course, the effort he expends on the job” (Adams, 1965: 277). Outcomes can include “pay, rewards intrinsic to the job, satisfying

supervision, seniority benefits, fringe benefits, job status and status symbols, and a variety of formally and informally sanctioned perquisites” (Adams, 1965: 278).

Borrowed from relative deprivation (Stouffer, Suchman, DeVinney, Star, & Williams, 1949), Adams (1965) emphasizes the notion of the comparison other and acknowledges that different frames of reference will result in different fairness judgments. For example, if an employee’s own outcome to input ratio falls below that of their comparison other, then he or she experiences underpayment inequity. In contrast, if an employee’s own outcome to input ratio exceeds that of their comparison other, then he or she experiences overpayment inequity. When inequity is perceived, the individual experiences injustice and seeks to restore balance to the outcome to input ratio comparison (Adams, 1965).

However, the organization and managers can make sure there are no imbalances in input to outcome ratios across employees. Through fairness theory, the perceiver is likely to hold the entitled coworker accountable for harm (e.g., job dissatisfaction, decreased OCBI/O, emotional exhaustion) caused to him/her. However, the organization can take steps to cultivate distributive justice to mitigate this harm. For example, the organization can put fair policies in place and managers can make fair salary and other reward decisions reflective of the effort employees put into their work, appropriate for the work employees complete, reflective of what employees contribute to the organization, and justified for how employees perform. Even if an employee perceives a coworker as entitled, if they perceive distributive justice from the organization, harmful consequences can be lessened because they have faith that outcome decisions will be made in a fair and just manner by the organization. If distributive justice is indeed high, then reality will be more favorable for the perceiver compared to if distributive justice is low. Thus, there

will not be as much of a discrepancy between the perceiver's imagined alternative frame of reference of what *could*, *would*, and *should* have been and what *is* in reality.

Consequently, the perceiver will not experience as much harm. Thus, I argue that distributive justice can mitigate the negative consequences of perceived coworker entitlement. Therefore, I hypothesize that distributive justice modulates the effects of perceived coworker entitlement including job dissatisfaction, OCBI/O, and emotional exhaustion.

Hypothesis 4a. Distributive justice moderates the negative relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and job satisfaction, such that the relationship is weaker for those who perceive high distributive justice.

Hypothesis 4b. Distributive justice moderates the negative relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and OCBI, such that the relationship is weaker for those who perceive high distributive justice.

Hypothesis 4c. Distributive justice moderates the negative relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and OCBO, such that the relationship is weaker for those who perceive high distributive justice.

Hypothesis 4d. Distributive justice moderates the positive relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and emotional exhaustion, such that the relationship is weaker for those who perceive high distributive justice.

Procedural justice. Procedural justice is “the fairness of decision-making procedures that lead to those outcomes, attempting to understand how and why they came about” (Colquitt et al., 2005: 5). Procedural justice evolved in the literature to overcome the criticism of equity theory that it ignores the procedures that result in the dispute

resolution or outcome distribution (Colquitt et al., 2005). Leventhal (1980) identified six rules for fair procedures. First, procedures should be consistent across time and persons to assure that all individuals have an equal opportunity. Second, procedures should be bias suppressed and not be influenced by personal self-interest. Third, procedures should be accurate and based on as much valid information as possible. Fourth, procedures should be correctable so there is an opportunity to modify and reverse decisions by allowing for appeals. Fifth, procedures should be representative and reflect the individuals impacted by the procedures. Sixth, procedures should be ethical and moral.

Similar to distributive justice, an organization can mitigate negative consequences of perceived coworker entitlement by cultivating a procedurally just workplace. For example, the organization can develop strong policies and procedures that abide by the six guidelines outlined by Leventhal (1980): consistent across time and persons, bias suppressed, accurate, correctable, representative, and ethical. Moreover, managers can support these policies and procedures and assure that the six guidelines are upheld. For example, managers must apply policies and procedures fairly for all employees, including entitled employees. Also, managers must make sure that employees are able to express their views and feelings and be able to appeal outcomes arrived at by the procedures set in place. If an organization is procedurally just, then an employee who perceives a coworker as entitled is less likely to experience harm because they know that the organization has fair policies and procedures and that their manager will follow them in a fair way with all employees, entitled or not. If procedural justice is indeed high, then reality will be more favorable for the perceiver compared to if procedural justice is low. Thus, there will not be as much of a discrepancy between the perceiver's imagined

alternative frame of reference of what *could*, *would*, and *should* have been and what *is* in reality. Consequently, the perceiver will not experience as much harm. Therefore, I hypothesize that procedural justice modulates the effects of perceived coworker entitlement including job dissatisfaction, OCBI/O, and emotional exhaustion.

Hypothesis 5a. Procedural justice moderates the negative relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and job satisfaction, such that the relationship is weaker for those who perceive high procedural justice.

Hypothesis 5b. Procedural justice moderates the negative relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and OCBI, such that the relationship is weaker for those who perceive high procedural justice.

Hypothesis 5c. Procedural justice moderates the negative relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and OCBO, such that the relationship is weaker for those who perceive high procedural justice.

Hypothesis 5d. Procedural justice moderates the positive relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and emotional exhaustion, such that the relationship is weaker for those who perceive high procedural justice.

Interactional justice. Interactional justice emerged in the literature to overcome distributive and procedural justices' neglect of interpersonal factors (Colquitt et al., 2005). Bies and Moag (1986) distinguish interactional justice from procedural justice and define interactional justice as "concerns about the fairness of interpersonal communication" (p. 44). Interactional justice emphasizes that individuals are "sensitive to the quality of interpersonal treatment they receive during the enactment of organizational procedures" (Bies & Moag, 1986: 44). Bies and Moag (1986) developed four rules

governing the fairness of interactional justice. First, individuals should be truthful in their communication. Second, individuals should provide an adequate justification for the outcomes of a decision-making process. Third, individuals should treat individuals with respect. Fourth, individuals should exhibit propriety, meaning they should communicate in an appropriate and proper manner. Greenberg (1993) first suggested that interactional justice should be separated into two distinct dimensions: interpersonal justice and informational justice. Colquitt (2001) found support for separating interactional justice this way using confirmatory factor analysis.

Interpersonal justice. Interpersonal justice is one component of interactional justice and captures Bies and Moag's (1986) respect and propriety rules. Similar to distributive and procedural justice, the organization and managers can cultivate interpersonal justice by valuing respect and propriety. For example, managers can treat employees in a polite manner, with dignity and respect, and refrain from improper remarks or comments. When interpersonal justice is strong, employees who perceive a coworker as highly entitled are less likely to experience harm because they know that their manager will make sure the workplace is a respectful place. Thus, the entitled coworker will likely not get away with treating others with disrespect. Moreover, the manager is likely to listen to employee concerns regarding entitlement and respect them enough to take proper steps to alleviate harm caused as a result of the entitlement. If interpersonal justice is indeed high, then reality will be more favorable for the perceiver compared to if interpersonal justice is low. Thus, there will not be as much of a discrepancy between the perceiver's imagined alternative frame of reference of what *could*, *would*, and *should* have been and what *is* in reality. Consequently, the perceiver

will not experience as much harm. Therefore, I hypothesize that interpersonal justice lessens the effects of perceived coworker entitlement including job dissatisfaction, OCBI/O, and emotional exhaustion.

Hypothesis 6a. Interpersonal justice moderates the negative relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and job satisfaction, such that the relationship is weaker for those who perceive high interpersonal justice.

Hypothesis 6b. Interpersonal justice moderates the negative relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and OCBI, such that the relationship is weaker for those who perceive high interpersonal justice.

Hypothesis 6c. Interpersonal justice moderates the negative relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and OCBO, such that the relationship is weaker for those who perceive high interpersonal justice.

Hypothesis 6d. Interpersonal justice moderates the positive relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and emotional exhaustion, such that the relationship is weaker for those who perceive high interpersonal justice.

Informational justice. Informational justice is the other component of interactional justice and captures Bies and Moag's (1986) truthfulness and justification rules. Similar to distributive, procedural, and interpersonal justice, I argue that informational justice can mitigate harmful effects of perceived coworker entitlement. It is not only important for organizations to have fair policies and procedures in place, they must also communicate them in a fair manner. For example, managers can be candid in their communication, explain procedures thoroughly, reasonably explain procedures, communicate details in a timely manner, and tailor their communications to employees'

specific needs. When informational justice is strong, employees who perceive a coworker as highly entitled are less likely to experience harm because they know that their manager will act in a truthful and justified manner. Thus, the entitled coworker will likely not get away with acting in untruthful and unjustified ways. Moreover, the manager is likely to communicate expectations in clear and effective ways to stop or prevent entitlement behavior. If informational justice is indeed high, then reality will be more favorable for the perceiver compared to if informational justice is low. Thus, there will not be as much of a discrepancy between the perceiver's imagined alternative frame of reference of what *could*, *would*, and *should* have been and what *is* in reality. Consequently, the perceiver will not experience as much harm. Therefore, I hypothesize that informational justice modulates the effects of perceived coworker entitlement including job dissatisfaction, OCBI/O, and emotional exhaustion.

Hypothesis 7a. Informational justice moderates the negative relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and job satisfaction, such that the relationship is weaker for those who perceive high informational justice.

Hypothesis 7b. Interpersonal justice moderates the negative relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and OCBI, such that the relationship is weaker for those who perceive high informational justice.

Hypothesis 7c. Interpersonal justice moderates the negative relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and OCBO, such that the relationship is weaker for those who perceive high informational justice.

Hypothesis 7d. Interpersonal justice moderates the positive relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and emotional exhaustion, such that the relationship is weaker for those who perceive high informational justice.

METHOD

Participants and Procedures

The present research is part of a multi-study project and part of this data will be used in other studies. After receiving IRB approval (see Appendices A and B), data was collected using an online survey software system (Qualtrics®) during the fall and winter of 2017-2018. A link to the employee survey was distributed to alumni of a training program for a large financial company on the east coast of the United States through social media. Because respondents were targeted via social media, an actual response rate cannot be calculated. However, of the 256 employees who took the survey, 56 of them did not complete the survey or did not consent to participate in this study. At the end of the employee survey was a place for the participants to enter their manager's e-mail address. The online software system automatically generated an e-mail to the manager with a link to the manager survey. The online software system created a unique identifying code to match up the employee and manager survey responses. Of the 256 completed employee surveys, 39 managers took the manager survey, resulting in a response rate of 15.23%. After accounting for incomplete surveys and participants who did not consent, the final sample includes 200 employees and 30 managers. Participation was voluntary and anonymous. Employees average 31.46 years of age, 3.80 years of organization tenure, 90% have a 4-year college degree or higher, and 49.5% are male (49.0% are female). Managers average 43.47 years of age, 8.13 years of organization

tenure, 76.7% have a 4-year college degree or higher, and 50.0% are male (50.0% are female).

Measures

Perceived coworker entitlement. Perceived coworker entitlement ($\alpha = .89$) was measured using Hochwarter et al.'s (2007) six-item perceived entitlement scale by employees rating each item on a five-point scale anchored by 1: Strongly disagree and 5: Strongly agree.

Distributive justice. Distributive justice ($\alpha = .92$) was measured using the 4-item distributive justice subscale of Colquitt's (2001) organizational justice scale by employees rating each item on a five-point scale anchored by 1: To a small extent and 5: To a large extent.

Procedural justice. Procedural justice ($\alpha = .88$) was measured using the 7-item procedural justice subscale of Colquitt's (2001) organizational justice scale by employees rating each item on a five-point scale anchored by 1: To a small extent and 5: To a large extent.

Interpersonal justice. Interpersonal justice ($\alpha = .93$) was measured using the 4-item interpersonal justice subscale of Colquitt's (2001) organizational justice scale by employees rating each item on a five-point scale anchored by 1: To a small extent and 5: To a large extent.

Informational justice. Informational justice ($\alpha = .91$) was measured using the 5-item informational justice subscale of Colquitt's (2001) organizational justice scale by employees rating each item on a five-point scale anchored by 1: To a small extent and 5: To a large extent.

Job satisfaction. Job satisfaction ($\alpha = .91$) was measured using Hackman & Oldham's (1976) three-item job satisfaction scale by employees rating each item on a five-point scale anchored by 1: Strongly disagree to 5: Strongly agree.

Organizational citizenship behavior (OCBI/O). OCBI (employee-rated $\alpha = .88$, manager-rated $\alpha = .87$) and OCBO (employee-rated $\alpha = .72$, manager-rated $\alpha = .74$) were measured using the 14-item organizational citizenship behavior subscale of Williams and Anderson's (1991) job performance scale by both employees and managers rating each item on a seven-point scale anchored by 1: Strongly disagree to 7: Strongly agree.

Emotional exhaustion. Emotional exhaustion ($\alpha = .90$) was measured using the five-item exhaustion subscale of the Maslach Burnout Inventory General Scale (MBI-GS; Schaufeli, 1996) by employees rating each item on a seven-point scale anchored by 1: Strongly disagree to 7: Strongly agree.

Control variables. Control variables include employee age, organizational tenure, and social desirability. Social desirability ($\alpha = .71$) was measured using Hays, Hayashi, and Stewart's (1989) five-item social desirability scale by employees rating each item on a five-point scale anchored by 1: Definitely false to 5: Definitely true.

Data Analysis

Regression analysis was used to test the research hypotheses using SPSS Version 24.0. Indeed, structural equation modeling (SEM) is a more robust data analysis method compared to regression analysis; however, the sample size in terms of ratio cases to the number of model parameters made this an unviable option. The ratio of cases to the number of model parameters in this study is 200:55. Kline (2011) recommends a minimum ratio of 5:1, while others recommend an even stronger ratio (e.g., Hu &

Bentler, 1999). A small ratio, such as in this study, leads to low statistical power when using structural equation modeling. Therefore, I used SPSS for the data analysis.

RESULTS

The purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and job satisfaction, OCBI, OCBO, and emotional exhaustion. I have hypothesized that the four dimensions of organizational justice moderate these relationships. In the following, I present the descriptive statistics, the results of the hypotheses tests, and the results of additional analyses. I conclude by providing an overall summary of the statistical findings.

Descriptives

I began with exploratory R-type factor analysis (EFA) to evaluate the dimensionality of the scales (Schriesheim, Coglisier, Scandura, Lankau, & Powers, 1999). I used principal axis factoring and constrained the measures to one factor to analyze factor structures. All measures factored to a single factor satisfactorily with high factor loadings ($>.4$) except for employee-rated OCBO, manager-rated OCBO, and social desirability. Two items in the employee-rated OCBO measure (i.e., I take undeserved work breaks, factor loading = .386; I complain about insignificant things at work, factor loading = .374), one item in the manager-rated OCBO measure (i.e., He/she gives advance notice when unable to come to work, factor loading = .145), and one item in the social desirability measure (i.e., No matter who I'm talking to, I'm always a good listener, factor loading = .349) were problematic with factor loadings less than .4. However, all of the measures used in this study are established measures and there is no theoretical justification for removing the problematic items. Because I do not know what

the poor loadings are due to, I did not eliminate these problematic items based on this single sample because that could capitalize on chance and possibly affect the content validity of the measures and bias the results. Therefore, I retained all items to compute the measure scores used in the subsequent analysis.

Next, I computed mean measure scores and reliabilities of the measures. All measures achieved a Cronbach's alpha of greater than .70. Then I ran descriptive statistics for the data. The sample size is 200 employee responses and 30 manager responses. Means, standard deviations, correlations, and reliabilities of the measures and control variables are reported in Table 14. Correlations between constructs are less than 0.70, except for interpersonal justice and informational justice ($r = .72$). This high correlation is expected as they are both conceptualized as part of interactional justice (Colquitt, 2001). For control variables, social desirability is positively correlated with distributive justice, procedural justice, informational justice, OCBI, and OCBO, and negatively correlated with emotional exhaustion. Age is positively correlated with OCBI, OCBO, and organizational tenure. Organizational tenure is positively correlated with OCBI, OCBO, and age. All variables of interest are significantly correlated with other variables at $p < .05$ or better.

Insert Table 14 about here

Hypotheses Tests

Next, I used multiple regression analysis to test the hypotheses. Multiple regression analysis is a statistical technique used to analyze the relationship between a

single dependent variable and several independent variables (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1995). The objective of multiple regression analysis is to use independent variables whose values are known to predict a dependent variable (Hair et al., 1995). In this study, several regression models were run to predict the dependent variables of interest: job satisfaction, OCBI, OCBO, and emotional exhaustion. Table 15 summarizes the regression models used to predict job satisfaction (Hypotheses 1, 4a, 5a, 6a, and 7a); Table 16 summarizes the regression models used to predict OCBI (Hypotheses 2a, 4b, 5b, 6b, and 7b); Table 17 summarizes the regression models used to predict OCBO (Hypotheses 2b, 4c, 5c, 6c, and 7c); and Table 18 summarizes the regression models used to predict emotional exhaustion (Hypotheses 3, 4d, 5d, 6d, and 7d). The first model in each of the tables (Models 1, 21, 31, and 41) shows the results of the model with only the control variables. These results show that age is significant in predicting job satisfaction ($\beta = 0.02, p < .05$) and emotional exhaustion ($\beta = -0.04, p < .05$); organization tenure is significant in predicting OCBO ($\beta = 0.03, p < .05$); and social desirability is significant in predicting OCBI ($\beta = 0.37, p < .01$), OCBO ($\beta = 0.33, p < .01$), and emotional exhaustion ($\beta = -0.40, p < .01$). Age, organizational tenure, and social desirability were included as controls across all models.

 Insert Tables 15-18 about here

There are four main assumptions in multiple regression that the individual variables must meet: (1) normality, (2) linearity, (3) homoscedasticity, and (4) independence of error terms (Hair et al., 1995). Normality of the error term distributions

was confirmed by histogram plots of residuals. The linearity of the phenomenon was confirmed using residual plots. The constant variance of the error terms, or homoscedasticity, were also confirmed using residual plots, specifically by plotting residuals against the predicted dependent variable values. Finally, the independence of the error terms was confirmed by plotting the residuals against a sequencing variable. In addition to checking the four main assumptions of multiple regression, I also looked for influential observations, or outliers, when examining these plots and checked for issues with multicollinearity using variance inflation factor (VIF) and tolerance scores. Using a suggested cutoff from Hair et al. (1995), I confirmed that all tolerance scores were below .10 and all VIF scores were above .10. There were no issues of outliers or multicollinearity.

