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Measurement of Psychological Entitlement in 28 Countries

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Abstract

This article presents the cross-cultural validation of the Entitlement Attitudes Questionnaire, a tool designed to measure three facets of psychological entitlement: active, passive and revenge entitlement. *Active entitlement* was defined as the tendency to protect individual rights based on self-worthiness. *Passive entitlement* was defined as the belief in obligations to and expectations toward other people and institutions for the fulfillment of the individual's needs. *Revenge entitlement* was defined as the tendency to protect one's individual rights when violated by others and the tendency to reciprocate insults. The 15-item EAQ was validated in a series of three studies: the first one on a general Polish sample ($N = 1,900$), the second one on a sample of Polish students ($N = 199$) and the third one on student samples from 28 countries ($N = 5,979$). A three-factor solution was confirmed across all samples. Examination of measurement equivalence indicated partial metric invariance of EAQ for all national samples. Discriminant and convergent validity of the EAQ was also confirmed.

Key words: psychological entitlement; Entitlement Attitudes Questionnaire; cross-cultural research; measurement invariance

The Measurement of Psychological Entitlement in 28 Countries

From the perspective of the social sciences, entitlement is typically defined as the sense that one deserves special treatment (Bishop & Lane, 2002; Campbell, Bonacci, Shelton, Exline, & Bushman, 2004; Exline, Bushman, Baumeister, Campbell, & Finkel, 2004). Entitlement includes the expectation that other people and public institutions should support individual needs (Kręzlewski, 1990), but it is not always expressed openly. A sense of entitlement represents a social phenomenon that has been observed across most regions of the world in the form of mass movements, consumer complaints, protection of personal rights in everyday interactions, and expectations of public aid in difficult life situations. The present paper aims to demonstrate a new tool for measuring entitlement that can be applied in different cultural contexts. We begin our paper with a review of existing approaches and frequently used tools for measuring entitlement. We argue that these measures focus only on some facets of the entitlement and do not include the multidimensional nature of this construct. Next, we propose a three-dimensional model and measure of entitlement and validate its structure in 28 national samples, representing most of the cultural regions in the world.

Conceptualizations of Entitlement

Entitlement is broadly studied across various scientific disciplines, from psychology and sociology to management and political philosophy (see Naumann, Minsky, & Sturman, 2002; Tomlinson, 2013). In the psychological literature, there have been at least two overarching approaches to the conceptualization of entitlement. One approach has focused on the pathological aspects of entitlement, with a particular emphasis on its link to narcissism (Bishop & Lane, 2002; Campbell et al., 2004; Emmons, 1984; Raskin & Terry, 1988; Twenge, 2006). The other approach has focused on the social psychological aspects of entitlement, with a particular emphasis on interpersonal relations, justification for demands,

and fairness (De Cremer, 2006; Feather, 1994, 1999; Tomlinson, 2013). Entitlement is also studied from political philosophy and law perspectives (Nozick, 1974; Nussbaum, 2003; Super, 2006), as well as from a management perspective (Fisk, 2010; Maconachie & Goodwin, 2010; Naumann, Minsky, & Sturmman, 2002). Nevertheless, there is little work that attempts to integrate all these perspectives into one comprehensive approach (see Naumann, Minsky, & Sturman, 2002; Tomlinson, 2013). For these reasons, an integrative model of entitlement and a research tool based on such a comprehensive model is particularly useful for further examination of the entitlement phenomenon.

Personality Psychology Perspective on Entitlement

Personality psychology includes both pathological and non-pathological approaches to understanding entitlement. From a clinical perspective, which focuses on the pathological concept of entitlement, entitlement is viewed as a component of a narcissistic personality (Raskin & Terry, 1988). In this context, entitlement is understood as an exploitive, unjustified demand for special treatment because of the person's special capabilities, characteristics, and/or position. This type of entitlement is viewed as pathological and socially undesirable behavior (Bishop & Lane, 2002) that is related to revengefulness and includes difficulties with forgiveness (Exline et al., 2004; Exline & Zell, 2009), the expectation for success without personal responsibility (Chowning & Campbell, 2009), and problematic functioning in a work context (Fisk, 2010; Harvey & Harris, 2010).

Although entitlement is not always viewed as a pathological, psychological entitlement continues to be conceptualized as an undesirable psychological state (Campbell et al., 2004; Twenge & Campbell, 2009), or at least related to the constellation of negative personality traits defined as the Dark Triad, i.e. narcissism, psychopathy, and Machiavellianism (Jonason & Luévano; 2013; Jonason & Webster, 2010). This formulation of psychological entitlement involves both entitlement and deservingness characteristics (see

Feather, 2003); however, it continues to be conceptualized within a narcissistic context (see Pryor, Miller, & Gaughan, 2008).

