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Articles published in *JMI* have traditionally come from a wide variety of universities and institutions.

ARTICLES

Knowledge Acquisition Frequency and Business Model Adaptation in Nascent Firms 120

J. Kirk Ring, Jon C. Carr, Timothy L. Michaelis, Jeffrey M. Pollack, and Lewis Sheats

Young, nascent firms face substantial challenges associated with their ability to capture knowledge from their respective competitive environments and use that knowledge to successfully develop and/or restructure their business models. The present work theorizes that stakeholder knowledge acquisition frequency—defined as the extent to which a venture engages with its customers and stakeholders to gather and/or share information about products/services—causally predicts business model adaptations within nascent firms. To test this proposition, the current study employs a Latent Growth Curve (LGC) model with 138 observations from a 24-week longitudinal sample of nascent firms. Results indicate a quadratic relationship between knowledge acquisition frequency and business model adaptation, meaning that as nascent firms engage with stakeholders, the more (or less) the firms’ business models change as a result. Results support the causal relationship between knowledge acquisition frequency and business model adaptation and demonstrates the influence of stakeholder knowledge acquisition frequency as an antecedent to business model adaptation for nascent firms.

Keywords: business models; business model adaptation; nascent firms, knowledge acquisition

Unraveling the Psychological Contract Breach and Violation Relationship: Better Evidence for Why Broken Promises Matter 140

Kevin E. Henderson and Anne M. O’Leary-Kelly

Research on psychological contracts has not been clear on why psychological contract breach (PCB) impacts psychological contract violation (PCV). While a few studies have examined individual mediators, no integrated view of the mechanisms responsible has been undertaken. In addition, the emotions associated with PCB have been underexplored to date and studies have over-relied on a PCV measure that focuses primarily on intense emotions like anger and betrayal. Therefore, this study examines multiple mediators of the PCB-PCV relationship: mistrust, distributive injustice, perceived lack of organizational support, and self-identity threat. Using a longitudinal design and a random sample of 148 university alumni, the results show that only mistrust is a significant mediator of the PCB-PCV relationship. The results also show that the primary emotion associated with PCB is sadness, not anger, and that both of these emotions decrease over time. These

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findings highlight the importance of repairing trust and reducing feelings of sadness following PCB in order to diminish its negative consequences.

Keywords: Psychological contract breach, psychological contract violation, mistrust, self-identity threat, emotions

Do Managers Like Being Asked for Feedback? The Influence of Personality on Sources' Attitudes about Being Sought for Feedback 157
Joe Krasman and Igor Kotlyar

Feedback-seeking occurs when one party (i.e., the seeker) attempts to obtain feedback from another party (i.e., the source). This study examines the influence of sources' personality on their attitudes about being sought for feedback by seekers. Specifically, this study focuses on sources' Big Five dimensions of personality and on their attitudes about being asked for feedback by their subordinates, coworkers, and supervisors. After developing scales to measure sources' attitudes, a survey was administered to full-time working managers in Canada. Results showed that extraversion was positively related to sources' attitudes about being sought for feedback by their coworkers and supervisors. Agreeableness was positively related to sources' attitudes about being sought for feedback by their subordinates. Openness to experience was positively related to sources' attitudes about being sought for feedback by their supervisors. The Big Five explained between 13% and 15% of the variance in sources' attitudes about being sought for feedback.

Keywords: feedback-seeking, feedback, personality, Big Five, attitudes, managers

A Holistic Examination of the Antecedents and Outcomes of Frontline Employee Job Resourcefulness..... 174
Eric G. Harris, David E. Fleming, and Jennifer L. Dapko

The purpose of this study is to examine the influence of job resourcefulness on service performance by utilizing a holistic approach based on the Job Demands-Resources Model. The study utilizes an online survey approach that includes data from two services settings that differ in important ways: retail banking and food service. The findings in both contexts support the assertion that person-job fit is an influencer of resourcefulness. This extends the literature by revealing that personality alone is not enough to foster the resourcefulness of frontline employees (FLEs). Also, resourcefulness lowers burnout in the higher customer workload setting and this effect is strengthened as workload increases. This is the first study to utilize the holistic Job Demands-Resources Model including personal and work resources, and interaction effects, to examine job resourcefulness. Managers should consider the resourcefulness of prospective employees during hiring decisions, and also ensure the proper fit of the FLE to the position itself. This is especially important in front-stage versus back-stage service positions. Additional research in the area is encouraged.

Keywords: Marketing, customer service, personality, job performance, efficiency

But I Deserve It! A Meta-analytic Review of Employee Entitlement 191
Akanksha Bedi

This article reports the results of a meta-analysis of the antecedents, correlates, and outcomes of employee entitlement. The results suggest that males and younger employees are more likely to feel entitled. Furthermore, the entitlement-exploitative facet of narcissism appeared as one of the strongest correlates of entitlement. The review also shows that entitlement is associated negatively with numerous employee outcomes such as increased levels of abuse toward coworkers and counterproductive work behaviors. In addition, findings from relative weight analysis suggest that in comparison with narcissism, entitlement is a unique and significant predictor of employee counterproductive work behaviors. Finally, meta-analytic path analysis results reveal that self-esteem fully mediates the relationship between entitlement and job performance. Suggestions for future research and practical implications for managers are presented.

Keywords: Entitlement; meta-analysis; relative weight analysis; meta-analytic path model

Knowledge Acquisition Frequency and Business Model Adaptation in Nascent Firms

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ABSTRACT: Young, nascent firms face substantial challenges associated with their ability to capture knowledge from their respective competitive environments and use that knowledge to successfully develop and/or restructure their business models. The present work theorizes that stakeholder knowledge acquisition frequency—defined as the extent to which a venture engages with its customers and stakeholders to gather and/or share information about products/services—causally predicts business model

adaptations within nascent firms. To test this proposition, the current study employs a Latent Growth Curve (LGC) model with 138 observations from a 24-week longitudinal sample of nascent firms. Results indicate a quadratic relationship between knowledge acquisition frequency and business model adaptation, meaning that as nascent firms engage with stakeholders, the more (or less) the firms business models change as a result. Results support the causal relationship between knowledge acquisition frequency and business model adaptation and demonstrates the influence of stakeholder knowledge acquisition frequency as an antecedent to business model adaptation for nascent firms. **Keywords:** business models; business model adaptation; nascent firms, knowledge acquisition

A critical area of research at the intersection of management and entrepreneurship is how nascent firms adapt to challenging environments and strive to create value with limited resources (Baker and Nelson, 2005). These resource limitations include not just a lack of financial resources or managerial resources, but also a lack of knowledge on existing customers or stakeholders. With regards to knowledge, specifically, new firms (unlike established firms) do not yet have the luxury of leveraging well-developed knowledge repositories (Wagner *et al.*, 2014; Grant, 1996) or knowledge sources which are necessary to exploit opportunities (Foss *et al.*, 2013). For example, compared to nascent firms, formalized knowledge repositories often exist in more mature firms as knowledge management software systems (Tyndale, 2002) and there are formal processes for codifying and absorbing knowledge by mature firms (Maier and Hadrich, 2011). Similarly, more established firms do not suffer from the liabilities of newness (Stinchcombe, 1965), and thus tend to have more resources available to dedicate towards customer discovery and competitive forecasting (Beal, 2000; Hambrick, 1982). Stakeholders provide important knowledge to nascent firms with regards to how they should develop and improve their product offerings. This results in the tendency for nascent firms to focus intently upon their interaction with external stakeholders early in developing their firms.