Once the assumptions were met, I proceeded to test the hypotheses. The first set of hypotheses (Hypotheses 1-3) suggests that perceived coworker entitlement is related to job satisfaction, OCBI, OCBO, and emotional exhaustion. To test these hypotheses, I used hierarchical multiple regression. I included perceived coworker entitlement into the regression analysis following the control variables. Hypothesis 1 suggests that perceived coworker entitlement is negatively related to job satisfaction. The results of this hypothesis test are shown in Model 2, Table 15. The perceived coworker entitlement term is not significant ($\beta = 0.01, p = .92$). Thus, Hypothesis 1 is not supported. Hypothesis 2a suggests that perceived coworker entitlement is negatively related to OCBI. The results of this hypothesis test are shown in Model 12, Table 16. The perceived coworker entitlement term is significant ($\beta = 0.23, p < .01$). Thus, Hypothesis 2a is supported. Hypothesis 2b suggests that perceived coworker entitlement is negatively related to

OCBO. The results of this hypothesis test are shown in Model 22, Table 17. The perceived coworker entitlement term is significant ($\beta = 0.14, p < .05$). Thus, Hypothesis 2b is supported. Hypothesis 3 suggests that perceived coworker entitlement is positively related to emotional exhaustion. The results of this hypothesis test are shown in Model 32, Table 18. The perceived coworker entitlement term is not significant ($\beta = 0.20, p = .11$). Thus, Hypothesis 3 is not supported.

The next set of hypotheses (Hypotheses 4-7) suggest distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational justice moderate the relationships between perceived coworker entitlement and job satisfaction, OCBI, OCBO, and emotional exhaustion. To test these hypotheses, I used hierarchical multiple regressions. In the first step, the control variables were included: age, tenure, social desirability. Next, the two variables used in the interaction term were included for each model. Third, the interaction term was included for each model. To avoid potentially problematic high multicollinearity with the previous two variables added, the two variables making up the interaction term were mean centered before computing the interaction term (Aiken & West, 1991; Dawson, 2014). Additionally, simple slope plots are reported for significant moderation effects to illustrate the effect. Benchmarks of one standard deviation above and below the mean were used in these plots, a benchmark which is commonly used in the management literature (Dawson, 2014).

Hypothesis 4 suggests that distributive justice moderates the negative relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and (a) job satisfaction, (b) OCBI, and (c) OCBO, and the positive relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and (d) emotional exhaustion, such that the relationship is weaker for those who perceive high

distributive justice. The results are shown in (a) Model 4, Table 15; (b) Model 14, Table 16; (c) Model 24, Table 17; and (d) Model 34, Table 18, respectively. The perceived coworker entitlement and distributive justice interaction term is not significant ($\beta = -0.08$, $p = .28$) for (a) job satisfaction; is not significant ($\beta = -0.02$, $p = .82$) for (b) OCBI; is not significant ($\beta = 0.04$, $p = .56$) for (c) OCBO; and is significant ($\beta = 0.37$, $p < .01$) for (d) emotional exhaustion. Thus, Hypothesis 4 is partially supported and the plot for Hypothesis 4d is presented in Figure 7. Figure 7 shows an enhancing effect that as perceived coworker entitlement increases and perceptions of distributive justice decrease, emotional exhaustion increases.

 Insert Figure 7 about here

Hypothesis 5 suggests that procedural justice moderates the negative relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and (a) job satisfaction, (b) OCBI, and (c) OCBO, and the positive relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and (d) emotional exhaustion, such that the relationship is weaker for those who perceive high procedural justice. The results are shown in (a) Model 6, Table 15; (b) Model 16, Table 16; (c) Model 26, Table 17; and (d) Model 36, Table 18, respectively. The perceived coworker entitlement and procedural justice interaction term is not significant ($\beta = -0.10$, $p = .23$) for (a) job satisfaction; is not significant ($\beta = -0.09$, $p = .34$) for (b) OCBI; is not significant ($\beta = -0.02$, $p = .83$) for (c) OCBO; and is not significant ($\beta = 0.20$, $p = .15$) for (d) emotional exhaustion. Thus, Hypothesis 5 is not supported.

Hypothesis 6 suggests that interpersonal justice moderates the negative relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and (a) job satisfaction, (b) OCBI, and (c) OCBO, and the positive relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and (d) emotional exhaustion, such that the relationship is weaker for those who perceive high interpersonal justice. The results are shown in (a) Model 8, Table 15; (b) Model 18, Table 16; (c) Model 28, Table 17; and (d) Model 38, Table 18, respectively. The perceived coworker entitlement and interpersonal justice interaction term is significant ($\beta = -0.18, p < .05$) for (a) job satisfaction; is not significant ($\beta = -0.06, p = .55$) for (b) OCBI; is not significant ($\beta = -0.11, p = .18$) for (c) OCBO; and is marginally significant ($\beta = 0.29, p = .06$) for (d) emotional exhaustion. Thus, Hypothesis 6 is partially supported. The plots for Hypothesis 6a and Hypothesis 6d are presented in Figures 8 and 9, respectively. Figure 8 shows an enhancing effect that as perceived coworker entitlement increases and perceptions of interpersonal justice decrease, job satisfaction decreases. Figure 9 shows an enhancing effect that as perceived coworker entitlement increases and perceptions of justice interpersonal justice decrease, emotional exhaustion increases.

 Insert Figures 8 and 9 about here

Hypothesis 7 suggests that informational justice moderates the negative relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and (a) job satisfaction, (b) OCBI, and (c) OCBO, and the positive relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and (d) emotional exhaustion, such that the relationship is weaker for those who perceive high informational justice. The results are shown in (a) Model 10, Table 15; (b) Model 20,

Table 16; (c) Model 30, Table 17; and (d) Model 40, Table 18, respectively. The perceived coworker entitlement and informational justice interaction term is not significant ($\beta = -0.08, p = .31$) for (a) job satisfaction; is not significant ($\beta = 0.05, p = .59$) for (b) OCBI; is not significant ($\beta = -0.07, p = .35$) for (c) OCBO; and is significant ($\beta = 0.30, p < .05$) for (d) emotional exhaustion. Thus, Hypothesis 7 is partially supported and the plot for Hypothesis 7d is presented in Figure 10. Figure 10 shows an enhancing effect that as perceived coworker entitlement increases and perceptions of informational justice decrease, emotional exhaustion increases.

Insert Figure 10 about here

In summary, perceived coworker entitlement is negatively related to OCBI and OCBO; distributive justice moderates the relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and emotional exhaustion; interpersonal justice moderates the relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and job satisfaction and emotional exhaustion; and informational justice moderates the relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and emotional exhaustion. Thus, Hypothesis 2 is supported; Hypotheses 4, 6, and 7 are partially supported; and Hypotheses 1, 3, and 5 are not supported. Table 19 presents a summary of the hypothesis tests.

Insert Table 19 about here

Additional Analysis

Next, I ran a supplemental analysis including manager data for OCBI and OCBO outcomes, in an attempt to overcome common method bias. However, due to a small sample size of 30, this analysis has weak statistical power and should be interpreted with caution. The analysis was conducted the same way as the main analysis, using hierarchical multiple regression. Only Hypotheses 2a, 2b, 4b, 4c, 5b, 5c, 6b, 6c, 7b, and 7c involved manager-rated OCBI or manager-rated OCBO as the dependent variable. Table 20 shows the model results for manager-rated OCBI and Table 21 shows the model results for manager-rated OCBO. Using manager-rated OCBI and OCBO data, perceived coworker entitlement is not significantly related to OCBI ($\beta = -0.11, p = .69$) or OCBO ($\beta = -0.15, p = .43$); distributive justice is not a significant moderator for OCBI ($\beta = -0.18, p = .52$) or OCBO ($\beta = -0.31, p = .09$); procedural justice is not a significant moderator for OCBI ($\beta = -0.45, p = .21$) or OCBO ($\beta = -0.24, p = .31$); interpersonal justice is not a significant moderator for OCBI ($\beta = 0.23, p = .51$) but is significant for OCBO ($\beta = -0.69, p < .01$); and informational justice is not a significant moderator for OCBI ($\beta = 0.05, p = .89$) but is significant for OCBO ($\beta = -0.50, p < .05$). Thus, this supplemental analysis only supports Hypotheses 6c and 7c. Plots illustrating the significant moderation effects of Hypothesis 6c and Hypothesis 7c are presented in Figures 11 and 12, respectively. Interestingly, the main analysis using single source employee only data did not find support for Hypotheses 6c and 7c and found support for other hypotheses. Therefore, it is possible that the variables tested in this study may have different relationships utilizing multi-source data of a sample size with more power.

Insert Tables 20 & 21 and Figures 11 & 12 about here

DISCUSSION

This study examines the relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and the attitudinal outcome job satisfaction, the behavioral outcomes OCBI and OCBO, and the wellbeing outcome emotional exhaustion; and the moderating effects of distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational justice. In summary, I found a significant negative relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and OCBI and OCBO. Additionally, I found that distributive justice significantly moderates the relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and emotional exhaustion; interpersonal justice significantly moderates the relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and job satisfaction and emotional exhaustion; and informational justice significantly moderates the relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and emotional exhaustion. In the following, I will discuss contributions to research, implications for practice, strengths and limitations of this study, and directions for future research.

Contributions to Research

This is one of the few studies to conceptualize entitlement from the state perspective and to consider how entitled employees affect their coworkers in the workplace. This study built upon Hochwarter and colleagues (2007, 2010) work of examining perceived coworker entitlement. I considered new variables in entitlement's nomological network, specifically Colquitt's (2001) four factors of organizational justice: distributive justice, procedural justice, interpersonal justice, and informational justice.

This study was the first to shed light on how organizations and managers can mitigate negative consequences associated with perceived coworker entitlement by cultivating a culture of fairness and justice through strong organizational justice practices.

Specifically, I found empirical support that strong distributive justice can reduce the emotional exhaustion that an employee feels as a result of entitled coworkers; strong interpersonal justice can reduce the job dissatisfaction and emotional exhaustion that an employee feels as a result of entitled coworkers, and strong informational justice can reduce the emotional exhaustion an employee feels as a result of entitled coworkers. For controls, I found that age is significant in predicting job satisfaction and emotional exhaustion; organizational tenure is significant in predicting OCBO; and social desirability is significant in predicting OCBI, OCBO, and emotional exhaustion. Older workers are more satisfied with their jobs and experience less emotional exhaustion, perhaps due to maturity or more experience with dealing with these feelings.

Furthermore, it makes sense that organizational tenure is significant in predicting OCBO. If an employee chooses to stay with a company for a long period of time, they most likely enjoy working there and are loyal to their organization. Thus, it is reasonable that these employees are more willing to go out of their way to perform extra duties for their organization. Finally, individuals who rate higher in social desirability are more likely to evaluate themselves higher in both OCBI/O and lower in emotional exhaustion due to being more conscious of what they think is desirable or expected. In the supplemental analysis, I also found initial support that strong interpersonal justice and strong informational justice can help mitigate the decreased OCBO that an employee displays as a result of perceiving his/her coworkers as entitled. Thus, it is likely that employees who

perceive their coworkers as entitled experience negative attitudinal, behavioral, and wellbeing consequences, just as entitled individuals. Perhaps more importantly, organizations and managers can make a positive difference by lessening these undesirable effects by cultivating strong organizational justice in the workplace.

Implications for Practice

This study provides important insight to practice. It is important for managers to realize that entitlement is not only a problem for entitled individuals, but also for those around them, including their coworkers. This study found evidence that entitled employees can negatively affect their coworkers' attitudes, behaviors, and wellbeings. It is in the best interest of organizations to best manage these entitled individuals to lessen the negative effects they have on not only themselves but also those around them. This study indicates that one way managers can do this is by cultivating a strong culture of organizational justice. If employees feel that they work for a fair organization with strong distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational justice, then they are less likely to be negatively affected by their entitled coworkers. As a result, they will be better and more productive employees for their organization.

Strengths and Limitations

Strengths of this study include utilizing well-established measures and collecting data from a group of working professionals. Additionally, new variables were considered, and new relationships were supported from the promising state entitlement perspective. However, there are several limitations of this research. First, the data collected was cross-sectional and included primarily self-reported data, with the exception of a small sample of manager-rated OCBI and OCBO. Due to a low manager response rate, this study is

subject to common method bias (Spector, 2006). As evident by the additional analysis utilizing the manager-rated OCBI and OCBO data, the results were statistically different. Although I attempted to control for common method bias by collecting manager data and measuring social desirability, there is still a difference between the results of the single source data and the limited multi-source data. Moreover, the cross-sectional nature of the data limits the ability to interpret causality and thus this study only examines relationships between the constructs of interest. Second, this study did not have a sufficient sample size to conduct the analysis using structural equation modeling. Structural equation modeling is a more robust method compared to multiple regression because it can test the structural model and measurement model simultaneously, and would have been a preferable method in this study (Kline, 2011). Third, the majority of respondents are young professionals. Thus, it is not possible to determine whether entitlement perceptions vary across generations as some research indicates (e.g., Twenge, 2006). Similarly, this sample was a US-based sample, which does not consider cultural differences that may arise in entitlement perceptions.

Directions for Future Research

The findings of this study, as well as its shortcomings, provide several directions for future research. The first avenue for future research consists of examining more relationships between perceived entitlement and various other attitudinal, behavioral, and wellbeing variables. For example, emotional exhaustion could be expanded upon and the study of burnout might have some interesting implications. Second, effects of entitled individuals in the workplace should be investigated from more perspectives than just coworkers. For example, future research should explore how entitled individuals affect

their managers and subordinates as well. Third, future research should consider the implications of in-groups and out-groups. For example, if there is a group or demographic receiving unwarranted preferential treatment (e.g., newer employees who are benefiting from improved work-life policies, senior employees who have a more generous pension plan, or union members who are difficult to discipline), then the presence of entitlements might be stronger. Furthermore, entitlement perceptions will be different depending on whether the perceiver is a part of the in-group or is in the out-group. If the perceiver is part of the in-group and is directly benefiting from this preferential treatment, then they are not likely to feel a sense of injustice. Alternatively, if the perceiver is part of the out-group then they are much more likely to feel a sense of injustice and this injustice could even be amplified due to a more unified group of entitled versus individual entitlements. Fourth, the study of generational effects could yield interesting insights. If indeed Millennials are the most entitled generation yet (Hoyle, 2017), then Millennial entitlement should be the focus of some future studies, especially as Millennials are now the largest generation in the workforce (Fry, 2015; 2016). Furthermore, it would be useful to understand how different generations perceive Millennial entitlement as it is beneficial for organizations for its employees of all generations to work well together. At the same time, researchers must take care to disentangle generational and age effects. Fifth, other ways that organizations and managers can lessen negative effects of entitlement should be explored. This study provides initial evidence that organizations and managers can indeed mitigate undesirable consequences of workplace entitlement and future research should build upon this. For example, perhaps different leadership styles and leader-member exchange (LMX) can

decrease the effects of entitlement in the workplace. Finally, future research should strive to collect multi-source data to overcome common method bias and disentangle conflicting results in the entitlement literature.

CONCLUSION

This study provides initial evidence that individuals who are perceived as entitled by their coworkers have a negative effect on those around them. Specifically, they can negatively impact the attitudes, behaviors, and wellbeings of those around them including job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, and emotional exhaustion. The vast majority of past entitlement research has only focused on the negative effects that entitled employees experience as a result of their own entitlement. However, it is clear that entitled individuals affect those around them and these consequences must be considered so that entitled employees can be managed the best way possible for all of those involved. This study proposes that managers can cultivate a culture of fairness via strong organizational justice to help support employees, so their perceptions of their coworkers' entitlement do not affect them as much as if they felt their workplace was unfair. I hope that this paper sparks additional research for ways that organizations and managers can mitigate the negative effects that employees experience as the result of working with entitled individuals.

V. CONCLUSION

This dissertation is a three-paper dissertation including a review and two empirical studies. The overarching goal of this dissertation is to offer an understanding of: (a) existing entitlement in the workplace research, (b) how the perceiver can mitigate negative consequences of perceived coworker entitlement, and (c) how the organization can mitigate negative consequences of perceived coworker entitlement. Next, I will summarize and synthesize the three in this dissertation.

Chapter 2 Overview

Chapter 2 is the first paper of this dissertation. This paper attempts to fill a critical gap in the management literature by providing an all-encompassing review of entitlement research. I acknowledge the apparent prevalence of entitlement in organizations today and that there is insufficient research that has been done. Although other scholars have offered entitlement reviews (Naumann, Minsky, & Sturman, 2002a, 2002b; Jordan, Ramsay, & Westerlaken, 2017; O’Leary-Kelly, Rosen, & Hochwarter, 2017), they are each deficient and lacking in some compacity. Building upon these reviews, I provide an in-depth review of entitlement’s historical roots, definitions and conceptualizations, measures, and theoretical frameworks. Additionally, I offer a new conceptualization of entitlement called state entitlement. State entitlement contrasts the traditional and prevalent trait conceptualization and offers promise in organizational research. Furthermore, my review includes a systematic review of empirical findings of

entitlement. Finally, I offer a fruitful agenda for future entitlement research, which sparks the two studies.

Chapter 3 Overview

Chapter 3 is the first of two studies in this dissertation. This study attempts to fill the gap in the literature on perceiver individual differences. If perceived coworker entitlement from the state perspective is indeed a promising direction for future research, then the perceiver's individual differences are important to consider because they influence how he/she sees the world (including how he/she views his/her coworkers). For instance, it is possible that two people may view a coworker in different ways. One person might view a particular coworker as highly entitled and the other person might not. Moreover, even if both individuals perceive this coworker as highly entitled, they may not react the same way to their perceptions. Therefore, perceptions of coworker entitlement might affect people differently. Therefore, it is important to understand what individual differences matter in entitlement perceptions and what their consequences are. This study investigates four important individual difference variables: core self-evaluations (i.e., self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, neuroticism, and locus of control), positive affect, negative affect, and equity sensitivity. Using equity theory and referent cognitions theory, I hypothesized that perceiving coworker entitlement can cause psychological distress which in turn motivates an individual to relieve this distress by one or more of the following ways: decrease in-role behavior, OCBI, OCBO, and pay satisfaction, and increase CWBI and CWBO. I further hypothesize that high core self-evaluations, high positive affect, low negative affect, and low equity sensitivity can moderate these relationships such that they lessen the undesirable effects on the

perceiver. Using a sample of 200 working adults, I found empirical evidence that core self-evaluations and equity sensitivity are significant moderators in the relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and psychological distress. However, mediation and moderated mediation hypotheses were not supported. While most hypotheses were not supported, this study still provides initial evidence that individual differences matter in entitlement perceptions and that this is a worthwhile line of inquiry for more future research.