Social Psychological Perspective on Entitlement

From a social psychological perspective, entitlement is viewed in terms of perceived deservingness, with an emphasis on social justice and fairness (Feather, 1994, 1999; Lerner, 1987). Entitlement understood as deservingness has been related to the demand for greater compensation for work performed (Major, McFarlin, & Gagnon, 1984; Moore, 1991; Pelham & Hetts, 2001), consumer complaints (Bodey & Grace, 2007), and negative reactions to injustice and unfairness (De Cremer, 2006). This type of entitlement is not described as pathological or even as a personality trait, but rather as a behavioral tendency that could be undesirable to some extent, but is also beneficial. Feather (2003) links the idea of entitlement to social norms and obligations that provide justification for receiving entitlements. This understanding of entitlement as perceived deservingness, whether or not people are entitled to benefits or support, is based on their social position and situation, not personal effort or actions.

Most publications on entitlement and/or deservingness typically focus on the general tendency to formulate demands. However, some Central-European scholars have focused on entitlement based on the individual expectation that the state and/or other people will fulfill their needs. Researchers working from this perspective concentrate on problems with exploitive demands and the passivity of people with the so-called *gimme syndrome* (Koralewicz & Ziólkowski, 1991, see also Klicperova, Feierabend, & Hofstetter, 1997). In this approach, entitlement is measured with questions about social obligations (e.g., The state should provide allowance for the poorest; Parents are obligated to provide a house for their children). This latter concept of entitlement is congruent with law and political philosophy perspectives (see Nozick, 1974; Nussbaum, 2003; Super, 2006), but it is weakly related to the

commonly utilized definition of entitlement that is typically examined in studies of narcissism.

Measurement of Entitlement

Some measures typically used in entitlement research include 1) the Narcissistic Personality Inventory – a subscale of narcissistic entitlement (NPI; Raskin & Terry, 1988) and, 2) the Psychological Entitlement Scale (PES; Campbell et. al, 2004). A critical review of the NPI concluded that the measure has low face validity, contains few items, and has low reliability (Campbell et al., 2004). The PES is free from most of these psychometric problems, but it is recognized as emphasizing the narcissistic approach to entitlement approach as there are a very similar correlates the NPI and the PES to external variables, for instance personality traits (Pryor, Miller, & Gaughan, 2008). Thus, there is still no widely used measure available to examine entitlement that does not employ the narcissistic perspective. Although additional measures of entitlement exist, they have been used only with North American samples (e.g. Entitlement Attitude Scale; Nadkarni, 1994), mostly in clinical contexts or within narrowly specified fields (e.g. Sense of Relational Entitlement Scale; Tolmacz & Mikulincer, 2011; Exploitive and Non-Exploitive Entitlement Scale; Lessard et al., 2011). To the best of our knowledge, there are no existing methods of examining entitlement from a social and adaptive personality psychology perspective that have been validated internationally. Moreover, the most popular scales are unifactorial (see Lessard et al., 2011).

The short overview of existing approaches and measurement instruments presented above leads to some basic conclusions: (i) the entitlement phenomenon has been examined from many different perspectives, each of which provides somewhat different views and stresses slightly different aspects; (ii) the most popular scales have been grounded in the narcissistic entitlement approach and (iii) the existing questionnaires were developed in

English-speaking populations and rarely validated in non-Western populations. Moreover, the PES and NPI do not cover completely all manifestations of entitlement, despite their popularity and utility. For instance, some aspects of entitlement that have typically been studied in Central and Eastern European countries have not been included in the validation of these scales.

The problems mentioned above lead to the proposal of a multifactorial model of entitlement (Piotrowski & Žemojtel-Piotrowska, 2009; Žemojtel-Piotrowska et al., 2013), based on assumptions about the multidimensional nature of entitlement. The model postulates three forms of entitlement depending on the relation of self-interest to other people or institutions. The first dimension is labeled “active entitlement” and is based on the promotion of self-interest and self-reliance in achieving life goals (as strictly related to agency). The second dimension is called “passive entitlement” and is conceptualized as the belief that other people and institutions have certain obligations toward the self. For this form of entitlement, the most important aspect is that social groups to which an individual belongs must serve the interest of this individual. The third postulated dimension is based on the protection of self-interest in situations where other people may violate it. It is labeled “revengefulness” and defined as the tendency to insist on revenge and the inability to forgive prior harms or insults (Piotrowski & Žemojtel-Piotrowski, 2009). Revengefulness is related to entitlement and experimental evidence has been obtained demonstrating that feeling of being wronged results in increased levels of entitlement behaviors (Bishop & Lane, 2002; Exline & Zell, 2009; Zitek, Jordan, Monin, & Leach, 2010). Based on these findings, it is assumed that a focus on sustained insults with the belief that they need to be reciprocated constitutes a distinct dimension of entitlement that is expressed in specific beliefs (like *I do not forgive sustained insults*).