Knowledge acquisition has been formally discussed in the literature as, "...the process of extracting and structuring information and channeling it to processes that accumulate new knowledge" (Holcomb *et al.*, 2009: 171). And, it is known that, "...the intensity and speed of acquisition influences the quality and capacity of learning" (Holcomb *et al.*, 2009: 171). Unfortunately, knowledge acquisition as a dynamic effort in the evolution of a firm can be overlooked as a key driver of adaptation to a new venture (Gubbins and Dooley, 2014; Spender, 1996).

It is clear that a new firm's survival and growth is ultimately predicated upon the creation of value to meet external stakeholders' needs, while simultaneously converting that value into products and services. This value creation is accomplished through the use of a business architecture that also effectively manages revenues, costs, and knowledge (Andries *et al.*, 2013; Massa *et al.*, 2017). Entrepreneurs must engage in knowledge acquisition in an ongoing fashion from key stakeholders in order to be able to clearly articulate and adapt this business architecture in a dynamic way (Clarke and Holt, 2010). Accordingly, this study theorizes and tests the changing nature of knowledge acquisition frequency, which this study defines as the extent to which a nascent venture engages with its customers and stakeholders to gather and/or share

information about products/services. Likewise, this study argues and tests the resulting dynamic effects of this knowledge acquisition on the venture's business architecture—i.e., its relationship to its business model adaptation efforts. Business model adaptation is defined as those efforts to create and capture stakeholder value via new business rationalities and functions, and new avenues for profit generation (cf., Amit and Zott, 2012; Morris *et al.*, 2005). Overall, this study seeks a better understanding of the knowledge acquisition activities, and related frequency of those activities, and how these actions longitudinally lead to business model adaptation and refinement.

In this paper, nascent firms are defined as those firms actively working towards the launch of their companies in conditions of uncertainty (cf., Klein, 2008) and face liabilities of newness (Stinchcombe, 1965). As part of their launch, nascent firms are interacting with potential customers, making connections and agreements with suppliers, identifying business partners, and gathering information from myriad of other external stakeholders (e.g., Davidsson and Honig, 2003). These firms are also simultaneously using acquired knowledge to create the architecture of their business models and unlock opportunities for value creation, which reflects how a firm's business model changes over time (e.g., Martins *et al.*, 2015). The ability to modify a business model, and make adaptations to its primary components, is increasingly seen as a source of competitive advantage in changing environments (Amit and Zott, 2012) and ultimately a key determinant of firm performance (Chesbrough and Rosenbloom, 2002). Nascent firms offer an excellent opportunity to study this relationship, because without the ability to improve their business models to meet external stakeholder signals, these firms will likely fail to launch successfully.

The longitudinal nature of the data (i.e., a 24-week period of repeated measures across individual firms) and uniqueness of the sampling frame (i.e., nascent firms) provides a rich opportunity to examine how business model adaptations occur over time in nascent firms, which directly addresses recent calls in management literature to advance theory through the incorporation of time as a variable (Mitchell and James, 2001). Results from a latent growth curve model analysis supports the general hypothesis developed herein that nascent firms engage in business model adaptation.

Multiple contributions emerge from this work. Current research on knowledge acquisition frequency by young firms does not account for the effect that knowledge acquisition may have on a firm's business model in a longitudinal fashion. This study advocates that nascent firms are actively seeking information from their environmental stakeholders, and the information gathered affects the quality and frequency of their business model adaptation activities. Importantly, this work has implications for business model literature (Massa *et al.*, 2017). In this growing stream of research, there is considerable debate regarding how and why companies make changes to their business models. By analyzing the degree to which young firms gather knowledge and use that knowledge over time to alter the components of their business models, this study extends the scope of existing business model research. In particular, it provides further evidence to support the work of Chreneer *et al.* (2015), who developed a typology of management strategies used by young firms to improve their business models. Additionally, where prior research almost exclusively considers actions taken by existing firms, this manuscript focuses instead on firms in their earliest state of existence (Johnson *et al.*, 2006). By focusing on nascent firms and their actions taken to improve their business models, insight is offered concerning the far-reaching effects of decisions

made to engage external stakeholders during nascence (Bettis and Prahalad, 1995), and in doing so advancing the literature related to knowledge acquisition.

THEORY AND HYPOTHESES

At a basic level, a business model describes an organization and explains how the organization attempts to achieve its goals with respect to the system in which it exists (Demil *et al.*, 2015; Massa *et al.*, 2017). Typically, these goals revolve around the concepts of value and business architecture. Business models explain how firms create and deliver value to customers, while also providing detail concerning how firms organize activities to capture value leading to profitability. The business model concept also acknowledges that value can be created by customers and other stakeholders in the process to build these architectural components necessary to capture value (Morris *et al.*, 2005). In other words, value may derive from many places in a business's ecosystem, and a business model will detail the "content, structure, and governance of transactions" (Amit and Zott, 2001: 511).

This manuscript follows Teece's (2010: 172) definition of a business model as the "design or architecture of the value creation, delivery, and capture mechanisms." Even though business model research often utilizes words such as "design" in its foundation, much of the research instead has focused on the result of these design efforts, rather than the ongoing, dynamic process of building a business model itself (Amit and Zott, 2015). In nascent firms, designing the business model has fewer structural constraints and inertia than established firms (Stinchcombe, 1965; Zott and Amit, 2007). In the end, nascent firms must design the way the company interacts with its customers, suppliers, and business partners, and these design elements can be in a constant state of flux as the firm tries to launch.

The business model literature has developed extensively in recent years to account for the formation and adaptation of a business model (Demil *et al.*, 2015). And, the topics of business model adaptation, innovation, and change all refer to new ways to create and capture stakeholder value, new business rationalities and functions, and new avenues for profit generation (Amit and Zott, 2012; Morris *et al.*, 2005). For simplicity, the term business model adaptation is used and focus is placed upon firm activities that transforms the status quo in an effort to increase performance and create a competitive advantage, which is at the center of business model research (Kuratko and Audretsch, 2013). Although business model adaptation has been studied from a phenomenological view (e.g., Amit and Zott, 2012; Foss and Saebi, 2017; Teece, 2010) as an outcome (e.g., Visnjic and Van Looy, 2013), and its implications on firm performance (e.g., Zott and Amit, 2007), there is much that is still not known. Currently, the literature on business model innovation assumes that change occurs, but to date there has been no empirical research to assess what causes this change and also what this pattern of change looks like (i.e., linear or non-linear). The current study addresses this important theoretical gap through the integration of knowledge acquisition insights with research on business model adaptation. Following prior literature, the pattern of adaptation for one's business model is expected to closely follow the pattern of interaction with a nascent firms' initial stakeholders. In the following sections, these relationships are formally hypothesized and tested.

Business Model Adaptation

To survive and grow, firms typically attempt to either optimize revenues by creating additional value for customers, or they try to capture more value by reducing costs through improved firm efficiencies in their transactions with other stakeholders (Zott and Amit, 2007). Both of these sets of actions are important to companies improving their business models, but they are especially important in nascent firms that are making their first attempt to develop a fit between value creation and value capture. Much like the processes used to develop a business strategy, nascent firms experience tension between time spent gathering information from external stakeholders and time spent piecing together a coherent set of internal activities to fully capture knowledge gained from those stakeholders (e.g., Bingham and Eisenhardt, 2011).

The context of nascent firms is unique considering the salience of environmental uncertainty in nascent firms (Andries *et al.*, 2013; York and Venkataraman, 2010) and as a result very little is known about how business models develop over time. For example, nascent firms may be able to make large changes to their business models quickly; e.g., pivot to an entirely new business model (Kirtley and O'Mahony, 2019). To the contrary, business model change may also follow a more incremental and focused approach to change; e.g., following the LEAN canvas methodology of business model adaptation (cf., Ries, 2011).