Chapter 4 Overview

Chapter 4 is the second of the two empirical studies in this dissertation. This study attempts to progress entitlement research by considering new variables in entitlement's nomological network, specifically Colquitt's (2001) four factors of organizational justice: distributive justice, procedural justice, interpersonal justice, and informational justice. While the first study provides insight into how individuals can mitigate negative consequences associated with perceiving coworker entitlement, this study provides insight into how organizations and managers can mitigate negative consequences associated with perceiving coworker entitlement. Using fairness theory, this study goes beyond other entitlement studies that focus only on the distributive aspect of justice. I hypothesize that perceived coworker entitlement affects attitudinal, behavioral, and wellbeing outcomes. Specifically, I posit that perceived coworker entitlement is negatively related to job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior and positively related to emotional exhaustion. Additionally, I hypothesize that the four dimensions of organizational justice moderate these relationships, such that the four factors of organizational justice will lessen undesirable consequences. Like Chapter 3, the

hypotheses are empirically tested using the same sample of 200 working professionals. I found that perceived coworker entitlement is negatively related to organizational citizenship behavior; distributive justice moderates the relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and emotional exhaustion; interpersonal justice moderates the relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and job satisfaction and emotional exhaustion; and informational justice moderates the relationship between perceived coworker entitlement and emotional exhaustion. Thus, I found initial evidence that organizations can make a difference when it comes to entitlement in the workplace. Specifically, managers can cultivate a work environment of fairness through strong organizational justice practices.

Dissertation Conclusion

These three papers attempt to advance research on entitlement in the workplace. Chapter 2 provides a much-needed review of entitlement research to organize existing research and offers promising directions for future research. Acting on Chapter 2's recommendations for future research, two studies are carried out in Chapters 3 and 4. Both studies move beyond the traditional and limiting trait perspective and take the promising state-based perspective of entitlement with a focus on how highly entitled individuals can negatively affect others. Chapter 3 empirically investigates how individuals can mitigate these negative consequences and Chapter 4 empirically investigates how the organization can mitigate these negative consequences. These two studies provide initial empirical evidence that entitlement indeed impacts others in the workplace and not only the entitled individuals and that there are things that can lessen these undesirable effects. I hope that this dissertation sparks additional research into

entitlement in the workplace, particularly how entitled individuals affect those around them and how this can best be managed for all involved.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: FIGURES

Figure 1

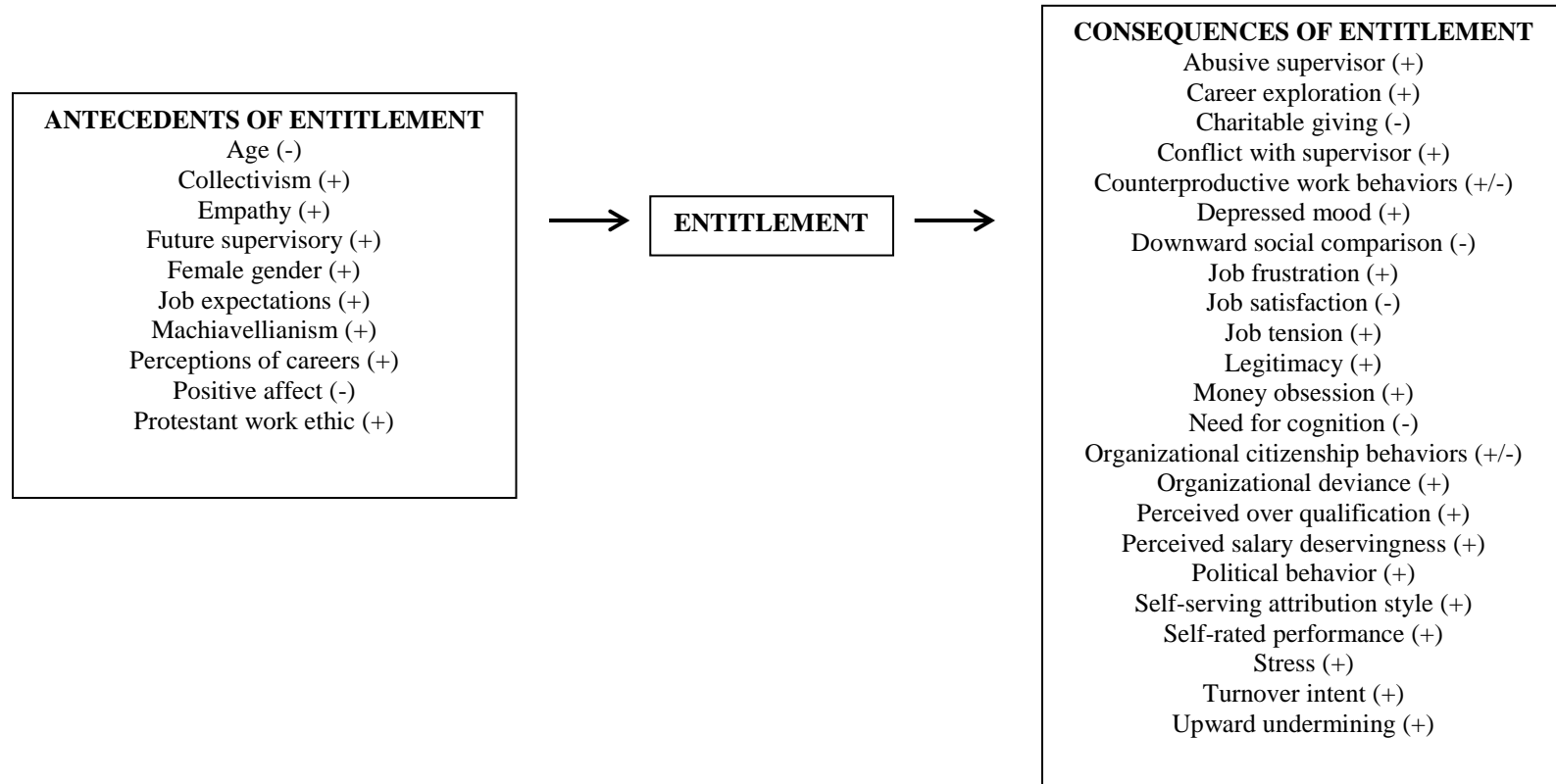


Figure 1. Empirically Significant Antecedents and Consequences of Entitlement

Figure 2

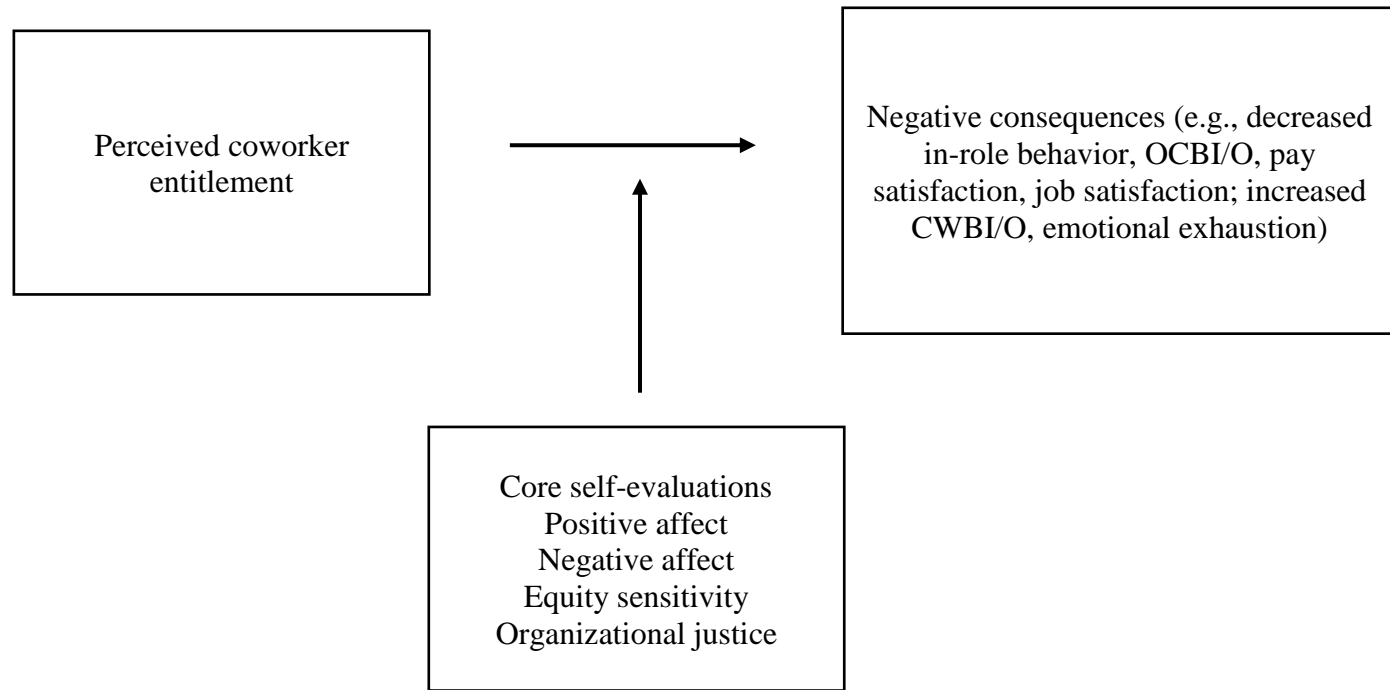


Figure 2. Chapter 2 Model

Figure 3

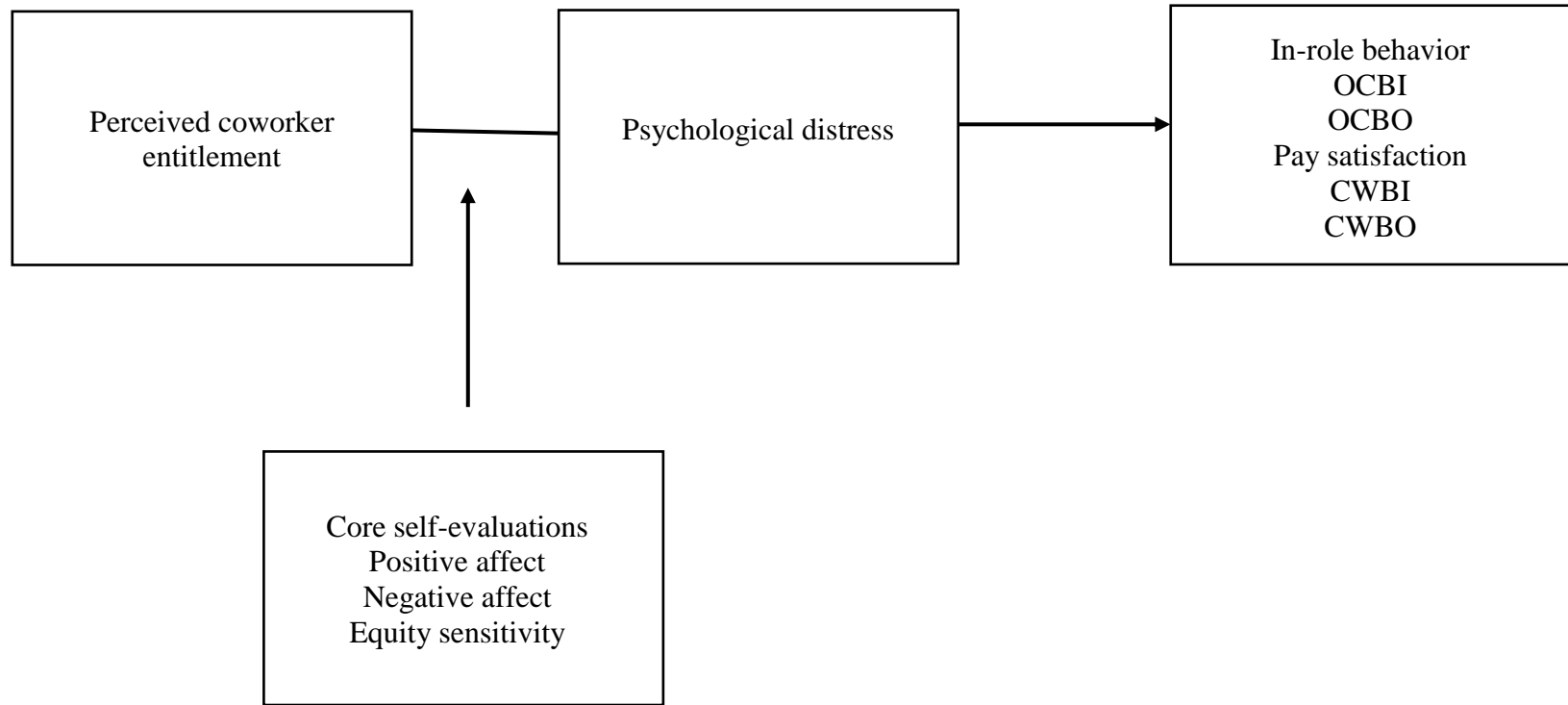


Figure 3. Chapter 3 Model

Figure 4

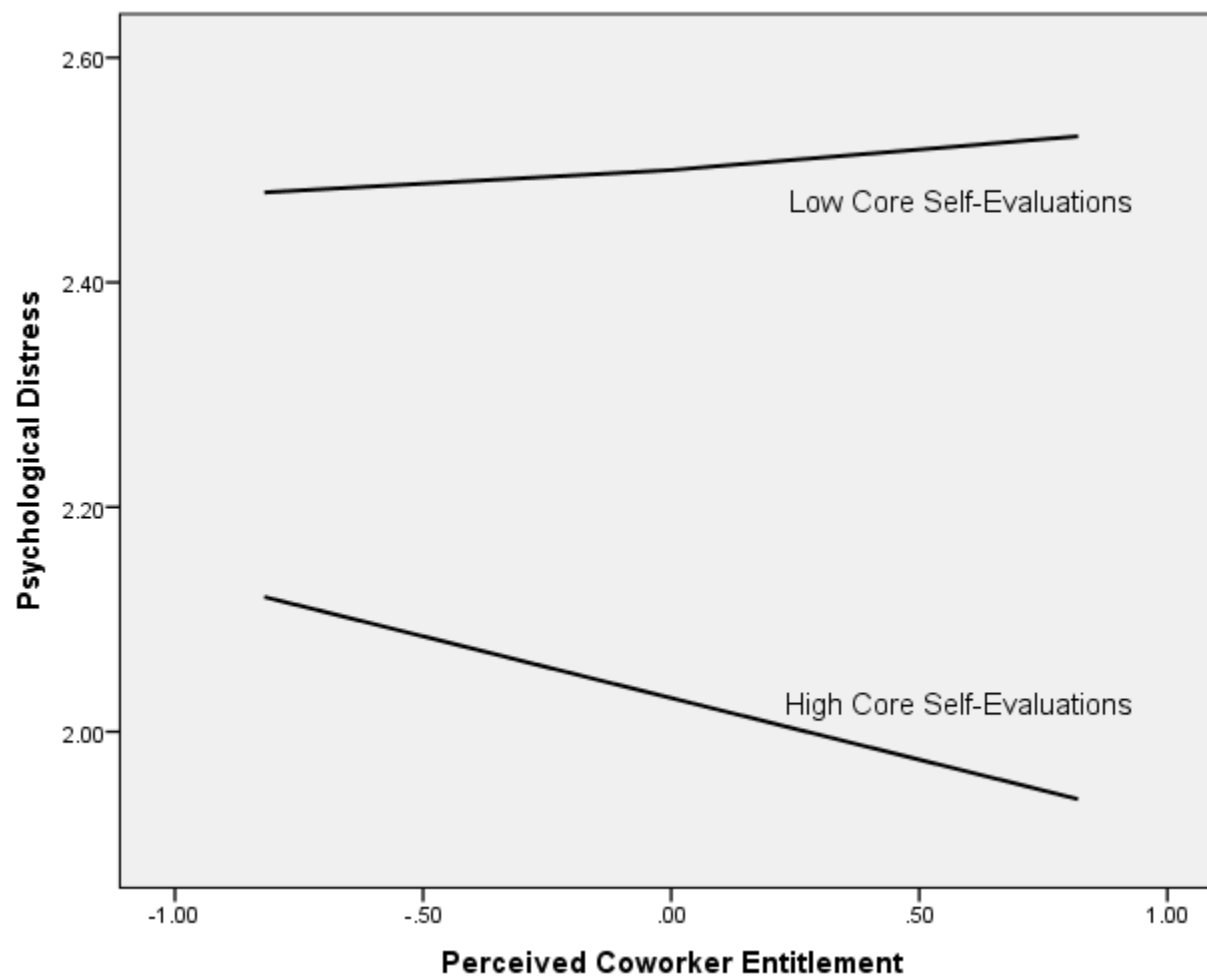


Figure 4. Perceived Coworker Entitlement x Core Self-Evaluations → Psychological Distress