The multidimensional model includes references to “classical” psychological entitlement in the form of active entitlement. Specifically, the active entitlement scale taps the narcissistic entitlement approach with its focus on self-esteem and agency, which is more prevalent in studies conducted in English-speaking, Western populations (mostly American). The passive entitlement scale probes the entitlement concept as studied in Central and Eastern Europe studies, which typically focuses on expectations toward others, including the state. Thus, both these research traditions which have typically been examined separately are now unified into one single model. The personality aspects of entitlement are reflected in active entitlement (healthy, adaptive entitlement) and in revenge entitlement (maladaptive form), whereas social aspects are reflected in the passive entitlement dimension.

The first validation of the model was carried out in Poland (Piotrowski & Żemojtel-Piotrowska, 2009). A pool of items to measure the three facets of entitlement was generated while inspiring by items from NPI (entitlement subscale; Raskin & Terry, 1988), PES (Campbell et al., 2004), and two Polish methods including the Entitlement Syndrome Questionnaire (Lewicka, 2002) and part of a general survey aimed to measure entitlement attitudes in the Polish society (Koralewicz & Ziółkowski, 1991).

The Aim of the Current Study

The current research aimed to develop and validate a measure of entitlement specifically designed to assess the three facets of the Entitlement Attitudes Questionnaire (EAQ, items provided in Appendix). In the first study, the factorial validity and reliability of the EAQ was tested using a general Polish sample. In the second study, the discriminant and convergent validity of the EAQ was examined by analyzing the relationship between facets of entitlement measured by EAQ and other entitlement and narcissism measures (PES, Entitlement Syndrome Scale, NPI, Communal Narcissism Scale), again using the Polish

sample. In the third study, the factorial structure of the entitlement and measurement invariance of the EAQ was validated in 28 countries.

Study 1: Factorial Validity and Reliability of the Entitlement Attitudes Questionnaire in

Poland

Method

Participants and Procedures. The sample consisted of 1,900 participants (55.42 % men) who were internet users registered in the general Polish research database titled ARIADNA. Participants were randomly chosen from the database for participation in the present study. The sample was representative of internet users in Poland. Age of participants ranged from 15 to 80 years old ($M_{age} = 30.47$; $SD = 12.17$). Participants were rewarded with points in ARIADNA's loyalty program, whereby they could later exchange points for small gifts.

Measures. Fifteen items (five items for each facet) were selected from the pool of items to measure the three facets of entitlement developed and first validated by Piotrowski and Žemojtel-Piotrowska (2009), taking into account (1) the theoretical meaning of the facets, (2) the possibility of translating the items into other languages for cross-cultural research and, (3) factor loadings in previous research (Piotrowski & Žemojtel-Piotrowska, 2009). The selected items formed the Entitlement Questionnaire (see Appendix). Participants answered questions on a 6-point scale (from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 6 = *strongly agree*).

Results and Discussion

The measurement model of the questionnaire, together with the loadings and inter-correlations is presented on Figure 1. We obtained the following model fit indices: $\chi^2 (87) = 869.5$, CFI = .93, RMSEA = .069, 90% CI [.065 - .073], SRMR = .054. According to the commonly used criteria (Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) and Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) smaller than .08, and Comparative Fit

Index (CFI) larger than .90; Hu & Bentler, 1999; Marsh, Hau, & Wen, 2004), the three factor model was confirmed.

We also tested a series of alternatives models: The hierarchical model with the three entitlement facets loaded equally on one general entitlement factor bordered the level of acceptability (χ^2 (89) = 1051.7, CFI = .91, RMSEA = .076, 90% CI [.07 - .80], SRMR = .085), indicating that the three facets could be treated as aspects of the same phenomenon, yet at the same indicating the value of differentiating between them. This conclusion is supported by the poor fit of the model with one factor loaded by all items (χ^2 (90) = 4917.6, CFI = .57, RMSEA = .168, 90% CI [.16 - .17], SRMR = .147). Internal consistency indices of the EAQ scales measured by Cronbach's alpha were the following: .77 for active entitlement, .88 for passive, and .80 for revenge.

Study 2: Convergent and Discriminant Validity of the EAQ

In order to validate the EAQ, the measure was correlated with the following popular measures of narcissism and psychological entitlement: the Psychological Entitlement Scale (PES; Campbell et al. 2004), the Entitlement Syndrome Scale, the Narcissism Personality Inventory (NPI; Raskin & Terry, 1988), the Communal Narcissism Scale (CNS; Gebauer et al., 2012), the Collective Narcissism Inventory (CNI; Golec de Zavala et al., 2009), and the Entitlement Attitudes section of the Entitlement Syndrome Scale (Lewicka, 2002). As the PES serves as a measure of individual, agentic, and grandiose forms of entitlement (Campbell et al., 2004), it is assumed that only active and revenge entitlement correlate positively with it. The Entitlement Attitudes Scale is based on the assumption of promoting self-interest minus the assumption of a grandiose self-view (Lewicka, 2005). For this reason, we predicted that all scales of the EAQ would correlate positively to the Entitlement Attitudes Scale. Furthermore, since the NPI serves as a measure of the agentic, individual form of narcissism (Gebauer et al. 2012) we expected to find a positive correlation between the NPI and active

and revenge forms of entitlement. However the strength of this positive relationship it was assumed to be higher for the revenge form, which is considered more maladaptive. Communal narcissism was related to communal traits (Gebauer et al., 2012), and collective narcissism is an expression of protecting group welfare and positive group self-view (Golec de Zavala et al., 2009). Due to it we expected positive correlation between passive entitlement and CNS (as an expression of communion, Gebauer et al., 2012) and PE to CNI (as an expression of group interest, Golec de Zavala et al., 2009). As collective narcissism is based on the expectation of special treatment and aggression toward out-groups (Golec de Zavala et al., 2009), we expected it to be positively correlated to revenge entitlement, as well.