Overall, for nascent firms this study contends that the initial phase of the business model adaptation process would begin with small changes, because the firms are actively gathering large amounts of seemingly disparate types of information, and they have little ability to piece together a coherent configuration of their business model. Nascent firms are expected to gather external information about their products, services, and business approaches, as they typically lack access to formal knowledge management systems that mature firms tend to have on hand (cf., Maier and Hadrich, 2011). Nascent firms also tend to lack the variety of knowledge resources as compared to more mature firms, and thus are more willing to incorporate knowledge acquired from their initial stakeholders. At some point in this process, the nascent firms will reach a level of knowledge that allows them to make notable adaptations to their business model. In some respects the business model changes implemented by nascent firms represent a form of organizational learning (cf., Senge, 1995), a concept related to the absorptive capacity and the knowledge based view of the firm (cf., Grant, 1996; Zahra and George, 2002). Following theory on the learning organization and how knowledge is integrated into firms (i.e., absorptive capacity), nascent firms are expected to engage in business model adaptations primarily as a result of knowledge acquisition from initial stakeholders. Thus, nascent ventures are expected to engage often in acquiring stakeholder feedback, which is then absorbed into the nascent venture and results in an adapted business model. The firms will then subsequently test the adaptations to their value creation efforts with customers, and their value capture efforts with suppliers and business partners. The results of these tests will lead to further changes to their business model going forward. Since it is critical to demonstrate that this dynamic actually occurs within these nascent firms, the following omnibus hypothesis is offered:

Hypothesis 1: Business model adaptation increases over time in nascent firms.

To further explore the changes over time to a nascent firm's business model, this study considers what factors may increase the speed at which these firms make changes.

The relative speed of changes to business models in nascent firms is important, owing to liabilities of newness and liabilities of smallness (Stinchcombe, 1965). Although the drivers of business model adaptations are a focus of current research (Amit and Zott, 2015; Martins *et al.*, 2015), little research has empirically tested its antecedents (Foss and Saebi, 2017). Of the theoretical articles regarding these antecedents, they state that business model adaptations can be driven by shifting competition in current markets (Johnson *et al.*, 2008), unpredictable and fast paced business environments (Voelpel *et al.*, 2004), and the impact of information, knowledge, and learning (Wirtz *et al.*, 2010). Amit and Zott (2015) also stress that business model design and adaptation will be affected by certain organizational drivers, to include attention given to stakeholders, knowledge gained from the business models of already established firms, value creation and capture goals set forth by the entrepreneur, and environmental constraints.

This study argues that the acquisition of knowledge from these drivers of business model adaptation will change the frequency at which firms change their business models. In other words, an overarching “*driver*” of the drivers of business model adaptation is the frequency of knowledge acquisition activities used by nascent firms to figure out how to create a strong fit between value creation and value capture. At their onset, nascent firms often face a debilitating lack of knowledge about the value-ecosystem in which they intend to operate. Additionally, nascent firms are confronted with more than a simple lack of information. These firms also have few organizational resources to know how to gain knowledge from stakeholders.

For example, Yli-Renko *et al.* (2001) examined how young technology-based firms acquired knowledge and what resulted from this acquisition. They found that social interaction with key customers and high levels of customer network ties (provided by key customers) would increase knowledge acquisition. This study contends, though, that the focus only on customers for knowledge acquisition is too narrow for the youngest nascent ventures. Interactions with stakeholders who may affect the business architecture being utilized to capture value is also important for nascent ventures (Amit and Zott, 2015). Thus, nascent firms must engage in a knowledge acquisition process to include engagement with customers, other stakeholders, advisors, and government entities, as well as assess the value creation and value capture processes of their competitors.

Consistent with this line of thinking, it is suggested that one key predictor of business model adaptation is knowledge acquisition frequency. It is expected, over time, that nascent firms learn from engagement with customers and stakeholders, assess the information acquired from these groups, and then make subsequent improvements to their business models. Thus, Hypothesis 2 is stated as:

Hypothesis 2: Knowledge acquisition frequency (KAF) predicts the pattern of change in nascent firms’ business model adaptation (BMA), such that higher levels of KAF will predict higher amounts of BMA and that lower levels of KAF will predict lower amounts of BMA over time.

METHODS

Sample

A sample of 39 startups was recruited via a university-based center, in the southeastern United States, for participation in a 24-week online study. These

entrepreneurs were identified by the center director and screened to make sure each venture was nascent and actively working on crafting their business model. All 39 ventures were invited to participate. Overall, 34 agreed (29.4% female) and 29 provided complete data across the 24-week period representing a response rate of 74%. Companies in the sample were primarily high-tech, such as Software as a Service (SaaS), Internet of Things (IoT), machine learning/artificial intelligence, manufacturing process improvement, medical device development, and software development. Remaining ventures included direct product sales (i.e., online and/or brick-and-mortar store fronts) or specialized services (e.g., consulting, photography/videography, microbrewery, etc.). All firms were between one and five years in age, six of the founders reported this as being their first new venture, and each CEO reported working in a traditional job that was in a closely related industry to their new venture. Average relevant industry experience of each CEO was 6.9 years ($SD = 7.21$), and average number of years in a traditional work role was 4.9 years ($SD = 7.37$).

Procedures

Following the recommendation from Uy *et al.* (2010) on conducting longitudinal designs that incorporate experience sampling methodology, a focal person in each company was surveyed (e.g., CEO, COO, president) regularly for 24 weeks to capture behaviors regarding changes to their business models, and interaction with customers or other stakeholders as these events were happening each week. An experience sampling procedure was used as it is designed to capture dynamic business processes over time, which directly aligns with the focal theory and hypotheses proposed in the current study (Uy *et al.*, 2010). The survey administered asked questions about behaviors of the venture regarding the “last week.” Specifically, questions asked each venture (a) how frequently each venture engaged with customers and stakeholders, and (b) how frequently the venture adapted or changed components in their current business model.

Measures

To measure *business model adaptation*, a scale was developed—relying on the core components of the business model canvas (Osterwalder and Pigneur, 2010)—to broadly capture the general areas within a nascent firm’s business model that may (or may not) change, using a weekly referent. This is largely due to two reasons. First, it is not surprising that all nascent firms are not the same, and thus it is difficult to pinpoint the specific components within a firm’s business model that exist, and are likely to change. Also, a weekly referent was used knowing that, in many instances, no changes might be observed during a given week for some firms, but that cumulatively changes across broad categories may be observed longitudinally (that is, over time). Essentially, the use of a weekly referent allowed for the flexibility to capture business model adaptation longitudinally, and causally relate them to knowledge acquisition frequency.

The scale included five items measuring the degree to which the nascent firm carried out activities in improving their (a) process to find resources, (b) manufacturing/development process, (c) distribution process, (d) marketing or advertising, and (e) customer engagement process. These behaviors represent the core activities in improving a business model. The construct of business model adaptation is formative in nature—put differently, each item cannot be used as a reflection of the underlying construct (Ellwart and Konradt, 2011). Here, this means that calculating

reliability is not appropriate as the items for business model adaptation represent causal indicators, which may not be correlated (Bollen and Lennox, 1991). However, as all business model adaptation items were positively correlated, internal consistency for the measure was $\omega = 0.92$ (cf., McDonald, 1985; Zinbarg *et al.*, 2006). Business model adaptation was measured using a 1 (not at all) to 5 (extensively) Likert scale and responses were summed to create the scale.

Knowledge acquisition frequency was captured using a three-item measure adapted to the firm level. In developing these items, the work of Holcomb *et al.* (2009) was relied upon. Items included “*Last week did you... receive from your potential customers/stakeholders information about how to increase the overall quality of your products or services,*” “*share or exchange information with your potential first customers,*” and “*receive information from your potential customers/stakeholders on how to shift/change the kind of product or service you offered them?*” The reliability of knowledge acquisition frequency was $\omega = 0.91$, it was measured using a 1 (not at all) to 5 (extensively) Likert scale, and responses were summed to create the scale.