Figure 5

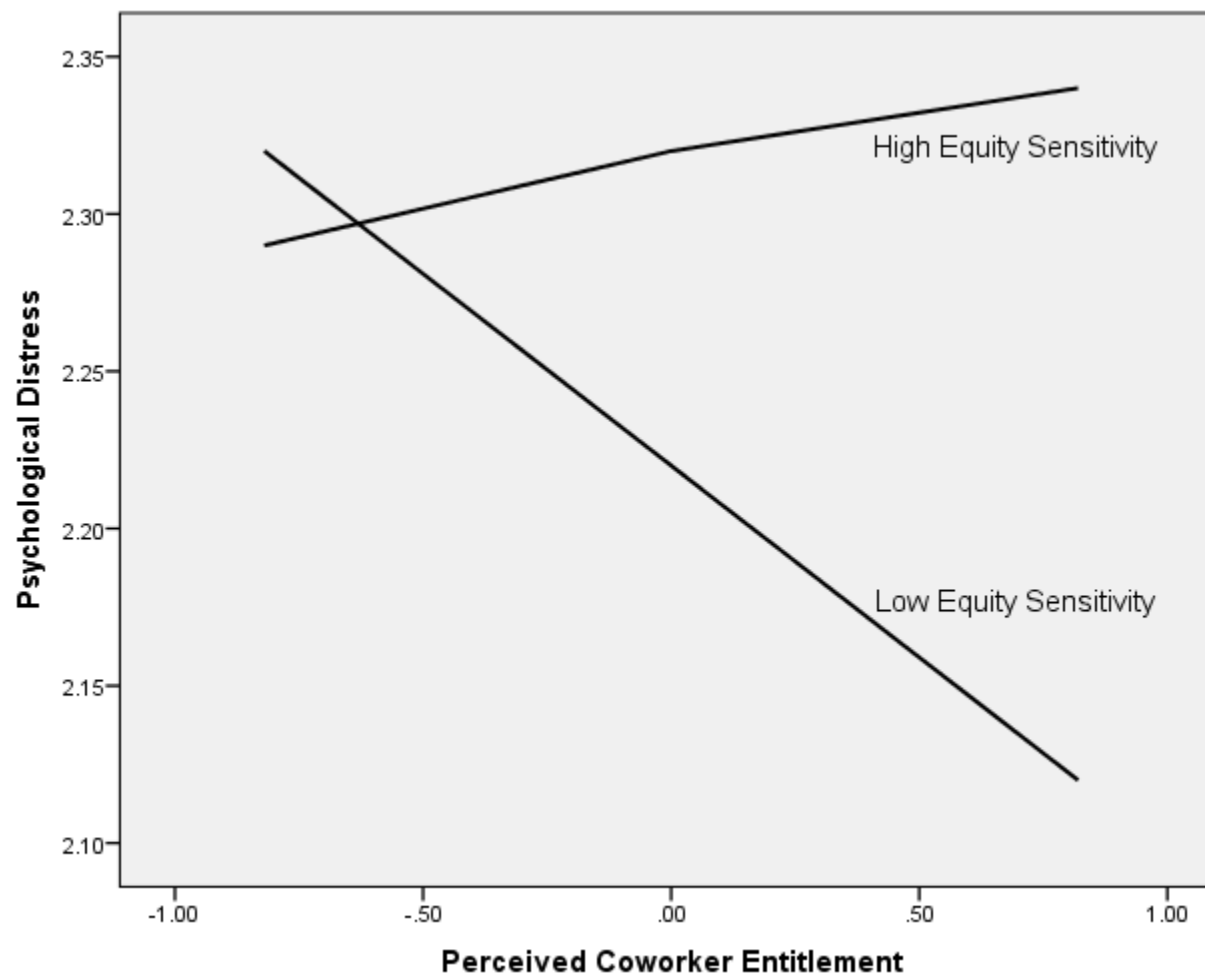


Figure 5. Perceived Coworker Entitlement x Equity Sensitivity → Psychological Distress

Figure 6

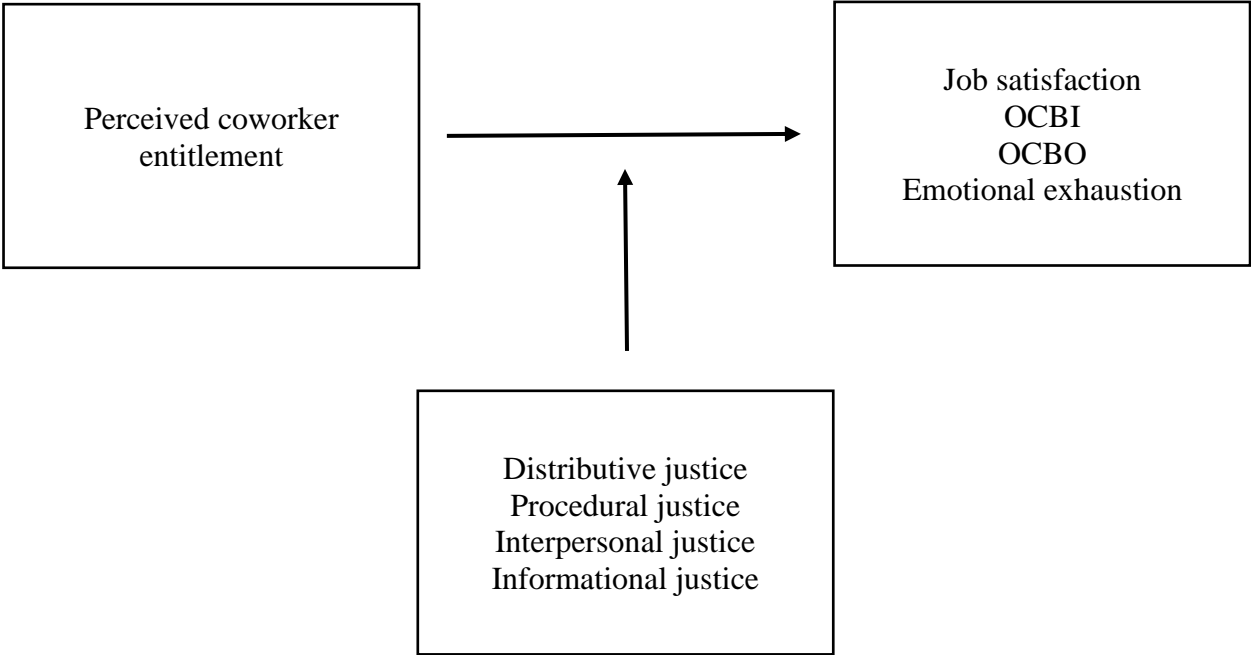


Figure 6. Chapter 4 Model

Figure 7

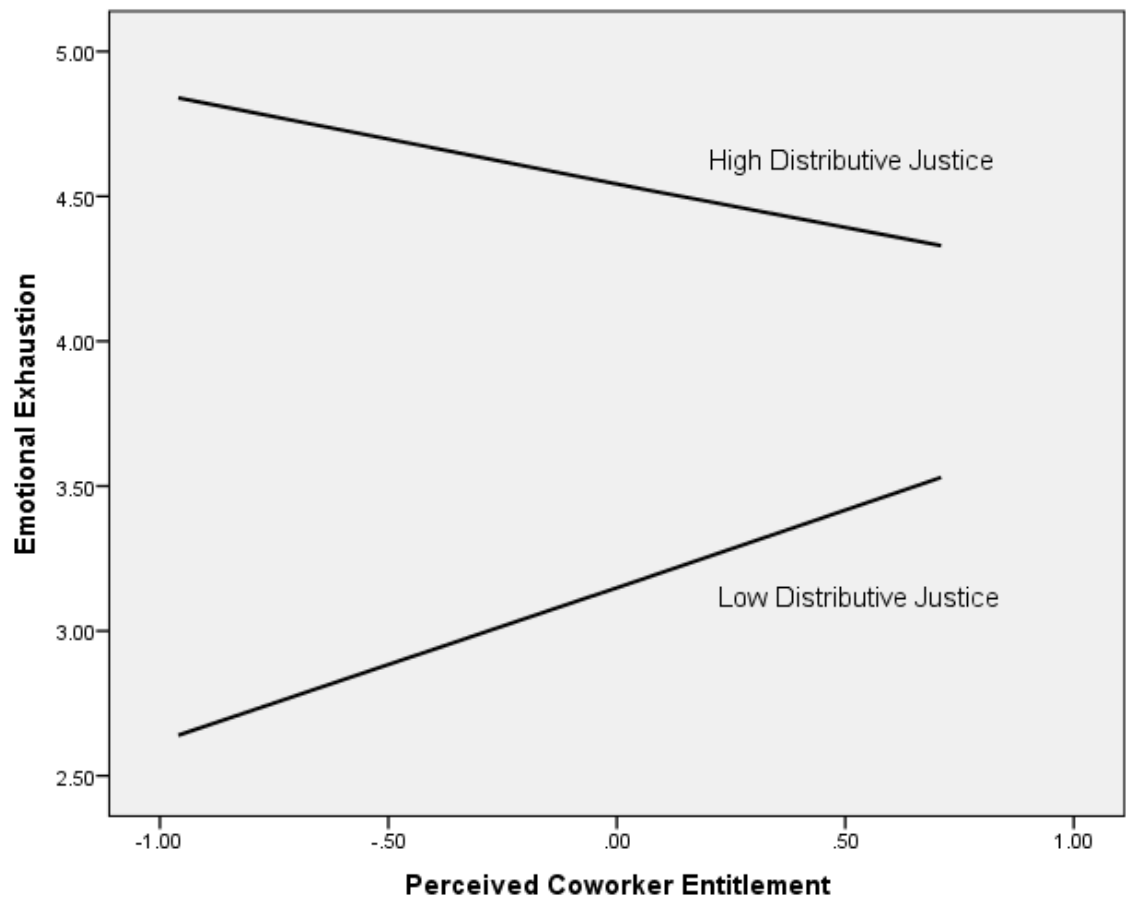


Figure 7. Perceived Coworker Entitlement x Distributive Justice → Emotional Exhaustion

Figure 8

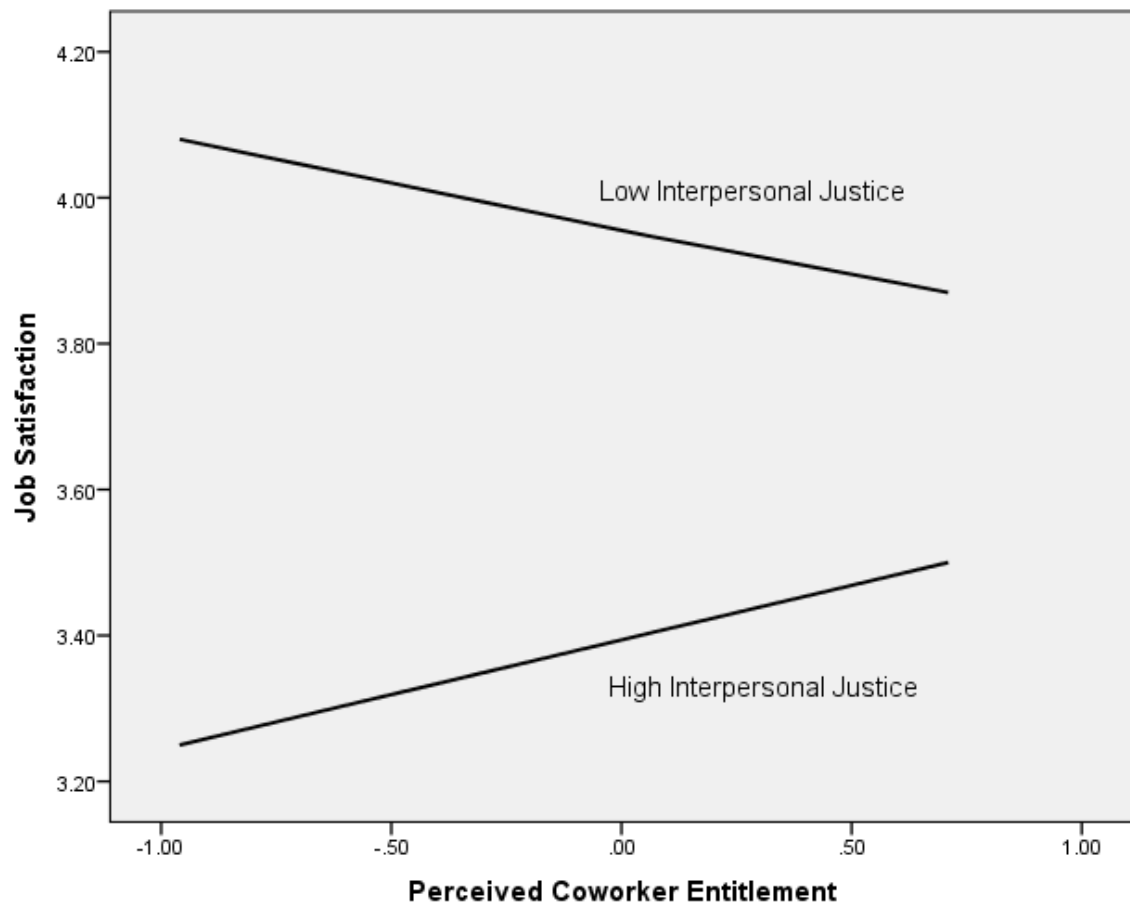


Figure 8. Perceived Coworker Entitlement x Interpersonal Justice → Job Satisfaction

Figure 9

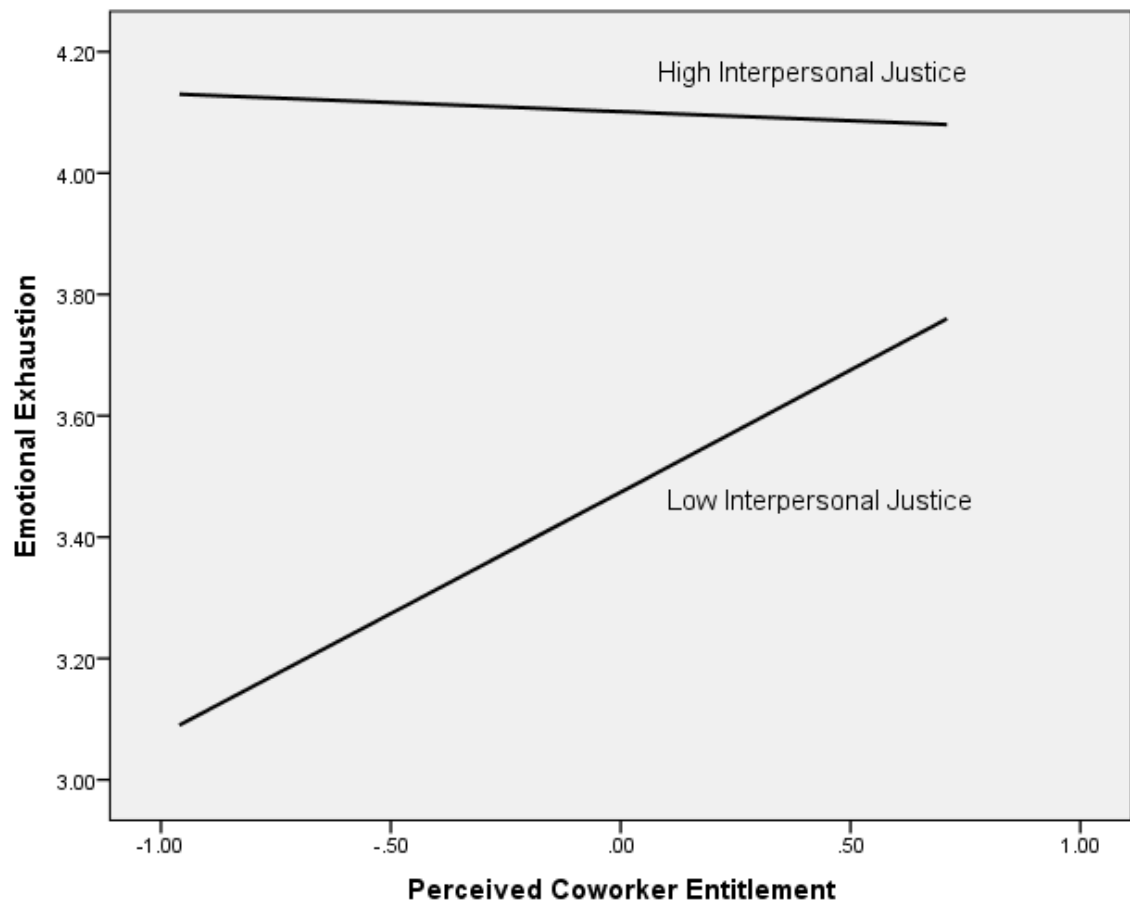


Figure 9. Perceived Coworker Entitlement x Interpersonal Justice → Emotional Exhaustion

Figure 10

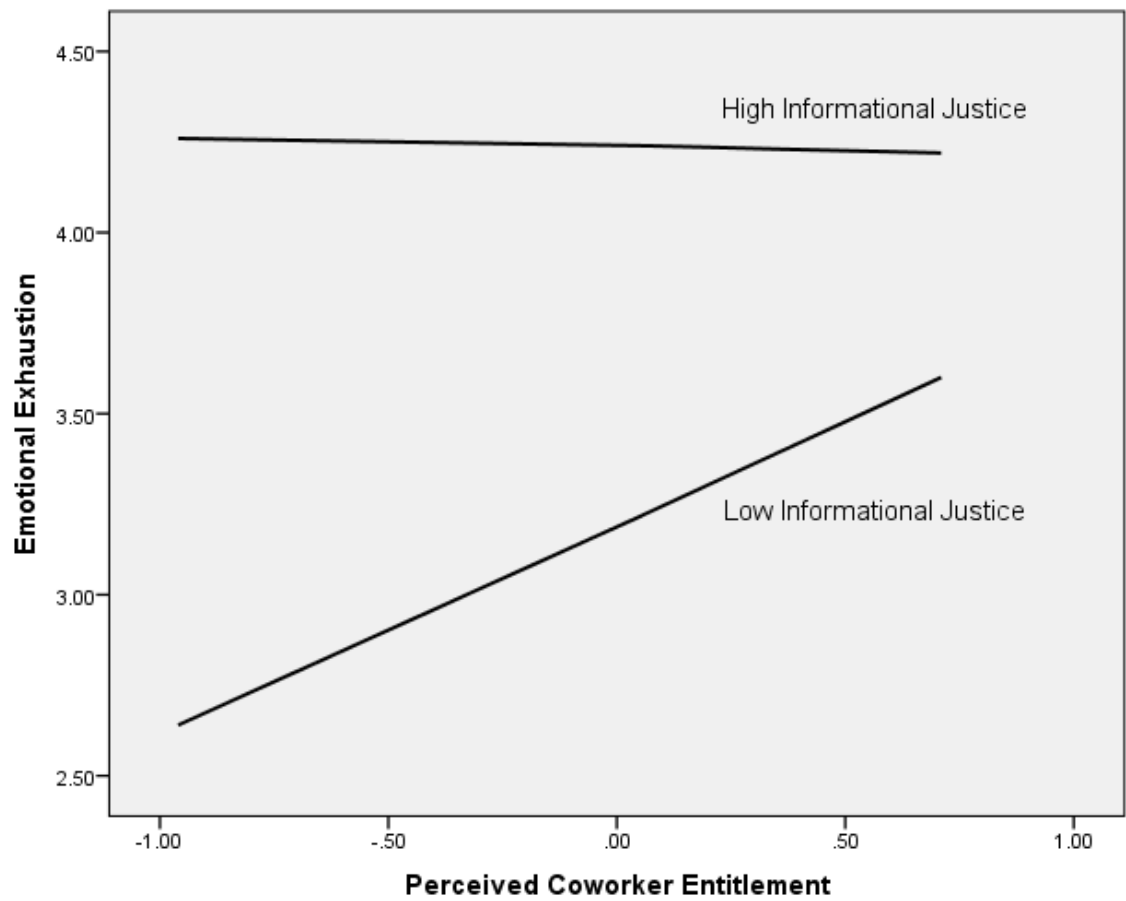


Figure 10. Perceived Coworker Entitlement x Informational Justice → Emotional Exhaustion