Participants and Procedure

In Study 2, 199 Polish university students majoring in social sciences and mathematics participated. Of this group, 45.22% were men, with ages ranging from 18 to 44 years ($M = 22.01$; $SD = 4.16$). Data were collected in large-group using paper and-pencil tasks. Students did not receive remuneration for participation.

Measures

Cronbach's alpha of all of the following scales are presented in Table 1. For all scales average scores were computed. The Entitlement Attitudes Questionnaire was the same as used in Study 1.

Psychological Entitlement Scale (Campbell et al., 2004). This scale serves as a measure of psychological entitlement as defined by Campbell et al. (2004). It consists of nine items (e.g. *I deserve the best because I'm worth of it.*), one is reversed. Participants answered questions on 7-point scale (from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*).

Narcissistic Personality Inventory (Raskin & Terry, 1988, Polish version Bazinska & Drat-Ruszczak, 2000). This scale serves as a measure of agentic grandiose narcissism. In the

current version, participants described the extent to which a particular behavior is typical for them (from 1 = *not me* to 5 = *it's me*).

Communal Narcissism Inventory (Gebauer, Sedikides, Verplanken, & Maio, 2012).

This 16-item scale (e.g. *I'm amazing listener*) serves as a measure of communal narcissism, such as an exaggerated view of oneself in communal contexts as defined in agentic-communal model of narcissism (Gebauer et al., 2012). Participants answered the questions on a 7-point scale (from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*).

Collective Narcissism Scale (Golec de Zavala, Cichocka, Eidelson, & Jayawickreme, 2009). In current study, the 5-item form validated by Golec de Zavala, Cichocka, and Bilewicz (2013) was utilized. The scale measures collective narcissism, such as the conviction that one's own group possesses special features and therefore deserves special treatment. The validity of this scale has been confirmed by Golec de Zavala and colleagues (2009).

Entitlement Attitudes Scale (Lewicka, 2005). The Entitlement Attitudes Scale is a part of the Entitlement Syndrome Scale (Lewicka, 2005), and it is described as a measure of formulating demands toward others, including the state. In the current study we used an abbreviated form, consisting of three items (e.g. *It's the duty of the state to provide welfare to all citizens*), with 7-point Likert scale of response options.

Results and Discussion

In Table 1 correlations between different measures of entitlement (PES and EA), narcissism (NPI, CNI, CNS), and three scales of the Entitlement Attitudes Questionnaire are presented. Results support the thesis of qualitative differences between the three forms of entitlement, proving its convergent and divergent validity. Both AE and RE correlated positively with psychological entitlement, and all scales of the EAQ correlated positively to entitlement attitudes (Lewicka, 2002). AE correlated to all forms of narcissism. Correlation AE to agentic narcissism was moderate and to other forms – weak. RE, contrary to our

assumptions, correlated only to collective narcissism (CNS). Passive entitlement correlated positively only to group form of narcissism. The most important finding was they were the distinct contributions of the EAQ and the PES. AE and RE correlated positively to PES, however the strength and pattern of correlations indicated that the PES as a measure is a more oriented toward a “narcissistic” viewpoint than the scales of EAQ.

Study 3: Cross-Cultural Validation of EAQ

Method

Participants. Samples of university students were drawn from 28 countries (see Table 2 for the list of countries and detailed sample sizes), with a total sample size of 5,979 (35.8 % men). The mean of age was 22.37 years ($SD = 5.14$). Most were students of social sciences and humanities (e.g. psychology, education, philology) or management and business fields.

Procedure. National versions of the EAQ were obtained using the back translation procedure. In several cases, scientists engaged in the process of translation were bilingual. The English version was used as the basis for all translations (see Table 2 for details).

Participants responded to the items of the EAQ as well as questions about sex, age, and the socioeconomic status (SES) of their families (on 7-point scale, from 1 = *significant below average* to 7 = *significant above average*). Participants were recruited from universities, mostly from subject pools for course credit. They received extra credit points or small financial compensation for their participation based on the particular country’s customary procedure. In all samples, the questionnaires were completed in small groups.