Time was measured over 24 weeks in intervals of six. Thus, time was coded as 1 = week 1, 2 = week 7, 3 = week 12, 4 = week 18, 5 = week 24, which represented an interval variable coded 1-to-5, which does not include the intake measurements; i.e., week 0. Descriptive statistics are provided in Table 1.

Table 1
Correlations

	M	SD	Time	BMA	KAF
Week	11.86	8.05	1.00		
BMA	10.22	4.49	0.13	(0.92)	
KAF	6.55	3.07	0.10	0.65***	(0.91)

N = 138, Business Model Adaptation (BMA), Knowledge Acquisition Frequency (KAF)

Note. Reliability estimates (omega) for scales reported in diagonal

Note. $p < 0.001$ ***

Analysis Approach

A Latent Growth Curve (LGC) model was used as the primary method of analysis, which is a structural equation for modeling change in a latent variable over time (Bollen and Curran, 2006). An LGC model was used in this study because of the specific nature of the constructs and theoretical hypotheses tested; i.e., the theoretical model specifically predicts growth (i.e., change) within the construct of business model adaptation over time. Unlike traditional structural equation models (e.g., autoregressive models) that focus on the relationship between one or more constructs, growth models focus specifically on growth within a construct over time with associated predictors. The model shown in this paper (see Figure I) is referred to as a *conditional growth model* because the fixed and random effects are influenced by the independent variable, which are predicted in concert to knowledge acquisition frequency, a time-variant variable. There are two types of predictors in conditional LGC models, which are either time-

variant or time-invariant predictors. Knowledge acquisition frequency is expected to change, thus the visual in Figure I represents a conditional growth model with a time-variant predictor. Other reasons for selecting a LGC model are (a) they provide more information specific to each firm (e.g., individual slope trajectories) than either repeated measure ANOVA or hierarchical linear models (HLM), and (b) LGC models account for both autocorrelation between time periods and measurement error (Curran *et al.*, 2010; Bollen and Curran, 2006). LGC models have been successfully estimated with sample sizes as small as $N = 22$ (Huttenlocher *et al.*, 1991), which the present study exceeds ($N = 29$, $N_{\text{total}} = 138$). In addition, LGC modeling has been found to have more power relative to other methods for modeling change (e.g., repeated measures ANOVA) using the same data (Muthén and Curran, 1997). Overall, LGC models provide both individual growth trajectories and average growth trajectories, which allows for a more parsimonious test regarding the consistency and pattern of change within the business model adaptation construct over time.

Latent Growth Curve Modeling

The utilized approach to LGC modeling follows work in the psychology and management literatures (Bentein *et al.*, 2005; Lance *et al.*, 2000; McArdle and Epstein, 1987). The following section describes the model comparison and hypothesis testing approach for latent curve models. For the purpose of keeping the results section parsimonious and easily interpretable, only the best fitting model is evaluated in detail.

LGC models are structural equation models, thus a model building approach should be taken when determining the best fitting model. The core difference in LGC models is that the latent variables are the intercept and slope, which are used to determine the average value of the change over time and the rate of this change, respectively. However, before building an LGC model one must establish measurement invariance in the latent constructs.

RESULTS

Measurement invariance was tested due to the nested structure of the data; i.e., repeated measurements nested within individual firm responses. The purpose of testing for measurement invariance is to make sure the measurement model of the focal constructs does not change over time (Vandenberg and Lance, 2000; Widaman *et al.*, 2010). To test for measurement invariance, four nested confirmatory factor models were compared using a chi-square difference test. The nested models created were compared by constraining (1) the latent variable mean to zero (i.e., configural invariance), (2) the factor loadings (i.e., weak invariance), (3) item-intercepts (i.e., strong invariance), and (4) item residual variances (i.e., strict invariance) over time (Vandenberg and Lance, 2000; Widaman *et al.*, 2010). Comparing measurement model 3 to model 4 indicated no significant difference and strict invariance held for both focal constructs (business model adaptation, χ^2 difference (4) = 6.03, $p = 0.197$; knowledge acquisition frequency, χ^2 difference (4) = 3.95, $p = 0.412$), which was the most restrictive model. At a minimum, either strong or strict invariance must be established for meaningful analysis regarding repeated measures designs (Gregorich, 2006). Strict invariance, measurement model 4, was found for both constructs in this study, which indicated that (a) the same factor structure held for each individual firm response over time, (b) the items (i.e., factor

loadings) had the same meaning for each firm over time, (c) the item intercepts over time (i.e., average) was not systematically different among individual responses, and (d) the residual variance of the items does not differ over time. Thus, with strict invariance it is valid to index items of each construct (e.g., sum or average) and compare in a repeated measures design.

After measurement invariance was established, a power analysis was done to determine the ability of the LGC model to detect a significant change in the latent intercept and latent slope. A likelihood ratio test was done by constraining the latent intercept and slope to 0, which is referred to as a 2-degree-of-freedom generalized test and regarded as a superior method to the Wald test in assessing power (Hertzog *et al.*, 2008). A significant difference indicated that model 2 (see Table 2) with the slope and intercept allowed to vary explained a significant proportion of variance (χ^2 difference (4) = 16.57, $p = 0.002$). In addition, all fit indices were below 0.90 in the slope-constrained model (CFI = 0.74, TLI/NNFI = 0.73, IFI = 0.74, RMSEA = 0.199). Note that four degrees of freedom existed due to the quadratic nature of the model results; i.e., four model-slope parameters were constrained to zero. In addition, with measurement invariance established and the reliability of the focal constructs over time being above 0.90, there is good reason to believe the current study has adequate power to detect change in business model adaptation over time (i.e., slope variation over time).

Table 2
Latent Growth Curves: Business Model Adaptation

	Model 1 BMA Only	Model 2 BMA with KAF as a time variant predictor
Chi-square	6.27	31.90
Df	10.00	26.00
Bollen-Stine p-value	0.85	0.91
CFI	1.00	0.94
TLI/NNFI	1.06	0.93
IFI	1.06	0.94
RMSEA	0.00	0.09
BIC	-27.40	-55.65
Intercept (i)	10.81	10.81
Slope ² (s ²)	0.39*	1.17***
COV(i, s ²)	-0.13	0.62
KAF t ₂		0.59***
KAF t ₃		0.77***
KAF t ₄		0.81***
KAF t ₅		0.61***