Figure 11

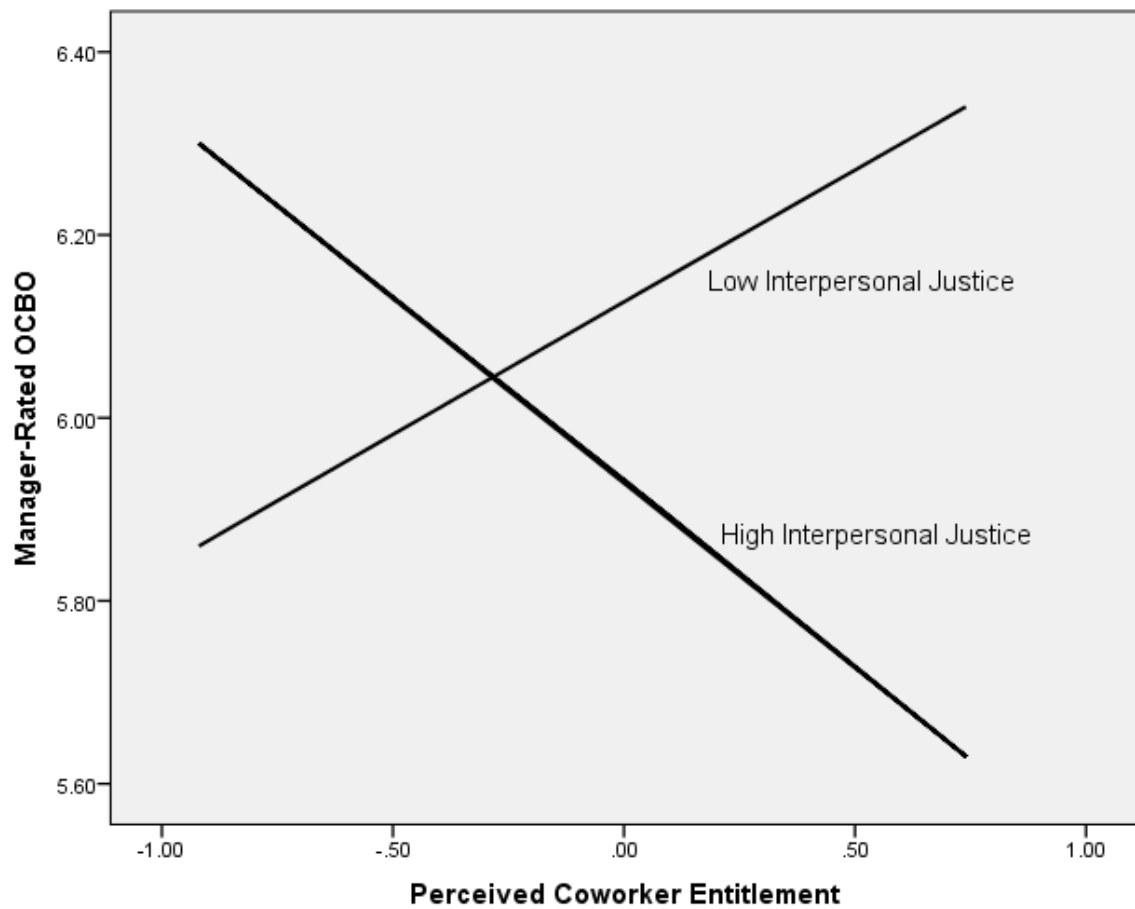


Figure 11. Perceived Coworker Entitlement x Interpersonal Justice → Manager-Rated OCBO

Figure 12

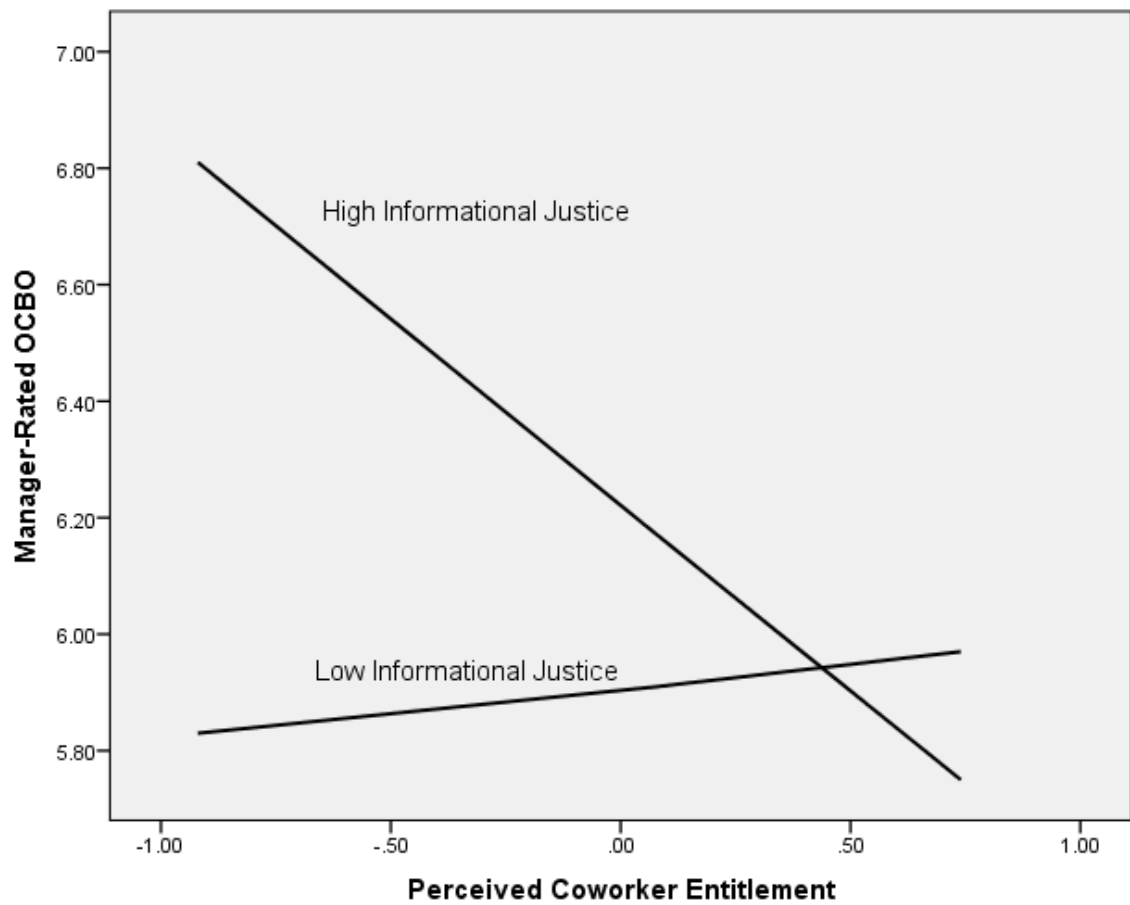


Figure 12. Perceived Coworker Entitlement x Informational Justice → Manager-Rated OCBO

APPENDIX B: TABLES

Table 1

Table 1. Summary of Entitlement Definitions

Author(s)	Theoretical Definition	Conceptualization
Bing, Davison, Garner, Ammeter, & Novicevic (2009)	None given	Trait
Brouer, Wallace, & Harvey (2011)	"exists when an individual exhibits a stable tendency to form overly favorable self-perceptions and optimistic expectations that are not supported by demonstratable skills or accomplishments" (p. 112)	Trait
Brummel & Parker (2015)	"the degree to which individuals believe that they deserve the time, resources, and considerations of society" (p. 130)	Trait
Byrne, Miller, & Pitts (2010)	"those who are very sensitive to inequity and [...] prefer greater rewards than their comparison with others and prefer to give less to an organization than they receive" (p. 453)	Trait
Campbell, Bonacci, Shelton, Exline, & Bushman (2004)	"a stable and pervasive sense that one deserves more and is entitled to more than others" (p. 31)	Trait
Chatrakul Na Ayudhya & Smithson (2016)	None given	State
Feather (2008)	"judgments that relate more to an external frame of reference that involves an agreed-upon body of law, social norms, and formal or informal rules" (p. 1232)	Trait
Fisk (2010)	"a trait [...] that is fueled by <i>inaccurate perceptions regarding the number of type of outcomes owed to the self (formed in response to distorted views of the validity of one's performance inputs) that exceeds what would be considered normative according to prevailing social allocation rules and that when acted upon, may negatively impact others</i> " (p. 104)	Trait

Fisk & Neville (2011)	"customers who believe they deserve special treatment but need not do anything to earn such treatment" (p. 392)	Trait
Foley, Ngo, & Loi (2016)	"an individual difference variable that affects employees' self-perceptions and expectations regarding their rewards and work outcomes (Campbell et al., 2004), and it involves some perceptual and cognitive processes that influence individual's behaviors (Harvey & Martinko, 2009)" (p. 148)	Trait
Grijalva & Newman (2015)	None given	Trait
Harms & Spain (2015)	None given	Trait
Harvey & Dasborough (2015)	"a stable tendency toward highly favorable self-perceptions and a tendency to feel deserving of high levels of praise and reward, regardless of actual performance levels" (Harvey & Harris, 2010: 1640)" (p. 460)	Trait
Harvey, Harris, Gillis, & Martinko (2014)	"a stable (i.e., trait-like) and global tendency toward favorable self-perceptions and reward expectations that exists even when there is little justification for such beliefs" (p. 205)	Trait
Harvey & Harris (2010)	"a stable tendency toward highly favorable self-perceptions and a tendency to feel deserving of high levels of praise and reward, regardless of actual performance levels" (p. 1640)	Trait
Harvey & Martinko (2009)	"a relatively stable belief that one should receive desirable treatment with little consideration of actual deservingness" (p. 459)	Trait
Herman & Lewis (2012)	"a set of beliefs and feelings about rights, entitlements, or legitimate expectations, based on what is perceived to be fair and equitable" (p. 770)	State
Hochwarter, Meurs, Perrew, Royle, & Matherly (2007)	"anticipation of special, preferential treatment, devoid of assuming reciprocity, therefore violating most established norms of social exchange" (p. 3890)	State
Hochwarter, Summers, Thompson, Perrew, & Ferris (2010)	None given	State

Hurst & Good (2009)	"a 'perceived right to demand' that can manifest in various ways, such as employees who expect bonuses for accomplishing simply the basics outlined in the job description, or employees who fail to meet sales goals, but demand bonuses anyway" (p. 576)	State
Jordan, Ramsay, & Westerlaken (2016)	"an excessive self-regard linked to a belief in the automatic right to privileged treatment at work" (p. 2)	Trait
Laird, Harvey, Lancaster (2015)	"a stable tendency toward highly favorable self-perceptions and a tendency to feel deserving of high levels of praise and reward, regardless of actual performance levels" (Harvey & Harris, 2010: 1640)" (p. 89)	Trait
Levine (2005)	None given	Trait
Lewis & Smithson (2001)	"a set of beliefs and feelings about rights and entitlements, or legitimate expectations, based on what is perceived to be fair and equitable" (p. 1457)	State
Maynard, Brondolo, Connelly, & Sauer (2015)	"believes that he or she possesses unrealistically positive personal characteristics and, as a result, deserves resources and outcomes which are out of proportion to what is actually due [...] or in the absence of normally required performance levels to obtain those resources" (p. 210)	Trait
Miller & Konopaske (2014)	"the deep-seated belief that one deserves more pay, recognition, positive feedback, and other rewards than others deserve regardless of one's contribution to the organization" (p. 808)	Trait
Miller (2009)	"entitlement is a characteristic of individuals who prefer to get more from their workplace than they give, whereas benevolence is a characteristic of individuals who prefer to give more than they receive" (p. 329)	Trait
Naumann, Minsky, & Sturman (2002a)	"employees' expectations that the outcomes they receive from the organization be positive." (p. 91)	Trait; State
Naumann, Minsky, & Sturman (2002b)	"the compensation expected as a result of an individual participating in an employment relationship" (p. 150)	Trait; State
O'Leary-Kelly, Rosen, & Hochwarter (2017)	"a workplace condition reflective of a misalignment between an employee's perceptions and the perceptions of a relevant observer regarding an employee's deservingness for outcomes, such that the employee's perceptions exceed those of the observer"	Trait; State

Poelmans & Sahibzada (2004)	"awareness and sensitivity of citizens living in countries which have strong family-supportive policies or egalitarian cultures"	Trait
Thomason, Etling, Brownlee, & Charles (2015)	None given	Trait
Thompson & Gregory (2012)	"an expectation of receiving something in exchange for doing nothing" (p. 241)	Trait
Tomlinson (2013)	"beliefs regarding his/her rightful claim of privileges" (p. 71)	Trait; State
Wheeler, Halbesleben, & Whitman (2013)	"'relatively stable belief that one should receive desirable treatment with little consideration of actual deservingness' (Harvey & Martinko, 2009: 459)" (p. 478)	Trait
Whitman, Halbesleben, & Shanine (2013)	"an internal psychological process that remains stable over time and is reflected in desired or actual behaviors" (p. 251)	Trait

Table 2**Table 2. Summary of Entitlement Measures**

Author(s)	Measure	Reliability	Self-Report	Items
Raskin & Terry (1988)	Entitlement subscale (ENT) of the Narcissistic Personality Inventory (NPI)	$\alpha=.50$	Yes	Six-item scale (forced choice): "I will never be satisfied until I get all that I deserve", "I expect a great deal from other people", "I want to amount to something in the eyes of the world", "I have a strong will to power", "I insist upon getting the respect that is due me", "If I ruled the world it would be a better place"
Foster, McCain, Hibberts, Brunell, & Johnson (2015)	Entitlement subscale of the Grandiose Narcissism Scale (GNS)	$\alpha=.76$	Yes	Five-item scale (1=strongly disagree to 6=strongly agree): "I expect to be treated better than average", "The level of treatment I expect is higher than what most other people expect", "I deserve to get what I want", "I expect people to bend the rules for me", "I deserve more out of life than other people"
Campbell, Bonacci, Shelton, Exline, & Bushman (2004)	Psychological Entitlement Scale (PES)	$\alpha=.87$	Yes	Nine-item scale (1=strong disagreement to 7=strong agreement): "I honestly feel I'm just more deserving than others", "Great things should come to me", "If I were on the Titanic, I would deserve to be on the <i>first</i> lifeboat!", "I demand the best because I'm worth it", "I do not necessarily deserve special treatment", "I deserve more things in my life", "Things should go my way", "I feel entitled to more of everything"

Huseman, Hatfield, & Miles (1985)	Equity Sensitivity Instrument (ESI)	$\alpha=.83$	Yes	Five-item scale (forced distribution): "It would be more important for me to: A. Get from the organization, or B. Give to the organization", "It would be more important for me to: A. Help others, or B. Watch out for my own good", "I would be more concerned about: A. What I received from the organization, or B. What I contributed to the organization", "The hard work I would do should: A. Benefit the organization, or B. Benefit me", "My personal philosophy in dealing with the organization would be: A. If I don't look out for myself, nobody else will, or B. It's better for me to give than to receive"
Sauley & Bedeian (2000)	Equity Preference Questionnaire (EPQ)	$\alpha=.84-.88$	Yes	Sixteen-item scale (1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree): "I prefer to do as little as possible at work while getting as much as I can from my employer", "I am most satisfied at work when I have to do as little as possible", "When I am at my job, I think of ways to get out of work", "If I could get away with it, I would try to work just a little bit slower than the boss expects", "It is really satisfying to me when I can get something for nothing at work", "It is the smart employee who gets as much as he/she can while giving as little as possible in return", "Employees who are more concerned about what they can get from their employer rather than what they can give to their employer are the wise ones", "When I have completed my task for the day, I help out other employees who have yet to complete their tasks", "Even if I received low wages and poor benefits from my employer, I would still try to do my best at my job", "If I had to work hard all day at my job, I would probably quit", "I feel obligated to do more than I am paid to do at work", "At work, my greatest concern is whether or not I am doing the best job I can", "A job which requires me to be busy during the day is better than a job which allows me a lot of loafing", "At work, I feel uneasy when there is little work for me to do", "I would become very dissatisfied with my job if I had little or no work to do", "All other things being equal, it is better to have a job with a lot of duties and responsibilities than one with few duties and responsibilities"

Brummel & Parker (2015)	Obligation and Entitlement Scale (OES)	Obligation $\alpha=.81$; Entitlement $\alpha=.84$	Yes	Nine-item obligation scale (1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree): "I ought to spend more time helping others", "I ought to sacrifice my goals to help others reach their goals", "I feel obligated to contribute to the community", "I have a duty to help others when I can", "It is my duty to make the world a better place", "I owe a debt to society", "I owe my community for all that it has done for me", "I have a duty to attend various events in my community", "I should give up my lunch break to help someone at my job" Nine-item entitlement scale (1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree): "I deserve to be happy", "I have the right not to be judged", "I deserve the respect of others", "I have a right to a good job", "I deserve to be safe and protected from crime", "I deserve the best medical care possible", "People should listen to my opinions", "I deserve to have high self-esteem", "I deserve to be successful"
Hochwarter, Meurs, Perrewé, Royle, & Matherly (2007)	Perceived Entitlement Behavior of Others at Work Scale (PEBOWS)	$\alpha=.94$	No	Six-item scale (1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree): "Many employees act as if they are more deserving than others at work without putting in the effort", "Many employees expect good things to come their way at work without paying their dues", "Many employees demand the best at work even though most agree that they shouldn't get it", "Many employees act as if more things should go their way without adequate contribution to the department", "Many employees feel as though they deserve extra breaks even though they don't deserve them", "Many employees feel entitled to favorable treatment at work"

Table 3**Table 3. Summary of Measures Used and Analytic Methodology Employed in Entitlement Studies**