Analyses. The factorial structure was tested using a separate CFAs in each country. To assess the fit of the model to the data, we used the same criteria as in the Polish sample, based on Hu and Bentler (1999) and Marsh et al. (2004). Next, we tested the measurement invariance of the EAQ scales across the 28 countries. Usually, three levels of measurement invariance are differentiated in multi-group confirmatory analysis (MGCFAs, Davidov

Muelleman, Cieciuch, Schmidt, & Billiet, 2014). Each level is defined by the parameters constrained to be equal across samples. Configural invariance requires each construct to be measured by the same items. Metric invariance is tested by constraining the factor loadings to be equal across compared groups. Scalar invariance is tested by constraining factor loadings and making indicator intercepts equal across groups (Davidov et al., 2014; Vandenberg & Lance, 2000). Byrne, Shavelson, and Muthen (1989) and Steenkamp and Baumgartner (1998) introduced the concept of partial invariance as sufficient for meaningful cross-group comparisons. Partial invariance is supported when the parameters of at least two indicators per construct (i.e., loadings for partial metric invariance and loadings plus intercepts for partial scalar invariance) are equal across groups.

We ran the initial MGCFA without any constraints in order to assess configural invariance. In subsequent MGCFA, we added the restrictions necessary to test each level's measurement invariance. To determine whether the subsequent levels of measurement were established, we relied on the cut-off criteria suggested by Chen (2007). In a sample larger than 300, the criteria for identifying a lack of metric invariance compared with the configural invariance model demonstrated a change larger than .01 in CFI, supplemented by a change larger than .015 in RMSEA, and a change larger than .03 in SRMR. The criteria for identifying a lack of scalar invariance compared with the metric invariance model were a change larger than .01 in CFI, supplemented by a change larger than .015 in RMSEA, or a change larger than .01 in SRMR. In the case of a lack of measurement invariance, we released the misspecified parameters to look for partial invariance.

Results and Discussion

According to the criteria described above, the CFI, RMSEA, and SRMR of the three factor model are acceptable for all countries. Table 3 presents the model fit coefficients of CFA for each country separately. It was revealed that the three-dimensional model fits the

data moderately well in all countries, although small modifications were introduced in some samples (all the modification are indicated in the Note under Table 3).

Table 4 presents the global fit coefficients of the three levels of measurement invariance. First, we established configural invariance but not full metric. In the next step, we tested for partial metric invariance, therefore we released the two loadings with the largest misspecifications in each scale while constraining the other three to be equal across all groups. Change in CFI, RMSEA, and SRMR between the configural and partial metric level was below the cut-off criteria described above, supporting the partial measurement invariance across all 28 countries. Scalar measurement invariance was not supported.

The internal consistency of each scale was satisfactory with limited exceptions in three countries (see Table 5). The mean value was .64 for AE, .80 for PE, and .70 for RE (Cronbach's alpha). Internal consistencies were lower than $\alpha = .60$ in three countries for AE, and in five countries for RE. Internal consistencies for the total EAQ score were satisfactory, ranging from .67 to .84 (see Table 5). It is worth noting that Cronbach's alpha tends to improve with a larger number of items. In the present study-case, each scale contained only five items, which is a relatively low number. Nevertheless, the obtained coefficients allowed for examination of the entitlement phenomenon in scientific research.

General Discussion

The 15-item Entitlement Attitudes Questionnaire was demonstrated as both valid (Study 1 & 2) and cross-culturally replicable (Study 3). Findings obtained in Studies 1 and 2 support the thesis of different aspects of entitlement evaluated by the EAQ including the focus on self-interest as reflected in the active entitlement dimension, the focus on self-interest with a tendency to violate the rights of others as reflected in the revenge entitlement dimension, and the focus on group interest in formulating demands, as reflected in the passive entitlement dimension. Additionally, results of Study 2 suggest that the EAQ could serve as a measure of

non-narcissistic entitlement, an aspect of entitlement not covered by frequently utilized popular scales, such as the PES (Campbell et al. 2004) and the NPI (Raskin & Terry, 1988).

In all cases, the global fit indices for the 3-dimensional model of entitlement were satisfactory. Configural and partial metric invariance were established. Unfortunately, we could not establish scalar invariance. Hence, the scale could be used for examining correlates of entitlement across different cultures because the meaning of the entitlement is similar across countries. However, respondents use the scale in different ways, so the means cannot be compared across countries (i.e., lack of scalar measurement invariance). Scalar invariance is hard to establish and the inability to establish it is often reported in the literature (Davidov et al., 2014). Recently, new methods have been developed to address the rather strict assumptions for measurement of invariance testing (Asparouhov & Muthén, 2014; Muthén & Asparouhov, 2013).

Most importantly, all three dimensions were recovered across all national samples, indicating that a broad set of entitlement beliefs is worth including in cross-cultural research. Some of these beliefs are related to the self and the individual's functioning in social interactions (i.e. active and revenge entitlement), whereas others have a rather public character (i.e. passive entitlement). All of the facet scales are interrelated, and active and passive entitlement in particular show a substantial correlation (see Study 1). However, in Study 2 they were fully independent. Study 2 also suggests that dimensions of entitlement assumed in our model are more weakly related to narcissism than psychological entitlement. Study 3 suggested that the cross-cultural examination of entitlement phenomenon is possible with the 3-dimensional model. Although we cannot compare the means of entitlement across nations on an individual level, it is possible to use multilevel modeling (see Nezlek, 2011) in predicting entitlement on a national level through examination of culture as units of analysis. As this phenomenon seems to be important in examining contemporary political and social

issues worldwide, the major contribution of here presented study lies in the development of a short, easy to use tool for conducting such analyses.