N = 138

Note. p-value significant at $p < 0.05^*$, $p < 0.01^{**}$, $p < 0.001^{***}$

Note. BMA = Business Model Adaptation, KAF = knowledge acquisition frequency

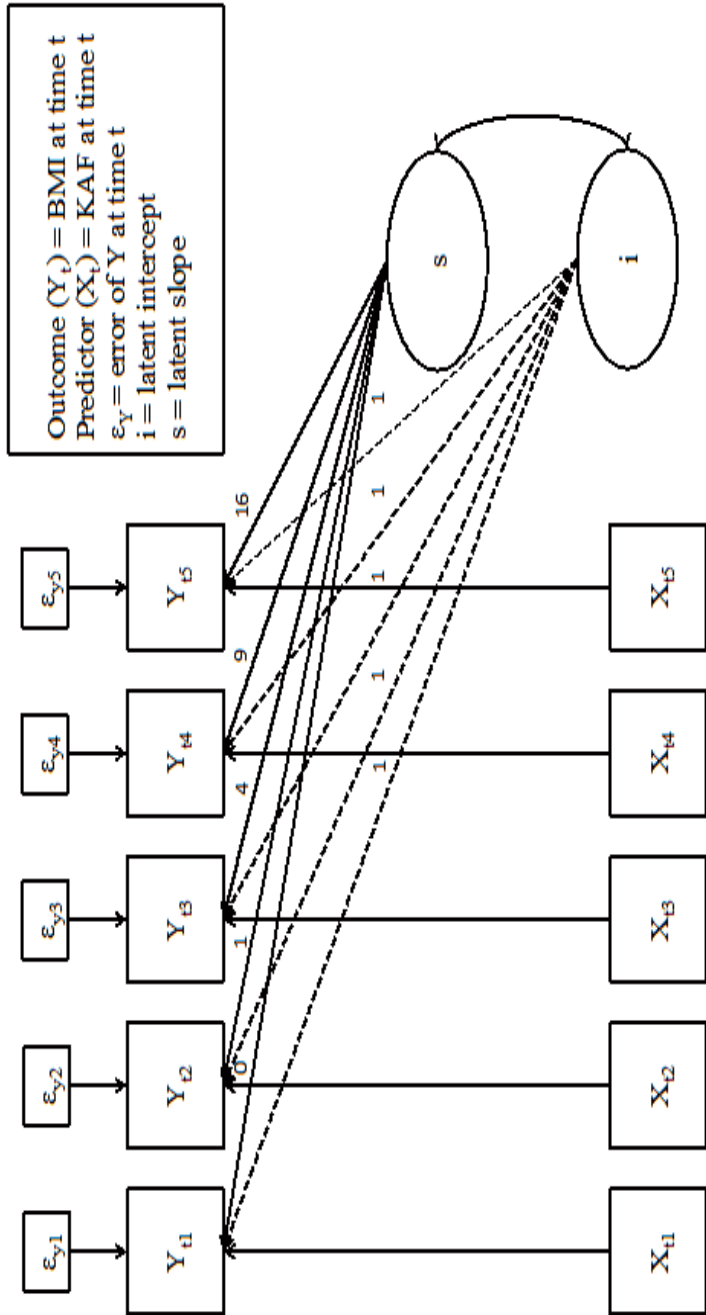
Two models were estimated to test the study hypotheses and research questions. Model 1 evaluates the change of business model adaptation over five time points ($N_{\text{total}} = 138$). Model 2 followed the structure of model 1, but also included the time-variant variable knowledge acquisition frequency in order to determine its' unique effect on the change in business model adaptation across time points. Models 1 and 2 include both fixed and random effects. Fixed effects (i.e., the average latent slope and intercept) describe the sample population as a whole over time and random effects describe individual variation (i.e., growth trajectories).

For each model estimated (i.e., Model 1 and Model 2 above), consistent with best practices in the literature (Bollen and Curran, 2006), four nested models (described below as *models a, b, c, and d*) were compared using chi-square difference tests, multiple fit indices, and theoretical logic to determine which model performed best, and if using the LGC model was appropriate (i.e., a best fitting model *d* would indicate that the intercept and slope vary over time, thus indicating growth in the latent construct). Thus, for Model 1 and Model 2, four different model structures were assessed to verify the best model structure that fit the data for the purposes of testing the focal study hypotheses. Following this model building approach, recommended from Bollen and Curran (2006), four nested models were assessed as follows: *model a* constrained the latent intercept to zero and residual variances, *model b* allowed the latent intercept to vary, but constrained residual variances, *model c* allowed the latent slope to be estimated, but did not allow the slope to vary, and *model d* allowed both the latent slope and intercept to vary over time. The results of the model building approach suggested that for Models 1 and 2, described above, the structure provided by *model d* provided the best fit with the raw data (see results section for details), thus supporting the hypothesis that business model adaptation changes over time and that knowledge acquisition frequency positively predicts change in a firm's business model over time.

Bootstrapping

In order to avoid parametric assumptions, bootstrapped fit indices and model parameters were estimated. In addition, quadratic and cubic growth curves were evaluated to determine if any higher order effects existed. The model building approach described above indicated that *model d* provided the best fit for Model 1 and Model 2 and that both growth curves were quadratic (U-shaped) with an inflection at time 3. The quadratic slope is visually depicted in Figure I by the squared loadings between the business model adaptation construct and the latent slope (s). The linear slope is also modeled, but is left out of Figure I for easier interpretability. The package Lavaan in the programming language R (R Core Team, 2016; Rosseel, 2012), version 3.3.1, was used for all analysis in this study. The LGC path diagram (see Figure I) and results are presented below.

Figure 1
 A Latent Growth Model of the Relationship Between Knowledge
 Acquisition Frequency and Subsequent Business Model Adaptation



Model 1 ($N_{t+n} = 29$, $N_{total} = 138$), which modeled change in business model adaptation over time, was identified as the number of time periods exceeded three and the degrees of freedom were positive (Bollen and Curran, 2006). For model 1, *model d* provided significantly better fit over *model c* (χ^2 difference (2) = 7.45, $p = 0.024$). However, it is important to also note that *model c* had significantly better fit than *model b* (χ^2 difference (3) = 10.90, $p = 0.012$, which indicated that there was fixed growth in business model adaptation. In other words, if there was no significant change in the slope, then *model b* and *model c* (i.e., referring to overall Model 1) would have been non-significantly different, and without significant change in the slope there would be no change over time (i.e., growth). Furthermore, the r-squared values between *model b* and *model c* (i.e., referring to overall Model 1) increased from 0.59 to 0.75, indicating that a model estimating growth (i.e., slope) accounted for approximately 16% more variance in business model adaptation.

Overall, for both Model 1 and Model 2, the structure provided by *model d* was the best fitting model with the observed data ($\chi^2(10) = 6.27$, Bollen-Stine Bootstrap $p = 0.847$, CFI = 1.00, TLI/NNFI = 1.06, IFI = 1.06, RMSEA = 0.00, BIC = -27.40). The BIC index is a stand-alone model fit index that indicated the hypothesized model was strongly favored over the fully saturated model (Raftery, 1995). Average business model adaptation for all companies over time was 10.81 ($p < 0.001$) and there was significant growth in business model adaptation over time for all companies (slope² = 0.39, $p = 0.036$).

Model 1 supported Hypothesis 1 that business model adaptation behaviors increase over time in nascent ventures. In testing higher order effects, it was found that the slope was positive and quadratic. The quadratic slope indicated that business model adaptation decreased from week 1 to week 12 and increased from week 12 to week 24. This effect was stable across the sample as the intercept and slope did not significantly covary (COV = -0.13, $p = 0.855$), which indicated that the nascent firms' business model adaptation growth trajectories were not significantly different from one another over the length of the study; i.e., the firms tended to start with the same level of business model adaptation and their starting point did not determine their growth trajectory. While it is interesting to know that business model adaptation changes over time, it is important to understand the mechanism for why business model adaptation changes. Using current theory regarding business model adaptation, it is expected that a nascent firm's communication with customers, primarily their first customers, and other stakeholders is a core driver of business model adaptation. To test this hypothesis and to explain why business model adaptation changes over time, knowledge acquisition frequency was incorporated as a time-variant variable and placed into a *conditional* LGC model, see above for explanation.