Author(s)	Measure of Entitlement	Context	Method
Bing, Davison, Garner, Ammeter, & Novicevic (2009)	ESI ($\alpha=.77$)	178 employed undergraduate students	Moderated hierarchical multiple regression
Brouer, Wallace, & Harvey (2011)			Conceptual
Brummel & Parker (2015)	OES ($\alpha=.84, .89$)	Study 1: 10,822 participants from 141 countries; Study 2: 207 employees from the U.S.	Scale development, ANOVA, hierarchical multiple regression, CFA
Byrne, Miller, & Pitts (2010)	EPQ ($\alpha=.70$)	190 MBA student recruited employed individuals	CFA, hierarchical moderated multiple regression
Campbell, Bonacci, Shelton, Exline, & Bushman (2004)	PES	262 undergraduate students	Correlation
Chatrakul Na Ayudhya & Smithson (2016)		30 British-born or Asian-born university students who were studying in the UK	Qualitative interviews and focus groups
Feather (2008)	Unknown ($\alpha=.88$)	225 undergraduate students	SEM
Fisk (2010)			Conceptual; review
Fisk & Neville (2011)		56 waitstaff	Qualitative interviews; inductive and deductive thematic analysis
Foley, Ngo, & Loi (2016)	Adapted PES ($\alpha=.77$)	237 Chinese employees	SEM, longitudinal
Grijalva & Newman (2015)	Entitlement subscale of NPI ($\alpha=.42$), PES ($\alpha=.88$)	433 international convenience sample	Regression
Harms & Spain (2015)			Conceptual
Harvey & Dasborough (2015)			Incubator

Harvey, Harris, Gillis, & Martinko (2014)	PES ($\alpha=.92$)	Study 1: 396 student recruited employees; Study 2: 81 shared-supervisor dyads	SEM
Harvey & Harris (2010)	PES ($\alpha=.85$)	233 student recruited employees	SEM
Harvey & Martinko (2009)	Berber (1978) ($\alpha=.70$)	415 student recruited employees	SEM
Herman & Lewis (2012)		38 engineers and scientists in four companies in the Netherlands, Italy, and France	Qualitative interviews
Hochwarter, Meurs, Perrewé, Royle, & Matherly (2007)	PEBOWS ($\alpha=.94$)	Study 1: 309 employees of a municipality; Sample 2: 584 employees at two time points	Factor analysis, regression
Hochwarter, Summers, Thompson, Perrewé, & Ferris (2010)	PEBOWS	Sample 1: 440 student recruited employees at two time points; Sample 2: 167 municipality employees; Sample 3: 140 manufacturing employees	Hierarchical regression
Hurst & Good (2009)	Rousseau (1990) ($\alpha=.73, .69$)	193 Gen Y college seniors	SEM
Jordan, Ramsay, & Westerlaken (2016)			Conceptual; review
Laird, Harvey, Lancaster (2015)	PES ($\alpha=.76$)	181 resident assistants	Hierarchical moderated regression
Levine (2005)			Conceptual
Lewis & Smithson (2001)		312 individuals between the ages of 18 and 30 took part in 70 focus groups in five countries	Qualitative focus groups
Maynard, Brondolo, Connelly, & Sauer (2015)	Entitlement subscale of NPI	292 employees	Hierarchical moderated regression

Miller & Konopaske (2014)	EPQ ($\alpha=.82$)	Study 1: 214 employed students; Study 2: 270 employed students	Multiple regression
Miller (2009)	EPQ entitlement subscale ($\alpha=.84, .86$)	Sample 1: 382 undergraduate students; Sample 2: 455 undergraduate students	SEM
Naumann, Minsky, & Sturman (2002a)			Conceptual; review
Naumann, Minsky, & Sturman (2002b)			Conceptual; review
O'Leary-Kelly, Rosen, & Hochwarter (2017)			Conceptual
Poelmans & Sahibzada (2004)			Conceptual
Thomason, Etling, Brownlee, & Charles (2015)	modified PES ($\alpha=.86$)	Two decision making vignettes; first vignette was administered to 25 students and second vignette was administered to 39 students	Regression; ANOVA
Thompson & Gregory (2012)			Conceptual
Tomlinson (2013)			Conceptual; review
Wheeler, Halbesleben, & Whitman (2013)	PES ($\alpha=.89$)	132 MBA student recruited employees; longitudinal	Multilevel moderated mediation analysis
Whitman, Halbesleben, & Shanine (2013)	PES ($\alpha=.96$)	1,008 nurses; 132 nurses and their supervisors	Hierarchical regression

Table 4**Table 4. Summary of Theoretical Frameworks Used in Entitlement Research**

Theoretical Framework	Author(s)
Affective events theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996)	Harvey & Harris (2010)
Agency theory (Jensen & Meckling, 1976; Fama, 1980)	Thomason, Etling, Brownlee, & Charles (2015)
Attribution theory (Kelley & Michela, 1980; Weiner, 1972, 1985)	Brouer, Wallace, & Harvey (2011); Harvey & Harris (2010); Harvey & Martinko (2009); O'Leary-Kelly, Rosen, & Hochwarter (2017)
Balance theory (Feather, 1999)	O'Leary-Kelly, Rosen, & Hochwarter (2017)
Cognitive appraisal theory (Lazarus, 1991)	O'Leary-Kelly, Rosen, & Hochwarter (2017)
Cognitive dissonance theory (Festinger, 1957)	Byrne, Miller, & Pitts (2010); Miller (2009)
Conservation of resource theory (Hobfoll, 1989)	Brouer, Wallace, & Harvey (2011); Hochwarter, Summers, Thompson, Perrewe, & Ferris (2010); Laird, Harvey, Lancaster (2015)
Demand-control-support model of work stress (Karasek, 1979; Johnson & Hall, 1988)	Fisk & Neville (2011)
Equity sensitivity (Huseman, Hatfield, & Miles, 1985, 1987)	Bing, Davison, Garner, Ammeter, & Novicevic (2009); Bryne, Miller, & Pitts (2010); Miller & Konopaske (2014); Miller (2009); Naumann, Minsky, & Sturman (2002b)
Equity theory (Adams, 1963, 1965)	Byrne, Miller, & Pitts (2010); Miller & Konopaske (2014); Miller (2009); Naumann, Minsky, & Sturman (2002b); O'Leary-Kelly, Rosen, & Hochwarter (2017)
Fairness theory (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998)	Hochwarter, Meurs, Perrewe, Royle, & Matherly (2007); O'Leary-Kelly, Rosen, & Hochwarter (2017)
Institutional theory (Meyer & Rowan, 1977)	Poelsmans & Sahibzada (2004)
Organizational commitment theory (Steers, 1977)	Hurst & Good (2009)
Personality	Brummel & Parker (2015); Campbell, Bonacci, Shelton, Exline, & Bushman (2004); Grijalva & Newman (2015); Harms & Spain (2015)
Psychological contracts (Rousseau, 1995)	Hurst & Good (2009)
Referent cognitions theory (Folger, 1986)	Hochwarter, Meurs, Perrewe, Royle, & Matherly (2007)
Relative deprivation theory (Feldman, Leana, & Bolino, 2002; Feldman & Turnley, 2004)	Maynard, Brondolo, Connelly, & Sauer (2015)

Self-regulation theory (Baumeister, Bratslavsky, & Muraven, 1998)	Wheeler, Halbesleben, & Whitman (2013); Whitman, Halbesleben, & Shanine (2013)
Self-verification theory (Swann, 2011)	O'Leary-Kelly, Rosen, & Hochwarter (2017)
Social comparison theory (Festinger, 1954, 1957)	Byrne, Miller, & Pitts (2010); Foley, Ngo, & Loi (2016); Herman & Lewis (2012)
Social exchange theory (Homans, 1958)	Miller (2009); Naumann, Minsky, & Sturman (2002b); Poelsmans & Sahibzada (2004)
Social impact theory (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978)	O'Leary-Kelly, Rosen, & Hochwarter (2017)
Social justice theory (Rawls, 1971)	Lewis & Smithson (2001)
Social information processing theory (Latane, 1981)	O'Leary-Kelly, Rosen, & Hochwarter (2017)
Stewardship theory (Davis, Schoorman, & Donaldson, 1997)	Thomason, Etling, Brownlee, & Charles (2015)
Symbolic interactionism theory (Blumer, 1962)	O'Leary-Kelly, Rosen, & Hochwarter (2017)
Trait activation theory (Tett & Guterman, 2000)	Jordan, Ramsay, & Westerlaken (2016)

Table 5

Table 5. Articles Examining the Antecedents of Entitlement

Author(s)	Measure of Entitlement	Independent Variables	Key Findings
Brummel & Parker (2015)	OES ($\alpha=.84, .89$)	Gender, culture, age	Females and individuals from collectivist cultures were positively related to entitlement. Age was negatively related to entitlement.
Hurst & Good (2009)	Rousseau (1990) ($\alpha=.73, .69$)	Job expectations, perceptions of careers, future supervisory support expectations	Job expectations, perceptions of careers, and future supervisory support expectations are positively related to entitlement perceptions.
Miller & Konopaske (2014)	EPQ ($\alpha=.82$)	Machiavellianism, Protestant work ethic	Machiavellianism and Protestant work ethic are positively related to perceived entitlement.
Miller (2009)	EPQ entitlement subscale ($\alpha=.84, .86$)	Empathy, feminine gender role identity, positive affect	Empathy is positively related to entitlement. Feminine gender role identity is not related to entitlement. Positive affect is negatively related to entitlement.

Table 6

Table 6. Articles Examining the Consequences of Entitlement

Author(s)	Measure of Entitlement	Dependent Variables	Key Findings
Bing, Davison, Garner, Ammeter, & Novicevic (2009)	ESI ($\alpha=.77$)	Money obsession	Entitlement was a significant predictor of money obsession.
Brummel & Parker (2015)	OES ($\alpha=.84$, .89)	Volunteering, charitable giving, work engagement, task performance, organizational citizenship behaviors, counterproductive work behaviors	Entitlement was negatively related to charitable giving and self-reported counterproductive work behaviors. Entitlement was positively related to self-reported OCB-Is and self-rated task performance. Entitlement was not related to volunteering or engagement.
Campbell, Bonacci, Shelton, Exline, & Bushman (2004)	PES	Perceived salary deservingness	Individuals higher in entitlement reported that they deserved more salary than their peers.
Feather (2008)	Unknown ($\alpha=.88$)	Legitimacy, resentment	Entitlement was positively related to legitimacy.
Foley, Ngo, & Loi (2016)	Adapted PES ($\alpha=.77$)	Downward social comparison, job satisfaction	Psychological entitlement is an uncertainty-raising antecedent and is related to downward social comparison. Entitlement did not have a direct effect on job satisfaction; the relationship between entitlement and job satisfaction was fully mediated by downward social comparison.
Grijalva & Newman (2015)	Entitlement subscale of NPI ($\alpha=.42$), PES ($\alpha=.88$)	Counterproductive work behaviors	Entitlement is positively related to counterproductive work behaviors.

Harvey, Harris, Gillis, & Martinko (2014)	PES ($\alpha=.92$)	Abusive supervision perceptions, upward undermining, organizational deviance	Employee entitlement was positively associated with abusive supervision perceptions, upward undermining, and organizational deviance.
Harvey & Harris (2010)	PES ($\alpha=.85$)	Job frustration, political behavior, coworker abuse	Entitlement was positively associated with job frustration and political behavior. Job frustration partially mediated the relationships between entitlement and political behavior. Job frustration fully mediated the relationship between entitlement and coworker abuse.
Harvey & Martinko (2009)	Berber (1978), $a=.70$	Need for cognition, self-serving attribution style, turnover intent, conflict with supervisor, job satisfaction	Entitlement was positively associated with self-serving attribution style, turnover intent, and conflict with supervisor. Entitlement was negatively associated with need for cognition. There was no significant relationship between entitlement and job satisfaction.
Hochwarter, Summers, Thompson, Perrewe, & Ferris (2010)	PEBOWS	Job tension	Perceived entitlement behavior was associated with increased job tension in three samples.
Hochwarter, Meurs, Perrewe, Royle, & Matherly (2007)	PEBOWS ($\alpha=.94$)	Job tension, depressed mood at work, job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behaviors	Perceived entitlement behavior was associated with increased tension and depressed mood at work and decreased satisfaction and organizational citizenship behaviors.
Hurst & Good (2009)	Rousseau (1990) ($\alpha=.73, .69$)	Career exploration	Entitlement perceptions are positively related to career exploration.
Maynard, Brondolo, Connelly, & Sauer (2015)	Entitlement subscale of NPI	Job satisfaction, work stress, perceived overqualification	Entitlement was negatively related to job satisfaction and positively related to work stress and perceived overqualification.
Thomason, Etling, Brownlee, & Charles (2015)	modified PES ($\alpha=.86$)	Socially responsible workplace decisions	The relationship between entitlement and socially responsible workplace decisions was not significant. However, individuals low in entitlement are more likely to

			work for a socially responsible organization despite lower pay.
Whitman, Halbesleben, & Shanine (2013)	PES ($\alpha=.96$)	Abusive supervision perceptions	Supervisors high in entitlement are more likely to be perceived by their subordinates as abusive and political skill moderates this relationship.

Table 7

Table 7. Articles Using Entitlement as a Moderator

Author(s)	Measure of Entitlement	Independent Variables	Dependent Variables	Key Findings
Bing, Davison, Garner, Ammeter, & Novicevic (2009)	ESI ($\alpha=.77$)	Benevolence	Money Obsession	High entitlement/low benevolence (i.e., entitleds) combination were the highest on money obsession, whereas the low entitlement/high benevolence (i.e., benevolents) were the lowest. The high entitlement/high benevolence (i.e., equity sensitives) were more similar to the entitleds on the money obsession and higher than the low entitlement/low benevolence (i.e., indifferents), which were more similar to the benevolents.
Byrne, Miller, & Pitts (2010)	EPQ ($\alpha=.70$)	Safe work practices, training and development, equal employment opportunity, recruitment and selection	Job satisfaction	For individuals high in entitlement, perceived favorability of recruitment and selection practices were positively related to job satisfaction. For individuals high in entitlement, perceived favorability of safe working practices was negatively related to job satisfaction. For individuals low in entitlement, perceived favorability of recruitment and selection practices were not significantly related to job satisfaction. For individual low in entitlement, perceived favorability of safe working practices was positively associated with job satisfaction.

Laird, Harvey, Lancaster (2015)	PES ($\alpha=.76$)	Accountability	Job satisfaction	Psychological entitlement moderates the relationship between accountability and job satisfaction. Job satisfaction differences were only observed when accountability was low. Entitled employees demonstrated lower job satisfaction than non-entitled employees when accountability was low, but nearly equal levels when accountability was high.
Maynard, Brondolo, Connelly, & Sauer (2015)	Entitlement subscale of NPI	Objective overqualification	Job satisfaction, work stress, perceived overqualification	Entitlement moderates the positive relationship between perceived overqualification and objective overqualification, such that the relationship will be weaker at higher levels of entitlement. Entitlement does not moderate the negative relationship between objective overqualification and job satisfaction. Entitlement moderates the positive relationship between objective overqualification and work stress, such that the relationship will be stronger at lower levels of entitlement.
Wheeler, Halbesleben, & Whitman (2013)	PES ($\alpha=.89$)	Perceptions of supervisor abuse	Emotional exhaustion, coworker abuse	The indirect effect of abusive supervision to coworker abuse via emotional exhaustion is moderated by entitlement, such that employees with higher levels of entitlement and higher levels of abusive supervision experience higher levels of emotional exhaustion.

Table 8

Table 8. Problematic Items

Measure	Item	Factor Loading
Equity sensitivity	When I have completed my task for the day, I help out other employees who have yet to complete their tasks.	0.354
Equity sensitivity	I feel obligated to do more than I am paid to do at work.	0.274
Psychological distress	Been able to concentrate on what you're doing	0.346
Psychological distress	Felt you were playing a useful part in things.	0.387
Core self-evaluations	I am confident I get the success that I deserve in life.	0.384
Manager-rated in-role behavior	He/she neglects aspects of the job he/she is obligated to perform.	-0.060
Manager-rated in-role behavior	He/she fails to perform essential duties.	0.066
Employee-rated OCBO	I take undeserved work breaks.	0.386
Employee-rated OCBO	I complain about insignificant things at work.	0.374
Manager-rated OCBO	He/she gives advance notice when unable to come to work.	0.145
Social desirability	No matter who I'm talking to, I'm always a good listener.	0.349

Table 9

Table 9. Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Dev.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1. Perceived coworker entitlement	3.30	0.82	(0.90)																	
2. Core self-evaluations	3.63	0.57	-0.02	(0.83)																
3. Positive affect	3.72	0.74	0.15*	0.52**	(0.91)															
4. Negative affect	2.29	0.68	0.05	-0.52**	-0.18**	(0.85)														
5. Equity sensitivity	3.93	0.60	-0.03	0.33**	0.34**	-0.14*	(0.89)													
6. Psychological distress	2.27	0.49	-0.07	-0.47**	-0.37**	0.36**	-0.16*	(0.85)												
7. In-role behavior	6.03	0.84	0.15*	0.40**	0.41**	-0.19**	0.52**	-0.10	(0.89)											
8. Pay satisfaction	3.13	0.84	-0.13	0.39**	0.24**	-0.30**	0.26**	-0.23**	0.07	(0.95)										
9. OCBI	5.39	1.04	0.16*	0.29**	0.47**	-0.12	0.45**	-0.09	0.54**	0.19**	(0.88)									
10. OCBO	5.49	0.86	0.10	0.31**	0.36**	-0.24**	0.58**	-0.17*	0.65**	0.10	0.47**	(0.72)								
11. CWBI	1.38	0.57	0.03	-0.20**	-0.20**	0.23**	-0.46**	0.15*	-0.41**	-0.15*	-0.29**	-0.37**	(0.84)							
12. CWBO	1.59	0.51	0.06	-0.14*	-0.18*	0.30**	-0.34**	0.21**	-0.31**	-0.20**	-0.12	-0.41**	0.53**	(0.65)						
13. Social desirability	3.87	0.73	-0.09	0.27**	0.26**	-0.29**	0.33**	-0.15*	0.21**	0.20**	0.26**	0.29**	-0.44**	-0.34**	(0.71)					
14. Age	31.46	7.96	0.01	0.10	0.07	-0.18*	0.27**	-0.10	0.14	0.11	0.15*	0.23**	-0.10	-0.01	0.05					
15. Tenure	3.80	4.67	0.00	0.09	0.00	-0.15*	0.23**	-0.03	0.16*	0.03	0.17*	0.24**	-0.05	0.01	0.01	0.54**				
16. Manager-rated in-role behavior	6.38	0.87	0.08	-0.08	-0.16	-0.20	0.18	-0.02	0.18	0.19	0.21	0.21	-0.09	0.07	-0.10	0.34	0.26	(0.84)		
17. Manager-rated OCBI	5.68	1.07	-0.02	-0.21	-0.11	-0.40*	-0.07	-0.06	-0.01	-0.13	0.04	-0.25	-0.19	0.21	0.02	0.30	0.12	0.48**	(0.87)	
18. Manager-rated OCBO	5.97	0.77	-0.12	0.09	0.07	-0.20	0.07	-0.08	0.05	0.24	-0.05	0.03	-0.01	-0.09	0.34	0.08	-0.17	0.28	0.34	(0.74)