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Table 1

Correlations and Reliabilities (Cronbach's alphas on the diagonal) of Measures of Entitlement and Narcissisms Used in Study 2

	AE	PE	RE	PES	NPI	CNI	CNS	EA
AE	.69	.07	.19***	.36***	.45***	.17**	.15*	.36***
PE		.89	-.23***	.00	-.01	.18**	.15*	.28***
RE			.77	.23***	.11	.11	.14*	.25***
PES				.84	.56***	.35***	.35***	.32***
NPI					.94	.51***	.20**	.24***
CNI						.89	.31***	.24***
CNS							.82	.27***
EA								.74

Note. AE – Active Entitlement, PE – Passive Entitlement, RE – Revenge Entitlement, PES- Psychological Entitlement Scale. NPI – Narcissistic Personality Inventory. CNI – Communal Narcissism Inventory, CNS – Collective Narcissism Scale, EA – Entitlement Attitudes

*** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

Table 2

Sample and Translation Information in 28 Countries

	<i>N</i>	Female %	Age <i>M</i>	Language	Adaptation procedure
Algeria	343	77	22.32	Arabic	ST
Armenia	201	67	18.74	Armenian	ST + t-bt
Belgium	282	75	19.22	Flemish	t-bt
Bulgaria	266	68	21.09	Bulgarian	t-bt
Colombia	161	45	29.14	Spanish	t-bt
Czech	193	70	21.45	Czech	t-bt + BC
Estonia	305	65	25.60	Estonian	t-bt
Georgia	200	50	20.46	Georgian	t-bt
Germany	255	56	22.59	German	t-bt + BC
Hungary	160	61	21.89	Hungarian	t-bt
India	141	65	21.63	English	t-bt
Italy	201	74	21.61	Italian	t-bt
Kazakhstan	141	56	19.69	Russian	t-bt + BC
Latvia	189	73	26.67	Latvian	t-bt
Malaysia	287	52	22.13	Malay	t-bt
Mexico	199	56	21.36	Spanish	t-bt
Netherlands	193	50	21.98	Flemish	t-bt + SB
Norway	188	60	23.50	Norwegian	t-bt + BC
Poland	249	70	23.36	Polish	n/a
Portugal	306	69	25.50	Portuguese	t-bt
Puerto Rico	201	50	21.31	Spanish	t-bt

Table 2

Sample Information in 28 Nations - Continued

	<i>N</i>	Female %	Age <i>M</i>	Language	Adaptation procedure
Romania	230	60	22.56	Romanian	t-bt
Slovakia	190	70	21.95	Slovakian	t-bt + BC
Spain	232	79	22.57	Spanish	t-bt + BC
Ukraine	199	53	20.78	Ukrainian	t-bt + BC
Uruguay	212	71	21.98	Spanish	t-bt
U.S.	105	74	23.00	English	t-bt
Vietnam	161	69	20.72	Vietnamese	t-bt + BC
<i>Mean</i>	213	64.5	22.30		

Note. T-bt – translation-back translation; BC – bilingual researcher consultation; ST – simultaneous independent translations.

Table 3

Global Fit Measures for the Single Sample CFAs (df = 87)

	Global fit measures for the single sample CFAs			
	χ^2	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR
Algeria ¹	142.6	.91	.04 [.03-.06]	.05
Armenia	126.7	.94	.05 [.03-.07]	.07
Belgium	249.1	.90	.08 [.07-.09]	.09
Bulgaria	232.2	.92	.08 [.07-.09]	.07
Colombia ²	149.4	.90	.07 [.05-.09]	.08
Czech Republik ³	117.8	.92	.06 [.04-.08]	.06
Estonia	204.1	.91	.07 [.06-.08]	.05
Georgia ⁴	147.0	.91	.07 [.05-.09]	.08
Germany	191.5	.91	.07 [.06-.08]	.08
Hungary ⁵	161.4	.91	.08 [.06-.09]	.09
India ⁶	146.8	.92	.07 [.05-.09]	.07
Italy	154.6	.92	.06 [.05-.08]	.07
Kazakhstan	143.5	.94	.08 [.05-.10]	.09
Latvia	145.0	.92	.06 [.04-.08]	.07
Malaysia	232.1	.92	.08 [.06-.09]	.08
Mexico	150.8	.90	.06 [.04-.08]	.07
Netherlands ⁷	161.4	.92	.07 [.05-.09]	.07
Norway	126.0	.94	.05 [.03-.07]	.06
Poland	189.6	.92	.07 [.06-.08]	.06
Portugal	171.2	.95	.06 [.04-.07]	.06
Puerto Rico	142.2	.93	.06 [.04-.07]	.06
Romania ⁸	185.4	.91	.07 [.06-.09]	.06
Slovakia ⁹	142.6	.92	.06 [.04-.08]	.07
Spain	164.8	.92	.06 [.05-.08]	.06
Ukraine ¹⁰	142.2	.91	.06 [.04-.07]	.07
Uruguay ¹¹	149.9	.91	.07 [.05-.09]	.07
USA ¹²	121.0	.91	.07 [.04-.09]	.08
Vietnam ¹³	114.4	.91	.06 [.04-.08]	.07