Model 2 ($N_{t+n} = 29$, $N_{total} = 138$), which included the time-variant variable knowledge acquisition frequency, was identified and provided good fit with the raw data ($\chi^2(26) = 31.90$, Bollen-Stine Bootstrap $p = 0.906$, CFI/RNI = 0.941, TLI/NNFI = 0.932, IFI = 0.944, RMSEA = 0.099, BIC = -55.65). RMSEA was not used to assess model fit as RMSEA is inflated in small sample sizes (Kenny *et al.*, 2014). Support for Hypothesis 1 remained in Model 2, which confirmed that business model adaptation behaviors increased over time as indicated by a significant quadratic-slope (slope² = 1.17, $p < 0.001$). In addition, fixed effects for Model 2 showed the average business model adaptation for all firms was 10.81 ($p < 0.001$). To understand why business model

adaptation changed over time, knowledge acquisition frequency was added to model 2 as a predictor at each time period. Support for Hypothesis 2 was indicated from good model fit and the significant relationships between knowledge acquisition frequency and business model adaptation change across all time periods starting with the first time lagged knowledge acquisition frequency measure: 2 ($b = 0.59, p < 0.001$), 3 ($b = 0.77, p < 0.001$), 4 ($b = 0.81, p < 0.001$), and 5 ($b = 0.61, p < 0.001$). These positive relationships between knowledge acquisition frequency and business model adaptation over time provides strong evidence that the relationship between knowledge acquisition frequency and business model adaptation is persistent over time. The quadratic growth curve shows that the level of a nascent firm's communication intensity with stakeholders has a direct relationship with one's level of activity in business model adaptation; e.g., when knowledge acquisition frequency decreases, business model adaptation behaviors decrease and when knowledge acquisition frequency increases, business model adaptation increases.

Overall, the LGC models supported Hypothesis 1 that business model adaptation changed over time, and Hypothesis 2 that knowledge acquisition frequency positively predicted the change in business model adaptation across the time lagged measures. Last, model 2 explained 66% ($R^2 = 0.66$) of the variance in business model adaptation change at time 1 and increased 7% to explain 73% ($R^2 = 0.73$) of the variance at time 5. This suggested that the model's predictive power increased over time.

DISCUSSION

Theoretical Implications

This manuscript empirically investigates and finds support for the notion that nascent firms should interact with their customers and other stakeholders frequently when attempting to launch a new venture because it results in adaptations to their business models. Accordingly, multiple theoretical contributions emerge from the current study. First, this study—considering the extant literature on business model change—is the only longitudinal test of business model adaptation to empirically investigate such adaptations using a knowledge acquisition perspective. Business models are the architecture of value creation, delivery, and value capture mechanisms of a firm (Teece, 2010) and business model adaptations are activities taken to develop new ways to create and capture value. Both areas of literature emphasize the concept of design, yet both areas of literature lack in studies directly testing how such design can take place (Martins *et al.*, 2015). This study surmised and found evidence consistent with the inference that such adaptations happen little by little, over time.

Second, this study advances the business model literature by providing an explanation as to how business model adaptations arise. Specifically, nascent firms seem to embark on the process of stakeholder engagement, and subsequently work through a trial-and-error business model adaptation process, based on what has been learned from these stakeholders. Though this may seem intuitive, this is the first empirical evidence, captured longitudinally, in support of this notion. Moreover, based on the findings of this study, it can be argued that without this process, nascent firms will increase the time to launch and lessen the chance for a successful launch. Therefore, business model adaptation has the potential to be viewed as a process of strategic implementation and clarification. The manuscript's findings show that increasing interaction with customers,

suppliers, legal and other professionals, business consultants, competitors, and fellow entrepreneurial firms leads to an increase in the frequency of business model adaptations.

Third, the study contributes to the knowledge acquisition literature by demonstrating how it influences business model adaptation directly. Knowledge acquisition is a dynamic process (Spender, 1996) with the potential to provide an accumulation of information for nascent firms to create and capture value. Young firms must utilize boundary spanning activities whereby they interact with external parties, acquire knowledge, and combine that knowledge with their own firm's specific knowledge (Amit and Zott, 2015; Yli-Renko *et al.*, 2001). This newly acquired knowledge allows the firm to then improve the design of their business models and move closer to generating the firm's first revenues. Whereas Yli-Renko and colleagues (2001) assessed the types and quality of interaction of young firms with key suppliers at a single point in time, this study highlights how knowledge acquisition frequency helps a firm to potentially pivot from one potential business model to another over a period of time.

Limitations and Future Research

In the following section, limitations and associated directions for future research are identified. First, the study did not include traditional performance data since many of the firms had not in fact generated sales. The lack of performance data is problematic in that the findings do not allow a connection to be made between business model adaptations and successful launch of the firm, where successful launch implies that the firm is able to generate revenues sufficient to withstand its costs over a period of time. Collecting data on variables such as time to launch, growth in revenues over time, and growth in full-time employees are areas of inquiry worth pursuing. Although the authors did not have access to data on these variables, it should be noted that business model adaptations employed as a dependent variable has merit and holds great potential to provide a more thorough understanding of this concept to the field. Future work could be done with regards to identify formation (e.g., Katila *et al.*, 2019) and the co-creation of business model adaptation via contact with key stakeholders.

Not surprisingly, it is extremely difficult to get firm leaders in nascent firms to complete surveys on a weekly basis for an extended period of time. This limited the ability to capture extensive control variables, since these firms are evolving quickly over the course of the study. However, all data were collected in equal time intervals and on the same days across all of the firm founders, thus considering the firms were in the same geographic region the data collection design controls for environmental and seasonal factors. While a larger sample is preferable, the tests for statistical power (i.e., positive slope) provides strong evidence for the statistical conclusion validity of the study's findings. Future research could expand on the results with a much larger and comprehensive data collection including diversity of participating ventures as well as greater robustness of empirical models including control variables.

Along these lines, results from the current study should be interpreted with respect to the study sampling frame, which contains nascent firms who are associated with a co-working space. While unknown, there may be a self-selection argument that the firms in this study's sample are more active in social networking and engaging in knowledge acquisition due to their membership in a co-working space. Thus, future research should compare business model adaptation between nascent firms in co-working spaces with

those not having membership in said spaces. Similarly, one potential limitation of the study is that the leaders of the nascent ventures had varying industry experience which could influence the amount of knowledge acquisition during early stage business model development. While no significant covariance between the latent slope and intercept was apparent in the study results, future research may find it helpful to rule out the potential moderating effect of industry experience and relative maturity of the nascent ventures (i.e., age).

Studying business model adaptations has only recently gained attention in the literature. Therefore, there was a lack of access to an empirical scale that assesses business model adaptations. This study argues that activities carried out by young firms to improve specific processes represent the core activities one engages in to improve their business model, and this resulted in a formative measure. Although it is difficult to amalgamate business model adaptation into specific items, future research should consider developing a scale to test it more systematically, using different methods (e.g., qualitative comparative analysis). Similarly, it is recommended that future research differentiate between the frequency and the quality of the knowledge gathered by nascent ventures and if knowledge quality, as opposed to frequency, has a substantial impact on business model adaptation over time. Following, measures of trust or familiarity between the venture and initial stakeholders should be included to provide additional explanation (i.e., moderating mechanisms) in how business models in nascent firms change over time. Scale items should have a strong focus on changes to processes used to capture value, but they also must focus on changes to processes whereby the firm creates value as well.

This research project did not consider the effects of engagement with every possible type of stakeholder and it did not consider the depth of the relationships with these stakeholders. It is expected that high quality relationships would lead to better knowledge acquisition but Yli-Renko and colleagues (2001) found that relationship quality was negatively related to knowledge acquisition in young technology-based firms. In their study, the only relationships tested were with potential customers and no other stakeholders. Accordingly, to further advance this area of work, future research should investigate the different types of stakeholders that young firms typically engage during the startup process (Pollack *et al.*, 2017), as well as assess characteristics such as relationship quality and tie strength. Tie strength would be better operationalized as an examination of the strength of the tie between the nascent firm and the stakeholder. It may also prove beneficial to consider at what stage in the start-up process these stakeholders are engaged. It is expected that engaging potential customers should be the first actions taken to solidify assumptions about demand for a product or service. However, current research does not consider the type of firm being launched and how the firm's characteristics may alter the level of importance placed upon engagement with different stakeholder groups. For example, will technology-based start-ups and service-based start-ups follow the same path of engagement with particular stakeholder groups? Do both types of startups gain the same amount of knowledge if they follow similar paths of engagement?