* p<.05

** p<.01

n=200 for 1-15

n=30 for 16-18

Note: α on diagonal

Table 10

Table 10. Regression Models 1-10

Variables	Models									
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6	Model 7	Model 8	Model 9	Model 10
Intercept	2.87** (.00)	3.05** (.00)	4.11** (.00)	4.10** (.00)	3.50** (.00)	3.50** (.00)	2.15** (.00)	2.14** (.00)	3.26** (.00)	3.18** (.00)
Age	-.01 (.17)	-.01 (.17)	-.01 (.26)	-.01 (.33)	-.01 (.27)	-.01 (.27)	.00 (.38)	.00 (.38)	-.01 (.27)	-.01 (.32)
Tenure	.00 (.65)	.00 (.66)	.01 (.43)	.01 (.38)	.00 (.79)	.00 (.78)	.01 (.43)	.01 (.41)	.01 (.55)	.00 (.62)
Social desirability	-.10* (.04)	-.11* (.03)	-.02 (.61)	-.02 (.69)	-.04 (.35)	-.04 (.36)	-.04 (.38)	-.04 (.39)	-.08 (.10)	-.08 (.12)
Perceived coworker entitlement (PCE)		-.05 (.23)	-.05 (.20)	-.04 (.27)	-.02 (.70)	-.02 (.69)	-.06 (.15)	-.06 (.15)	-.05 (.23)	-.04 (.30)
Core self-evaluations (CSE)			-.40** (.00)	-.42** (.00)						
Positive affect (PA)					-.23** (.00)	-.23** (.00)				
Negative affect (NA)							.25** (.00)	.25** (.00)		
Equity sensitivity (ES)									-.09 (.17)	-.08 (.12)
PCE*CSE				-.12* (.04)						
PCE*PA						.01 (.88)				
PCE*NA								.04 (.49)		
PCE*ES										-.12' (.07)
R ²	0.03	0.04	0.23	0.25	0.15	0.15	0.15	0.15	0.05	0.07
Adjusted R ²	0.02	0.02	0.22	0.23	0.13	0.12	0.13	0.12	0.03	0.04
F-Change	2.29' (.08)	1.46 (.23)	25.42** (.00)	4.48* (.04)	12.82** (.00)	.02 (.88)	12.81** (.00)	.48 (.49)	1.67 (.19)	3.45' (.07)

Notes:

Dependent variable: Psychological distress

**p<.01, *p<.05, 'p<.10; n=200

Table 11

Table 11. Regression Models 11-19

Variables	Models								
	Model 11	Model 12	Model 13	Model 14	Model 15	Model 16	Model 17	Model 18	Model 19
		Manager-rated		Manager-		Manager- Pay			
Dependent variable	In-role behavior	In-role behavior	OCBI	rated OCBI	OCBO	rated OCBO	satisfaction	CWBI	CWBO
Intercept	4.40**(.00)	4.83*(.03)	2.94**(.00)	3.96(.14)	3.74**(.00)	4.04*(.03)	3.39**(.00)	2.59**(.00)	1.91**(.00)
Age	.01(.52)	.02(.29)	.01(.51)	.04(.12)	.01(.14)	.03(.16)	.01(.19)	.00(.44)	.00(.80)
Tenure	.02(.12)	.01(.78)	.03'(.07)	-.02(.65)	.03*(.02)	-.03(.40)	-.01(.63)	.00(.85)	.00(.99)
Social desirability	.25**(.00)	.09(.80)	.38**(.00)	.15(.73)	.32**(.00)	.39(.20)	.17*(.03)	-.33**(.00)	-.22**(.00)
Perceived coworker entitlement (PCE)	.17*(.02)	.04(.87)	.23**(.01)	-.12(.68)	.13'(.07)	-.16(.42)	-.13'(.06)	.00(.96)	.03(.50)
Psychological distress (PD)	-.07(.53)	.10(.80)	-.05(.74)	.09(.85)	-.18(.12)	.08(.81)	-.36**(.00)	.08(.27)	.17*(.02)
PCE ignoring PD	.17*(.01)	.04(.85)	.23**(.01)	-.11(.69)	.13*(.05)	-.15(.43)	-.12(.10)	-.01(.88)	.02(.65)
R ²	0.10	0.12	0.13	0.12	0.18	0.20	0.11	0.20	0.14
F	4.42**(.00)	0.67(.65)	5.98**(.00)	0.66(.65)	8.36**(.00)	1.18(.35)	4.56**(.00)	9.70**(.00)	6.46**(.00)

Notes:

**p<.01, *p<.05, 'p<.10; n=200

Table 12

Table 12. Moderated Mediation Hypotheses

Hypothesis	IV	Moderator	Mediator	DV	Conditional Indirect Effects	Index of Moderated Mediation	Confidence Interval
9a	Perceived coworker entitlement	Core self-evaluations	Psychological distress	In-role behavior	.00, .00, .01	.01	(-.02, .04)
9b	Perceived coworker entitlement	Core self-evaluations	Psychological distress	OCBI	.00, .00, .01	.01	(-.04, .04)
9b	Perceived coworker entitlement	Core self-evaluations	Psychological distress	Manager-rated OCBI	.02, .01, .00	-.02	(-.27, .27)
9c	Perceived coworker entitlement	Core self-evaluations	Psychological distress	OCBO	.00, .01, .02	.02	(-.01, .07)
9c	Perceived coworker entitlement	Core self-evaluations	Psychological distress	Manager-rated OCBO	.05, .02, .01	-.04	(-.43, .23)
9d	Perceived coworker entitlement	Core self-evaluations	Psychological distress	Pay satisfaction	-.01, .01, .04	.04	(-.01, .11)
9e	Perceived coworker entitlement	Core self-evaluations	Psychological distress	CWBI	.00, .00, -.01	-.01	(-.03, .01)
9f	Perceived coworker entitlement	Core self-evaluations	Psychological distress	CWBO	.00, -.01, -.02	-.02	(-.05, .01)
12a	Perceived coworker entitlement	Equity sensitivity	Psychological distress	In-role behavior	.00, .00, .01	.01	(-.02, .04)
12b	Perceived coworker entitlement	Equity sensitivity	Psychological distress	OCBI	.00, .00, .01	.01	(-.04, .05)
12b	Perceived coworker entitlement	Equity sensitivity	Psychological distress	Manager-rated OCBI	-.04, .02, .03	.04	(-.38, .33)
12c	Perceived coworker entitlement	Equity sensitivity	Psychological distress	OCBO	-.01, .01, .02	.02	(-.01, .07)
12c	Perceived coworker entitlement	Equity sensitivity	Psychological distress	Manager-rated OCBO	-.08, .03, .06	.09	(-.34, .62)
12d	Perceived coworker entitlement	Equity sensitivity	Psychological distress	Pay satisfaction	-.02, .02, .05	.05	(-.02, .11)
12e	Perceived coworker entitlement	Equity sensitivity	Psychological distress	CWBI	.00, -.01, -.01	-.01	(-.03, .01)
12f	Perceived coworker entitlement	Equity sensitivity	Psychological distress	CWBO	.01, -.01, -.02	-.02	(-.05, .01)

Table 13

Table 13. Summary of Hypothesis Tests

Hypothesis	Result
1	Not Supported
2	Not Supported
3	Not Supported
4	Not Supported
5	Not Supported
6	Supported
7	Not Supported
8	Supported
9	Not Supported
10	Not Supported
11	Not Supported
12	Not Supported

Table 14

Table 14. Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Dev.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. Perceived coworker entitlement	3.30	0.82	(0.90)													
2. Distributive justice	3.47	0.97	-0.01	(0.92)												
3. Procedural justice	3.43	0.80	0.08	0.57**	(0.88)											
4. Interpersonal justice	4.28	0.86	0.08	0.25**	0.44**	(0.93)										
5. Informational justice	3.71	0.93	0.12	0.34**	0.54**	0.72**	(0.91)									
6. Job satisfaction	3.68	0.96	0.00	0.40**	0.51**	0.38**	0.42**	(0.91)								
7. OCBI	5.39	1.04	0.16*	0.14*	0.32**	0.18**	0.24**	0.27**	(0.88)							
8. OCBO	5.49	0.86	0.11	0.10	0.20**	0.12	0.14*	0.19**	0.47**	(0.72)						
9. Emotional exhaustion	3.79	1.51	0.12	-0.41**	-0.37**	-0.27**	-0.34**	-0.33**	-0.05	-0.11	(0.90)					
10. Social desirability	3.87	0.73	-0.09	0.20**	0.20**	0.08	0.14*	0.14	0.26**	0.29**	-0.20**	(0.71)				
11. Age	31.46	7.96	0.02	0.04	0.09	0.08	0.06	0.16*	0.15*	0.23**	-0.12	0.05				
12. Tenure	3.80	4.67	0.00	-0.03	0.04	0.08	0.13	0.06	0.17*	0.24**	0.03	0.01	0.54**			
13. Manager-rated OCBI	5.68	1.07	-0.02	-0.06	-0.07	0.40*	0.43*	-0.01	0.04	-0.25	-0.05	0.02	0.30	0.12	(0.87)	
14. Manager-rated OCBO	5.92	0.85	-0.12	0.36	0.20	0.03	0.29	0.28	-0.05	0.03	-0.54**	0.34	0.08	-0.17	0.34	(0.74)

* p<.05

** p<.01

n=200 for 1-12

n=30 for 13-14

Note: α on diagonal

Table 15

Table 15. Regression Models 1-10

Variables	Models									
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6	Model 7	Model 8	Model 9	Model 10
Intercept	2.42**(.00)	2.387**(.00)	1.55**(.00)	1.46**(.01)	1.21*(.02)	1.15*(.02)	.99**(.01)	1.06'(.06)	1.34*(.01)	1.35**(.01)
Age	.02*(.05)	.02*(.05)	.02'(.07)	.02*(.05)	.02'(.09)	.02'(.06)	.02'(.06)	.02*(.04)	.02*(.02)	.02*(.02)
Tenure	-.01(.74)	-.01(.74)	.00(.95)	.00(.94)	-.01(.74)	-.01(.72)	-.01(.54)	-.01(.45)	-.02(.25)	-.02(.25)
Social desirability	.17'(.07)	.17'(.07)	.07(.44)	.06(.49)	.04(.66)	.03(.69)	.13(.14)	.11(.19)	.08(.33)	.08(.34)
Perceived coworker entitlement (PCE)		.01(.92)	.00(.97)	.02(.83)	-.05(.53)	-.03(.64)	-.03(.73)	.00(.96)	-.06(.44)	-.05(.54)
Distributive justice (DJ)			.38**(.00)	.39**(.00)						
Procedural justice (PJ)					.59**(.00)	.59**(.00)				
Interpersonal justice (INTJ)							.41**(.00)	.37**(.00)		
Informational justice (INFOJ)									.43**(.01)	.42**(.00)
PCE*DJ				-.08(.28)						
PCE*PJ						-.10(.23)				
PCE*INTJ								-.18*(.05)		
PCE*INFOJ										-.08(.31)
R ²	0.04	0.04	0.18	0.19	0.27	0.28	0.17	0.19	0.21	0.21
Adjusted R ²	0.03	0.02	0.16	0.16	0.25	0.25	0.15	0.16	0.19	0.19
F-Change	2.831*(.04)	.01(.92)	16.92**(.00)	1.20(.28)	30.47**(.00)	1.48(.23)	15.41**(.00)	3.79*(.05)	19.97**(.00)	1.04(.31)

Notes:

Dependent variable: Job satisfaction

**p<.01, *p<.05, 'p<.10; n=200

Table 16

Table 16. Regression Models 11-20

Variables	Models									
	Model 11	Model 12	Model 13	Model 14	Model 15	Model 16	Model 17	Model 18	Model 19	Model 20
Intercept	3.61**(.00)	2.79**(.00)	2.57**(.00)	2.55**(.00)	2.14**(.00)	2.09**(.00)	2.23**(.00)	2.25**(.00)	2.35**(.00)	2.34**(.00)
Age	.01(.46)	.01(.49)	.01(.53)	.01(.52)	.01(.65)	.01(.56)	.01(.53)	.01(.50)	.01(.45)	.01(.46)
Tenure	.03'(.08)	.03'(.07)	.03'(.06)	.03'(.06)	.03'(.06)	.03'(.06)	.03'(.09)	.03'(.10)	.03(.13)	.03(.13)
Social desirability	.37**(.00)	.39**(.00)	.36**(.00)	.36**(.00)	.32**(.00)	.31**(.00)	.37**(.00)	.37**(.00)	.35**(.00)	.35**(.00)
Perceived coworker entitlement (PCE)		.23**(.01)	.23**(.01)	.23**(.01)	.20*(.02)	.21*(.01)	.21*(.01)	.23**(.01)	.20*(.02)	.19*(.03)
Distributive justice (DJ)			.10(.18)	.10(.17)						
Procedural justice (PJ)					.32**(.00)	.32**(.00)				
Interpersonal justice (INTJ)							.16*(.04)	.15'(.07)		
Informational justice (INFOJ)									.18*(.02)	.19*(.02)
PCE*DJ				-.02(.82)						
PCE*PJ						-.09(.34)				
PCE*INTJ								-.06(.55)		
PCE*INFOJ										.05(.59)
R ²	0.10	0.13	0.14	0.14	0.19	0.20	0.15	0.15	0.16	0.16
Adjusted R ²	0.09	0.12	0.12	0.12	0.17	0.17	0.13	0.13	0.14	0.13
F-Change	7.30**(.00)	7.31**(.01)	4.58**(.01)	.05(.82)	10.96**(.00)	.93(.34)	5.77**(.00)	.36(.55)	6.55**(.00)	.30(.59)

Notes:

Dependent variable: OCBI

**p<.01, *p<.05, 'p<.10; n=200

Table 17

Table 17. Regression Models 21-30

Variables	Models									
	Model 21	Model 22	Model 23	Model 24	Model 25	Model 26	Model 27	Model 28	Model 29	Model 30
Intercept	3.67**(.00)	3.18**(.00)	3.09**(.00)	3.13**(.00)	2.91**(.00)	2.90**(.00)	2.95**(.00)	3.00**(.00)	3.05**(.00)	3.07**(.00)
Age	.01'(.10)	.01(.11)	.01(.12)	.01(.14)	.01(.14)	.01(.13)	.01(.11)	.01'(.09)	.01(.10)	.01'(.09)
Tenure	.03*(.03)	.03*(.03)	.03*(.03)	.03*(.03)	.03*(.03)	.03*(.03)	.03*(.03)	.03*(.04)	.03*(.04)	.03*(.04)
Social desirability	.33**(.00)	.34**(.00)	.33**(.00)	.33**(.00)	.31**(.00)	.31**(.00)	.33**(.00)	.32**(.00)	.33**(.00)	.33**(.00)
Perceived coworker entitlement (PCE)		.14*(.05)	.13*(.05)	.13'(.07)	.12'(.08)	.12'(.07)	.13'(.06)	.15*(.04)	.13'(.07)	.14*(.05)
Distributive justice (DJ)			.04(.50)	.04(.54)						
Procedural justice (PJ)					.13'(.06)	.13'(.07)				
Interpersonal justice (INTJ)							.07(.32)	.04(.52)		
Informational justice (INFOJ)									.05(.42)	.04(.54)
PCE*DJ				.04(.56)						
PCE*PJ						-.02(.83)				
PCE*INTJ								-.11(.18)		
PCE*INFOJ										-.07(.35)
R ²	0.15	0.17	0.17	0.17	0.18	0.18	0.17	0.18	0.17	0.17
Adjusted R ²	0.14	0.15	0.15	0.14	0.16	0.16	0.15	0.15	0.15	0.15
F-Change	11.56**(.00)	3.84*(.05)	2.15(.12)	.35(.56)	3.68*(.03)	.05(.83)	2.41'(.09)	1.78(.18)	2.25(.11)	.88(.35)

Notes:

Dependent variable: OCBO

**p<.01, *p<.05, 'p<.10; n=200

Table 18

Table 18. Regression Models 31-40

Variables	Models									
	Model 31	Model 32	Model 33	Model 34	Model 35	Model 36	Model 37	Model 38	Model 39	Model 40
Intercept	6.26**(.00)	5.53*(.00)	6.81**(.00)	7.20**(.00)	6.84**(.00)	6.97**(.00)	7.13**(.00)	7.02**(.00)	6.93**(.00)	6.87**(.00)
Age	-.04*(.03)	-.04*(.02)	-.03*(.03)	-.04**(.01)	-.03*(.04)	-.03*(.02)	-.03*(.03)	-.04*(.02)	-.04**(.01)	-.04**(.01)
Tenure	.04'(.10)	.04'(.10)	.04(.14)	.04(.12)	.04'(.08)	.04'(.08)	.05'(.06)	.05*(.04)	.06*(.02)	.06*(.01)
Social desirability	-.40**(.01)	-.38**(.01)	-.22(.11)	-.19(.15)	-.23'(.10)	-.22(.11)	-.33*(.02)	-.30*(.03)	-.26*(.05)	-.26'(.06)
Perceived coworker entitlement (PCE)		.20(.11)	.21'(.07)	.15(.20)	.26*(.03)	.24*(.05)	.24*(.05)	.19(.12)	.29*(.02)	.25*(.04)
Distributive justice (DJ)			-.58**(.00)	-.62**(.00)						
Procedural justice (PJ)					-.66**(.00)	-.66**(.00)				
Interpersonal justice (INTJ)							-.47**(.00)	-.41**(.00)		
Informational justice (INFOJ)									-.58**(.00)	-.52**(.00)
PCE*DJ				.37**(.00)						
PCE*PJ						.20(.15)				
PCE*INTJ								.29'(.06)		
PCE*INFOJ										.30*(.02)
R ²	0.07	0.08	0.21	0.26	0.19	0.20	0.15	0.16	0.20	0.22
Adjusted R ²	0.05	0.06	0.19	0.23	0.17	0.18	0.13	0.14	0.18	0.20
F-Change	4.61**(.01)	2.54(.11)	18.15**(.00)	10.82**(.00)	15.42**(.00)	2.14(.15)	9.38**(.00)	3.68'(.06)	15.82**(.00)	5.77*(.02)