*Note.*¹ *df* = 85, crossloadings EAQ9 on AE, EAQ10 on PE² *df* = 86, correlated uniqueness: EAQ8 with EAQ9³ *df* = 73, EAQ4 deleted from the model, correlated uniqueness: EAQ2 with EAQ5

⁴ $df = 73$, EAQ6 deleted from the model, correlated uniqueness: EAQ1 with EAQ14

⁵ $df = 85$, correlated uniqueness: EAQ3 with EAQ15 and EAQ2 with EAQ12

⁶ $df = 86$, crossloading EAQ1 on AE

⁷ $df = 86$, correlated uniqueness: EAQ1 with EAQ14

⁸ $df = 85$, correlated uniqueness: EAQ8 with EAQ9; EAQ9 with EAQ10

⁹ $df = 85$, crossloading EAQ7 on AE, correlated uniqueness EAQ1 with EAQ14

¹⁰ $df = 86$, crossloading EAQ8 on AE

¹¹ $df = 73$, EAQ1 deleted from the model, correlated uniqueness: EAQ9 with EAQ9

¹² $df = 85$, correlated uniqueness: EAQ8 with EAQ13, crossloading EQ5 on AE

¹³ $df = 74$, EAQ4 deleted from the model

Table 4

Global Fit Measures for the Multigroup CFA

	χ^2	df	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR
Configural	4567.1	2380	.92	.07 [.06-.07]	.07
Metric	5486.8	2704	.89	.07 [.07-.07]	.10
Partial metric ¹	4984.3	2542	.91	.07 [.06-.07]	.08
Scalar	10107.9	3028	.73	.11 [.10-.11]	.14

Note. Correlated uniqueness EAQ1 with EAQ14, EAQ8 with EAQ9

¹ released EAQ4 and EAQ10 in Active, EAQ2 and EAQ5 in Passive, EAQ3 and EAQ15 in Revenge Entitlement

Table 5

Mean Scores, Standard Deviations and Cronbach's Alphas of EAQ in 28 Countries

	Mean scores and standard deviations			Cronbach's alphas			
	AE	PE	RE	AE	PE	RE	EAQ
Algeria	5.05 (0.64)	5.30 (0.63)	3.75 (1.01)	.51	.61	.57	.67
Armenia	4.65 (0.76)	5.00 (0.75)	4.22 (0.90)	.70	.75	.67	.75
Belgium	3.93 (0.77)	4.45 (1.01)	3.51 (0.85)	.69	.92	.72	.78
Bulgaria	4.79 (0.94)	4.83 (1.01)	3.46 (1.21)	.80	.86	.79	.84
Colombia	4.50 (0.72)	4.62 (0.96)	3.03 (1.05)	.61	.80	.64	.69
Czech Republik	4.37 (0.65)	4.28 (0.78)	3.71 (0.90)	.65	.75	.70	.70
Estonia	4.27 (0.75)	4.53 (0.78)	3.77 (0.86)	.72	.82	.71	.76
Georgia	4.51 (0.95)	5.15 (1.01)	3.46 (0.92)	.72	.86	.49	.74
Germany	3.37 (0.69)	4.72 (0.87)	3.13 (0.91)	.54	.85	.78	.72
Hungary	3.92 (0.86)	4.29 (0.91)	3.18 (1.13)	.72	.75	.82	.80
India	4.43 (0.88)	4.61 (0.93)	3.75 (1.07)	.74	.82	.72	.83
Italy	4.34 (0.73)	5.03 (0.70)	3.73 (0.93)	.71	.81	.75	.74
Kazakhstan	4.14 (1.11)	4.15 (1.35)	3.22 (1.09)	.84	.91	.65	.81
Latvia	4.33 (0.77)	5.12 (0.72)	3.58 (0.94)	.66	.79	.66	.80
Malaysia	4.29 (0.92)	4.65 (1.12)	3.66 (1.02)	.80	.89	.67	.83
Mexico	4.50 (0.72)	4.58 (0.98)	3.50 (1.14)	.66	.77	.68	.76
Netherlands	3.76 (0.77)	4.42 (0.88)	3.46 (0.86)	.70	.85	.74	.68
Norway	4.02 (0.77)	4.98 (0.77)	3.06 (0.77)	.71	.81	.50	.67
Poland	4.35 (0.76)	4.80 (0.90)	3.42 (0.99)	.74	.87	.73	.78
Portugal	4.64 (0.70)	4.85 (0.78)	3.49 (0.99)	.73	.84	.78	.77
Puerto Rico	4.17 (0.91)	4.58 (0.93)	3.00 (1.09)	.70	.79	.67	.74
Romania	4.30 (0.90)	4.47 (0.97)	3.52 (1.06)	.80	.79	.75	.84
Slovakia	4.34 (0.76)	4.39 (0.92)	3.43 (0.88)	.68	.80	.70	.73
Spain	4.33 (0.69)	5.04 (0.65)	3.53 (1.00)	.63	.77	.77	.74
Ukraine	4.41 (0.64)	4.86 (0.69)	3.34 (0.93)	.56	.73	.59	.73
Uruguay	4.13 (0.81)	4.44 (0.82)	3.16 (1.01)	.71	.73	.73	.71
USA	4.26 (0.73)	4.09 (0.83)	3.48 (0.90)	.75	.77	.71	.71
Vietnam	3.92 (0.75)	4.81 (0.79)	3.45 (1.02)	.60	.64	.75	.71
Mean				.64	.80	.70	.73