Continuing this line of thinking, identifying stakeholder groups that provide the most relevant information for nascent firms to use in their business model adaptation process would result in actionable practical implications for entrepreneurs and policy makers. These firms could be advised to develop relationships with such groups earlier

in the journey to launch their firms and potentially decrease the time to launch. And, related, from a practical perspective, activities positioned to create interactions with customers and stakeholders such as the business model canvas (Osterwalder and Pigneur, 2010) and the value proposition canvas (Osterwalder and Pigneur, 2014) could prove valuable in driving experience sampling approaches to future work.

Conclusion

It is tempting to assume that scholars know that business models improve over time. However, this would be incorrect. The fact remains that scholars have not—until now—successfully modeled actual business model adaptation over time. This important first step, illustrated in this study, allows future researchers to begin the process of actually tying change antecedents, and ultimately change outcomes, to this important organizing activity within nascent firms. This study has the potential to serve as a launching point for the use of other latent growth approaches to study how nascent ventures acquire necessary knowledge, implement business model adaptations, survive, grow, and thrive.

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Unraveling the Psychological Contract Breach and Violation Relationship: Better Evidence for Why Broken Promises Matter

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Research on psychological contracts has not been clear on why psychological contract breach (PCB) impacts psychological contract violation (PCV). While a few studies have examined individual mediators, no integrated view of the mechanisms responsible has been undertaken. In addition, the emotions associated with PCB have been underexplored to date and studies have over-relied on a PCV measure that focuses primarily on intense emotions like anger and betrayal. Therefore, this study examines multiple mediators of the PCB-PCV relationship: mistrust, distributive injustice, perceived lack of organizational support, and self-identity threat. Using a longitudinal design and a random sample of 148 university alumni, the results show that only mistrust is a significant mediator of the PCB-PCV relationship. The results also show that the primary emotion associated with PCB is sadness, not anger, and that both of these emotions decrease over time. These findings highlight the importance of repairing trust and reducing feelings of sadness following PCB in order to diminish its negative consequences.

Keywords: Psychological contract breach, psychological contract violation, mistrust, self-identity threat, emotions

Psychological contracts have been an important area of research over the past 30 years with numerous empirical and theoretical papers published on the topic (e.g., Rousseau, 1989; Rousseau, 1995; Morrison and Robinson, 1997; Conway and Briner,

2005). A psychological contract consists of individual beliefs, shaped by the organization, regarding terms of an exchange agreement between individuals and their organizations (Rousseau, 1995). In 1997, Morrison and Robinson made an important distinction between psychological contract breach (PCB), which is the *cognition* that one's organization has failed to meet one or more of its obligations, and psychological contract violation (PCV), which is the *emotional* and *affective* state that may follow awareness of the unfulfilled obligation.

Research has shown that PCB is prevalent within organizations (Robinson and Rousseau, 1994; O'Leary-Kelly *et al.*, 2014) and that its occurrence results in a variety of negative attitudes and behaviors, such as decreased job satisfaction (Tekleab and Taylor, 2003), performance (Turnley *et al.*, 2003), and organizational commitment (Lester *et al.*, 2002). A meta-analysis (Zhao *et al.*, 2007) found that PCV mediates the effects of PCB on these employee attitudes and behaviors. While researchers argue that PCB is "generally assumed to increase feelings of violation" (Zhao *et al.*, 2007: 650), very few scholars discuss why this causal relationship should exist and even fewer have taken the trouble to investigate *why* this association should "generally be assumed." It has been over 20 years since Morrison and Robinson (1997) first suggested the importance of exploring the relationship between PCB and PCV, yet very few studies have done so and, in fact, many still use the terms PCB and PCV interchangeably as if they are the same construct (Zhao *et al.*, 2007).

Another significant issue in the psychological contract literature is that the experience of PCB is often viewed as a process (Bankins, 2015; Rousseau *et al.*, 2018), yet very few psychological contract studies utilize longitudinal designs (Robinson and Morrison, 2000, is an exception). Researchers typically measure PCB or PCV only once and thus are assuming that these constructs do not change between one measurement period and the next. Time clearly plays an important role in employee attitudes (Boswell *et al.*, 2009) and not incorporating it into research studies is providing scholars with an incomplete picture of the experience of PCB.

One final issue in the psychological contract literature is that the range of emotions one can experience following PCB has largely been ignored (Conway and Briner, 2002, is an exception). The most common measure of PCV (Robinson and Morrison, 2000) focuses primarily on intense emotions (e.g., anger and betrayal) when employees are likely to experience a variety of emotions following PCB. Assuming that all employees will only experience anger following PCB oversimplifies what is likely a much more complex emotional experience (Fridja, 1988).

This study seeks to address all of these issues. First, it will examine multiple mediators of the PCB-PCV relationship at the same time, thus providing the most rigorous test to date on the underlying mechanism(s) behind PCB and PCV. Second, using a longitudinal design and a random sample of 148 university alumni, it will investigate the experience of PCB across three time periods, thus helping researchers better understand the PCB process and adding to the limited longitudinal studies to date. Third, it will utilize multiple measures of PCV in order to explore the specific emotions employees experience following PCB and whether they vary over time. In addition to helping to clarify the important relationship between PCB and PCV, the results will help provide managers with recommendations regarding what to do following the occurrence of PCB, so that PCV and its negative consequences can be minimized.

THEORY

Psychological Contract Breach

Psychological contract breach (PCB) is the *cognition* that one's organization has failed to meet one or more of its obligations (Morrison and Robinson, 1997). Research suggests that PCB can occur for a variety of reasons, such as the organization intentionally and willfully failing to keep its commitments to an employee (i.e., renegeing) or because the organization is simply unable to fulfill its commitments due to changing economic or environmental factors (Morrison and Robinson, 1997; Lester *et al.*, 2002). The attribution an employee makes for why the PCB occurs will likely impact how he or she responds to it. For example, Morrison and Robinson (1997) suggested that employees will experience more negative emotions when they attribute PCB to renegeing.

Research has consistently shown that PCB can have a significant impact on employee attitudes and behaviors, including decreased organizational commitment (Johnson and O'Leary-Kelly, 2003), job satisfaction (Tekleab *et al.*, 2005), and job performance (Sturges *et al.*, 2005). In short, when employees experience PCB, there could be significant implications to their organizations due to these damaged attitudes and unproductive behaviors. Whether or not these effects will happen depends, in large part, on how emotional employees get following PCB (Zhao *et al.*, 2007), which refers to psychological contract violation.

Psychological Contract Violation

Psychological contract violation (PCV) is the *emotional* and *affective* state that may follow awareness of the unfulfilled obligation (Morrison and Robinson, 1997). PCV represents a mental state of readiness for action that can include feelings such as disappointment, frustration, distress, anger, resentment, bitterness, indignation, and even outrage (Fridja, 1988; Rousseau, 1989; Morrison and Robinson, 1997). Zhao *et al.* (2007) found that PCV fully mediates the relationship between PCB and a variety of employee attitudes and behaviors, including job satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behaviors, performance, and turnover. This suggests that PCV is the key to determining whether employees will respond in negative ways after experiencing a broken promise. Despite its importance, why PCB affects PCV remains unclear.

Morrison and Robinson (1997) developed a theoretical model that focused on how PCV develops; however, it primarily focuses on *when* PCB will lead to PCV. More specifically, they hypothesized that employees engage in a sensemaking process that represents an employee's attempt to make sense of, or attach meaning to, the event that has transpired (Fridja, 1988; Morrison and Robinson, 1997). Thus, PCB serves as the "trigger" for this sensemaking process. Several studies have found support for their model (e.g., Robinson and Morrison, 2000; Raja *et al.*, 2004). Despite this, these studies (as well as Morrison and Robinson's 1997 model) do not focus on *mediators* of the PCB-PCV relationship; that is, they do not explain *why* (i.e., through what psychological processes) employees get upset when they experience a broken promise.