Notes:

Dependent variable: Emotional exhaustion

**p<.01, *p<.05, 'p<.10; n=200

Table 19

Table 19. Summary of Hypothesis Tests

Hypothesis	Result
1	Not Supported
2	Supported
3	Not Supported
4	Partially Supported
5	Not Supported
6	Partially Supported
7	Partially Supported

Table 20

Table 20. Regression Models 41-50

Variables	Models									
	Model 41	Model 42	Model 43	Model 44	Model 45	Model 46	Model 47	Model 48	Model 49	Model 50
Intercept	3.85*(.04)	4.26*(.05)	4.33*(.05)	5.04*(.04)	4.22'(.08)	4.45'(.06)	1.97(.36)	1.77(.42)	2.16(.27)	2.14(.29)
Age	.04(.12)	.04(.11)	.04(.12)	.04(.11)	.04(.13)	.05'(.08)	.04(.12)	.04(.11)	.05*(.05)	.05'(.06)
Tenure	-.02(.69)	-.03(.64)	-.03(.63)	-.04(.54)	-.03(.65)	-.03(.54)	-.01(.77)	-.02(.71)	-.03(.55)	-.03(.54)
Social desirability	.15(.70)	.13(.76)	.15(.73)	-.03(.95)	.13(.77)	-.08(.86)	.11(.78)	.12(.75)	.07(.85)	.07(.84)
Perceived coworker entitlement (PCE)		-.11(.69)	-.11(.71)	-.12(.67)	-.11(.69)	-.03(.93)	-.21(.44)	-.29(.33)	-.31(.30)	-.34(.30)
Distributive justice (DJ)			-.05(.80)	-.05(.82)						
Procedural justice (PJ)					.01(.97)	.03(.91)				
Interpersonal justice (INTJ)							.61*(.03)	.68*(.03)		
Informational justice (INFOJ)									.69**(0.01)	.70*(.01)
PCE*DJ				-.18(.52)						
PCE*PJ						-.45(.21)				
PCE*INTJ								.23(.51)		
PCE*INFOJ										.05(.89)
R ²	0.11	0.12	0.12	0.14	0.12	0.18	0.28	0.29	0.35	0.35
Adjusted R ²	0.01	-0.02	-0.06	-0.09	-0.06	-0.04	0.13	0.11	0.21	0.18
F-Change	1.11(.36)	.17(.69)	.11(.90)	.44(.52)	.08(.92)	1.66(.21)	2.71'(.09)	.44(.51)	4.24*(.03)	.02(.89)

Notes:

Dependent variable: Manager-rated OCBI

**p<.01, *p<.05, 'p<.10; n=30

Table 21

Table 21. Regression Models 51-60

Variables	Models									
	Model 51	Model 52	Model 53	Model 54	Model 55	Model 56	Model 57	Model 58	Model 59	Model 60
Intercept	3.73**(.00)	4.29**(.01)	4.01**(.01)	5.21**(.00)	3.38*(.04)	3.50*(.03)	4.28*(.01)	4.89**(.00)	3.25*(.03)	3.39*(.02)
Age	.02(.19)	.03(.15)	.03(.15)	.03(.08)	.03'(.09)	.04'(.06)	.03(.16)	.02(.20)	.03(.11)	.02(.17)
Tenure	-.03(.47)	-.03(.38)	-.02(.50)	-.04(.28)	-.04(.29)	-.04(.25)	-.03(.40)	-.02(.59)	-.03(.33)	-.02(.60)
Social desirability	.41(.15)	.37(.19)	.28(.32)	-.03(.94)	.36(.21)	.25(.41)	.37(.20)	.32(.21)	.34(.21)	.28(.28)
Perceived coworker entitlement (PCE)		-.15(.43)	-.17(.36)	-.20(.27)	-.16(.42)	-.11(.58)	-.16(.44)	.10(.62)	-.25(.19)	.02(.94)
Distributive justice (DJ)			.20(.15)	.21(.12)						
Procedural justice (PJ)					.22(.18)	.23(.16)				
Interpersonal justice (INTJ)							.00(.99)	-.23(.24)		
Informational justice (INFOJ)									.34'(.07)	.20(.27)
PCE*DJ				-.31(.09)						
PCE*PJ						-.24(.31)				
PCE*INTJ								-.69**(.01)		
PCE*INFOJ										-.50*(.04)
R ²	0.17	0.20	0.26	0.35	0.26	0.29	0.2	0.43	0.3	0.42
Adjusted R ²	0.08	0.07	0.11	0.19	0.10	0.10	0.03	0.28	0.16	0.27
F-Change	1.82(.17)	.66(.43)	1.46(.25)	3.23'(.09)	1.32(.29)	1.06(.31)	.32(.73)	9.41**(.01)	2.23(.13)	4.69*(.04)

Notes:

Dependent variable: Manager-rated OCBO

**p<.01, *p<.05, 'p<.10; n=30

APPENDIX C: IRB EMPLOYEE CONSENT

Title: Workplace Climate

Investigator(s): Stephanie Castro, Katarina Brant

Thank you for participating in our anonymous and confidential research study. The purpose of this research study is to understand the key concerns, outcomes, and metrics used for workplace climate. The results will be used to develop models explaining these outcomes.

We invite you to answer questions pertaining to your role as an employee at your organization. This survey will take about 15 minutes to complete. You will be asked to provide the e-mail address of your manager so he/she are able to answer a quick survey. The surveys have a unique identifier so we are able to anonymously match up employee and manager surveys during our data analysis for research purposes. There is no way for us to identify you. No one will see your responses except for the investigator(s). **Your manager and employer will not get to see any of the information you provide.** Please answer all questions as incomplete answers will undermine the usefulness of this research.


The investigator(s) will maintain possession of your responses. The responses will be stored on a secure password protected drive. Your responses will remain confidential, unless otherwise required by law or statute. We believe that the nature of the questions do not prompt or require answers which in any way should put you at risk.

All information collected about you will be kept confidential and secure and only the investigators working with the study will see your data, unless required by law. The data will be kept for 10 years in a password protected drive. After 10 years, raw electronic data will be deleted. We may publish what we learn from this study. If we do, the organization will not be identified.

If you have questions about the study, you should call or email the principal investigator, Dr. Stephanie Castro at (954)236-1350 or scastro@fau.edu. If you have questions or concerns about your rights as a research participant, contact the Florida Atlantic University Division of Research at (561) 297-0777 or send an email to fau.research@fau.edu.

I have read the information describing this study. All my questions have been answered to my satisfaction. I am 18 years of age or older and freely consent to participate. I understand that I am free to withdraw from this study at any time without penalty. If you choose, you can print a copy of this consent form for your personal records.

- ☐ I consent to participate in this study.
☐ I do not consent to participate in this study.

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	Approved On:	October 18, 2016
	Expires On:	October 18, 2017

APPENDIX D: IRB MANAGER CONSENT

Title: Workplace Climate
Investigator(s): Stephanie Castro, Katarina Brant
Code Number:

Thank you for participating in our anonymous and confidential research study. The purpose of this research study is to understand the key concerns, outcomes, and metrics used for workplace climate. The results will be used to develop models explaining these outcomes.

We invite you to answer questions pertaining to your employee. This survey will take about 5 minutes to complete. You will be asked to provide the e-mail address of your employee so he/she are able to answer a survey. The surveys have a unique identifier so we are able to anonymously match up employee and manager surveys during our data analysis for research purposes. There is no way for us to identify you. No one will see your responses except for the investigator(s). **Your manager, employees, and employer will not get to see any of the information you provide.** Please answer all questions as incomplete answers will undermine the usefulness of this research.


The investigator(s) will maintain possession of your responses. The responses will be stored on a secure password protected drive. Your responses will remain confidential, unless otherwise required by law or statute. We believe that the nature of the questions do not prompt or require answers which in any way should put you at risk.

All information collected about you will be kept confidential and secure and only the investigators working with the study will see your data, unless required by law. The data will be kept for 10 years in a password protected drive. After 10 years, raw electronic data will be deleted. We may publish what we learn from this study. If we do, the organization will not be identified.

If you have questions about the study, you should call or email the principal investigator, Dr. Stephanie Castro at (954)236-1350 or scastro@fau.edu. If you have questions or concerns about your rights as a research participant, contact the Florida Atlantic University Division of Research at (561) 297-0777 or send an email to fau.research@fau.edu.

I have read the information describing this study. All my questions have been answered to my satisfaction. I am 18 years of age or older and freely consent to participate. I understand that I am free to withdraw from this study at any time without penalty. If you choose, you can print a copy of this consent form for your personal records.

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APPENDIX E: MEASURES

Affect

Measure Name: Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS)

Citation: Watson, Clark, & Tellegen (1988)

This scale consists of a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions. Please read each item and then indicate to what extent you have felt this way over the past year.

1 “Very slightly or not at all” 2 “A little” 3 “Moderately” 4 “Quite a bit” 5 “Extremely”

1. Interested
2. Distressed
3. Excited
4. Upset
5. Strong
6. Guilty
7. Scared
8. Hostile
9. Enthusiastic
10. Proud
11. Irritable
12. Alert
13. Ashamed
14. Inspired
15. Nervous
16. Determined
17. Attentive
18. Jittery
19. Active
20. Afraid

Core self-evaluations

Measure Name: Core Self-Evaluations Scale (CSES)

Citation: Judge, Erez, Bono, & Thoresen (2003)

Dimensions: locus of control, self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, emotional stability/neuroticism

Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements:

1 “Strongly Disagree” to 5 “Strongly Agree”

1. I am confident I get the success I deserve in life.
2. Sometimes I feel depressed. R
3. When I try, I generally succeed.
4. Sometimes when I fail I feel worthless. R
5. I complete tasks successfully.

6. Sometimes, I do not feel in control of my work. R
7. Overall, I am satisfied with myself.
8. I am filled with doubts about my competence. R
9. I determine what will happen in my life.
10. I do not feel in control of my success in my career. R
11. I am capable of coping with most of my problems.
12. There are times when things look pretty bleak and hopeless to me. R

Counterproductive work behaviors (CWBI/O)

Measure Name: 10-Item Short Version of the Counterproductive Work Behavior Checklist (CWB-C)

Citation: Spector, Bauer, & Fox (2010)

Dimensions: individual, organization

How often have you done each of the following things on your present job?

1 “Never” 2 “Once or twice” 3 “Once or twice/month” 4 “Once or twice/week” 5 “Every day”

1. Purposely wasted your employer’s materials/supplies.
2. Complained about insignificant things at work.
3. Told people outside the job what a lousy place you work for.
4. Came to work late without permission.
5. Stayed home from work and said you were sick when you weren’t.
6. Insulted someone about their job performance.
7. Made fun of someone’s personal life.
8. Ignored someone at work.
9. Started an argument with someone at work.
10. Insulted or made fun of someone at work.

Emotional exhaustion

Citation: Schaufeli (1996)

Used items from the exhaustion subscale of the MBI-GS

Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements:

1 “Strongly Disagree” to 7 “Strongly Agree”

1. I feel emotionally drained from my work. (EX)
2. I feel used up at the end of the workday. (EX)
3. I feel tired when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job. (EX)
4. Working all day is really a strain for me. (EX)
5. I feel burned out from my work. (EX)

Equity sensitivity

Measure Name: Equity Preference Questionnaire (EPQ)

Citation: Sauley & Bedeian (2000)

Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements:

1 “Strongly disagree” to 5 “Strongly agree”

1. I prefer to do as little as possible at work while getting as much as I can from my employer. R
2. I am most satisfied at work when I have to do as little as possible. R
3. When I am at my job, I think of ways to get out of work. R
4. If I could get away with it, I would try to work just a little bit slower than the boss expects. R
5. It is really satisfying to me when I can get something for nothing at work. R
6. It is the smart employee who gets as much as he/she can while giving as little as possible in return. R
7. Employees who are more concerned about what they can get from their employer rather than what they can give to their employer are the wise ones. R
8. When I have completed my task for the day, I help out other employees who have yet to complete their tasks.
9. Even if I received low wages and poor benefits from my employer, I would still try to do my best at my job.
10. If I had to work hard all day at my job, I would probably quit. R
11. I feel obligated to do more than I am paid to do at work.
12. At work, my greatest concern is whether or not I am doing the best job I can.
13. A job which requires me to be busy during the day is better than a job which allows me a lot of loafing.
14. At work, I feel uneasy when there is little work for me to do.
15. I would become very dissatisfied with my job if I had little or no work to do.
16. All other things being equal, it is better to have a job with a lot of duties and responsibilities than one with few duties and responsibilities.

Job performance (in-role behavior and OCBI/O)

Citation: Williams & Anderson (1991)

Dimensions: in-role performance, OCB directed toward others, and OCB directed toward the organization

Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements:

1 “Strongly Disagree” to 7 “Strongly Agree”

1. I adequately complete assigned duties.
2. I fulfill responsibilities specified in my job description.
3. I perform tasks that are expected of me.
4. I meet formal performance requirements of the job.
5. I engage in activities that will directly affect my performance evaluation.
6. I neglect aspects of the job I am obligated to perform. (R)
7. I fail to perform essential duties. (R)
8. I help others who have been absent.
9. I help others who have heavy work-loads.
10. I assist my supervisor with his/her work (when not asked).

11. I take time to listen to coworkers' problems and worries.
12. I go out of my way to help new employees.
13. I take a personal interest in other employees.
14. I pass along information to coworkers.
15. My attendance at work is above the norm.
16. I give advance notice when unable to come to work.
17. I take undeserved work breaks. (R)
18. I spend a great deal of time with personal phone, email, or text-based conversations. (R)
19. I complain about insignificant things at work. (R)
20. I conserve and protect organizational property.
21. I adhere to informal rules devised to maintain order.

Job satisfaction

Citation: Hackman & Oldham (1976)

Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements:

1 “Strongly Disagree” to 5 “Strongly Agree”

1. Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with my job.
2. I am generally satisfied with the feeling of worthwhile accomplishment I get from doing this job.
3. I am generally satisfied with the kind of work I do in this job.

Organizational justice

Citation: Colquitt (2001)

Dimensions: procedural, distributive, interpersonal, informational

1 “To a Very Small Extent” to 5 “To a Very Large Extent”

The following items refer to the procedures used in your workplace. In general, to what extent:

1. Have you been able to express your views and feelings during those procedures?
2. Have you had influence over the outcomes arrived at by those procedures?
3. Have those procedures been applied consistently?
4. Have those procedures been free of bias?
5. Have those procedures been based on accurate information?
6. Have you been able to appeal an outcome arrived at by those procedures?
7. Have those procedures upheld ethical and moral standards?

The following items refer to your outcomes of procedures in your workplace. In general, to what extent:

1. Do your outcomes reflect the effort you have put into your work?
2. Are your outcomes appropriate for the work you have completed?
3. Do your outcomes reflect what you have contributed to the organization?
4. Are your outcomes justified, given your performance?

The following items refer to your boss. To what extent:

1. Has he/she treated you in a polite manner?
2. Has he/she treated you with dignity?

3. Has he/she treated you with respect?
4. Has he/she refrained from improper remarks or comments?

The following items refer to your boss. To what extent:

1. Has he/she been candid in his/her communication with you?
2. Has he/she explained the procedures thoroughly?
3. Were his/her explanations regarding the procedures reasonable?
4. Has he/she communicated details in a timely manner?
5. Has he/she seemed to tailor his/her communications to individuals' specific needs?

Pay satisfaction

Measure Name: Pay Satisfaction Questionnaire

Citation: Heneman & Schwab (1985)

The statements below describe various aspects of your pay. For each statement, how satisfied or dissatisfied do you feel about your pay?

1 "Very Dissatisfied" to 5 "Very Satisfied"

1. My take-home pay.
2. My benefit package.
3. My most recent raise.
4. My benefit package.
5. My most recent raise.
6. Influence my supervisor has on my pay.
7. My current salary.
8. Amount the company pays toward my benefits.
9. The raises I have typically received in the past.
10. The company's pay structure.
11. Information the company gives about pay issues of concern to me.
12. My overall level of pay.
13. The value of my benefits.
14. Pay of other jobs in the company.
15. Consistency of the company's pay policies.
16. Size of my current salary.
17. The number of benefits I receive.
18. How my raises are determined.
19. Differences in pay among jobs in the company.
20. How the company administers pay.

Perceived coworker entitlement

Citation: Hochwarter, Meurs, Perrewé, Royle, & Matherly (2007)

Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements:

1 "Strongly Disagree" to 5 "Strongly Agree"

1. Many employees act as if they are more deserving than others at work without putting in the effort.
2. Many employees expect good things to come their way at work without paying their dues.

3. Many employees demand the best at work even though most agree that they shouldn't get it.
4. Many employees act as if more things should go their way without adequate contribution to the department.
5. Many employees feel as though they deserve extra breaks even though they don't deserve them.
6. Many employees feel entitled to favorable treatment at work.

Psychological distress

Citation: Goldberg (1972)

How have you been feeling, in general, over the past few weeks as a result of your job?
Have you recently?

0 "Better than usual" to 3 "Much less than usual"

1. Been able to concentrate on what you're doing? (R)
2. Lost much sleep over worry?
3. Felt you were playing a useful part in things? (R)
4. Felt capable of making decisions about things? (R)
5. Felt constantly under strain?
6. Felt you couldn't overcome your difficulties?
7. Been able to enjoy your normal day-to-day activities? (R)
8. Been able to face up to your problems? (R)
9. Been feeling unhappy and depressed?
10. Been losing confidence in yourself?
11. Been thinking of yourself as a worthless person?
12. Been feeling reasonably happy, all things considered? (R)

Social desirability

Citation: Hays, Hayashi, & Stewart (1989)

Listed below are a few statements about your relationship with others. To what extent is each statement true or false for you?

1 "Definitely True" to 5 "Definitely False"

1. I am always courteous even to people who are disagreeable.
2. There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone. (R)
3. I sometimes try to get even rather than forgive and forget. (R)
4. I sometimes feel resentful when I don't get my way. (R)
5. No matter who I'm talking to, I'm always a good listener.

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