Note. AE – Active Entitlement, PE – Passive Entitlement, RE- Revenge Entitlement. EAQ - Entitlement Attitudes Questionnaire. Standard deviations in parentheses.

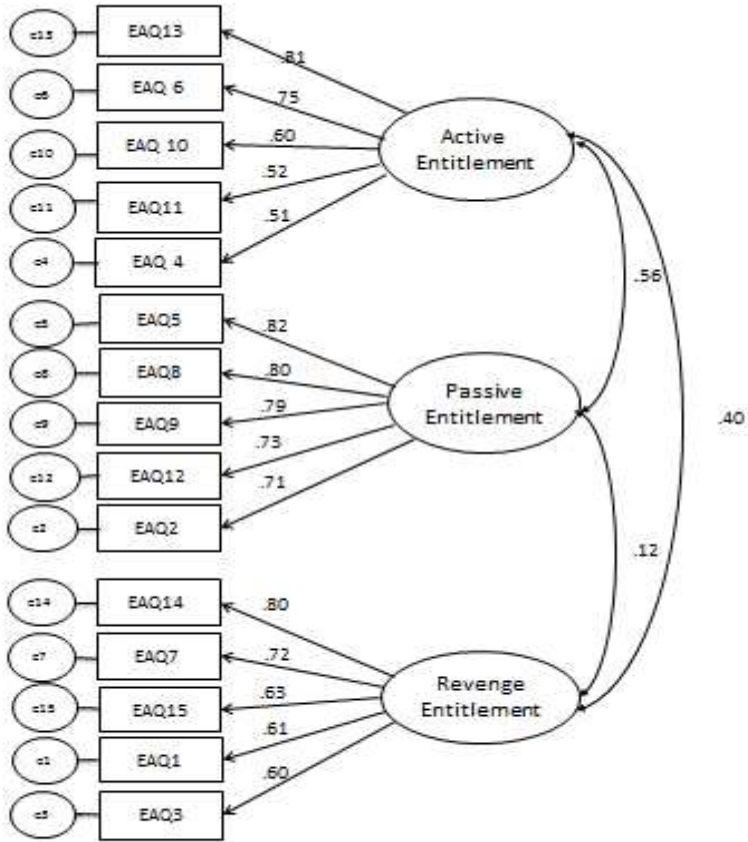


Figure 1. Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Entitlement Three-Dimensional Structure in Study 1 (N = 1,900).

Appendix

Items of Entitlement Attitudes Questionnaire (EAQ), and Their Factor Loadings in Polish National Sample (N = 1,900) and Pooled International Sample (N = 5,979)

	Polish sample			International sample		
	AE	PE	RE	AE	PE	RE
13. It is necessary to claim what you deserve (24)	.81			.73		
6. People should always demand what they deserve (12)	.75			.67		
10. I often demand to be treated properly (19)	.60			.60		
11. I deserve the best (21).	.52			.68		
4. If I get less than I deserve, I speak out about it (8)	.51			.65		
5. Everybody has the right to expect help from the state when in need (10)		.82			.74	
8. Disadvantaged persons deserve institutional help (16)		.80			.74	
9. The state should take care of the livelihood of the poorest (18)		.79			.80	
12. The government has a duty to ensure decent living conditions for people (22)		.73			.74	
2. It is the duty of the state to care for all citizens. (6)		.71			.74	
14. I have difficulty forgiving harm done to me (29)			.80			.84
7. I don't forgive the wrongs I have suffered (15)			.72			.81
15. Someone who hurts me cannot count on my sympathy (36)			.63			.67
1. I remember harm that has been done to me for a long time (1)			.61			.68
3. "An eye for an eye, a tooth for a tooth" is a fair rule" (7)			.60			.47

Note. Items' numbers of EAQ 36-item version in parentheses.