Potential PCB-PCV Mediators

Four mediators of the PCB-PCV relationship have been suggested by the psychological contract literature, specifically mistrust, distributive injustice, perceived lack of organizational support, and self-identity threat. Below, each of these four constructs will be discussed, including why each could mediate the relationship between PCB and PCV and the limitations associated with current research.

Mistrust. Rousseau (1989) argued that underlying the psychological contract is trust, which develops from a belief that contributions will be reciprocated and that a relationship exists where actions of one party are bound to those of another. PCB undermines this sense of trust which could then result in a strong emotional reaction on the part of the employee. Robinson (1996) suggested that the effects of PCB on outcomes are likely to be mediated by trust because PCB undermines two conditions leading to trust: judgments of integrity and beliefs in benevolence. In becoming aware of an unfulfilled obligation, the employee no longer trusts that the organization will fulfill future obligations or act in a benevolent, reciprocal manner.

Consequently, it seems reasonable that mistrust could mediate the relationship between PCB and PCV and some empirical support has been found for this (Montes and Irving, 2008). After discovering that the organization failed to fulfill an important promise to them, employees start to trust the organization less, believing that it may do the same thing to them in the future. This could then cause the employee to feel a variety of negative emotions toward the organization including frustration, anger, and resentment (Jones and George, 1998; Game, 2008).

Distributive injustice. Shore and Tetrick (1994) first suggested that, like justice, PCB involves an assessment of fairness by the employee. Using the organizational justice literature, Shore and Tetrick (1994) argued that PCB can focus on distributive justice (the perceived fairness of outcomes received), procedural justice (the perceived fairness of the procedures through which outcomes are allocated), or interactional justice (the perceived fairness of interpersonal treatment). Distributive justice seems the most relevant in the case of PCB, as the employee did not receive an outcome he or she was expecting to receive from the organization.

Although empirical support is limited, it seems reasonable that distributive justice could mediate the relationship between PCB and PCV. Employees who experience PCB seem likely to believe that it is unfair that they are not receiving an outcome that was promised to them. This feeling of distributive injustice can cause employees to experience negative affect, such that they feel angry, betrayed, disappointed, or frustrated by the unfulfilled promise (Khan *et al.*, 2013).

Perceived lack of organizational support. Perceived organizational support (POS) captures an individual's perception concerning the degree to which an organization values his or her contributions and cares about his or her well-being (Eisenberger *et al.*, 1986). Employees experiencing PCB will likely perceive that the organization does not support them because the organization has not fulfilled its obligations (Aselage and Eisenberger, 2003; Guerrero and Herrbach, 2008). Given that most employees prefer to work in organizations that they perceive to be caring and compassionate, when an organization breaks a promise to an employee, they may feel less supported by the organization. This is supported by several studies that found a negative relationship between PCB and POS (e.g., Suazo, 2009).

Thus, there is reason to believe that POS could mediate the relationship between PCB and PCV. An employee who experiences PCB will likely feel that the organization does not support him or her or else the organization would've fulfilled its obligation. This could result in the employee having a negative emotional reaction, including feelings of disappointment or frustration. Indeed, Guerrero and Herrbach (2008) found that POS mediated the relationship between psychological contract fulfillment (i.e., low PCB) and negative workplace affect (i.e., high PCV).

Self-identity threat. The final potential mediator of the PCB-PCV relationship that this study examines is self-identity threat (SIT). SIT refers to the extent to which employees perceive that the relational information they have received (such as PCB) signifies that they are not valued or respected by the organization and thus have low status or standing in the organization (Henderson and O'Leary-Kelly, 2012). The notion of an identity threat stems primarily from research on the group value model (Lind and Tyler, 1988; Tyler and Lind, 1992), which suggests that the information people receive from a valued social group can impact their self-concept (Smith and Tyler, 1997; Smith *et al.*, 1998). It seems likely that situations may arise where people's self-esteem and self-identity are threatened, such that PCB communicates to the employee that the organization does not respect the employee and feels that he or she is not a valued organizational member. Furthermore, research on identity threats and emotions argues that SIT is likely to elicit a strong emotional response (Breakwell, 1986; Fridja, 1986).

Therefore, SIT could mediate the relationship between PCB and PCV. An employee who experiences PCB will likely feel undervalued and disrespected by the organization, which could result in the employee experiencing a variety of negative emotions. Henderson and O'Leary-Kelly (2012) found some support for this in finding that SIT partially mediated the relationship between PCB and PCV.

Summary. While there is some empirical support for all four of these mediators, there are several issues with this research. First, there is very limited empirical support for each mediator. For example, mistrust was only supported for employees who had relational contracts, not transactional contracts. In the case of distributive injustice, all of the studies investigated justice as a moderator rather than a mediator (e.g., Kickul, 2001; Robinson and Morrison, 2000). Finally, SIT was found to only partially, not fully, mediate the relationship between PCB and PCV. Given the importance of PCV in determining employee attitudes and behaviors (Zhao *et al.*, 2007), it is problematic that there are so few studies examining mediators of the PCB-PCV relationship.

Second, no study has examined more than one mediator at a time. This makes it difficult to know which mediator(s) is the most important in determining an employee's perceptions of PCV. In order to address this issue, this study examines all four mediators together in a single empirical model. These results will add to the limited research that has examined why PCB affects PCV, by determining which mediator (if any) is most responsible for triggering the emotions associated with PCV following PCB. This leads to the first hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1: Mistrust (a), distributive justice (b), perceived lack of organizational support (c), and self-identity threat (d) will mediate the relationship between PCB and PCV.

Affective Events Theory

One theory that provides additional insight on the experience of PCB is affective events theory, or AET (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996). AET suggests that workplace events can trigger emotions (both positive or negative) that impact one's work attitudes (like job satisfaction) and these attitudes eventually impact one's job behaviors (like job performance). While the theory focused primarily on job satisfaction, it has been extended to the context of PCB (Zhao *et al.*, 2007; Liang, 2019) and it is clear that PCB could be considered a workplace event that triggers a negative emotional reaction.

There are a few defining features of AET (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996) that seem particularly relevant in exploring the relationship between PCB and PCV. First, it focuses on events as proximal causes of affective reactions. Things happen at work and employees often react emotionally to them, thus supporting the causal relationship between PCB and PCV. Second, it delineates job attitudes from affect. Emotions and job attitudes are not equivalent concepts, thus supporting the examination of PCB and PCV separately. Third, it includes time as an important parameter when examining job attitudes and emotions. Most studies of PCV have not explored changes in emotions over time (again, Conway and Briner, 2002, is an exception) and, given that research on emotions shows that affect levels fluctuate, this is a serious gap in the psychological contract literature.

Morrison and Robinson (1997) described PCV as an "emotional blend" ranging from minor emotions (like disappointment and frustration) to more intense emotions (like anger and outrage). Treating all of these emotions the same ignores the possibility that employees will experience a range of emotions following PCB and that the specific emotions experienced will have differing impacts on their job attitudes and behaviors. In addition, measuring PCV only once violates what research on emotions has found which is that emotions ebb and flow. This study will address this issue by examining emotions experienced at two different time periods.

As noted earlier, there is limited research on the emotions experienced following PCB, particularly over time. However, one study (Conway and Briner, 2002) examined the affective experience of PCB using daily diary methodology. They found that broken promises were more likely to be accompanied by feelings of betrayal rather than feeling hurt. However, the time period for their study was only ten days and they only measured the subject's emotional reactions immediately following an exceeded or broken promise. Research has shown that immediate emotions are typically viewed as more intense than previous emotions (Van Boven *et al.*, 2009) and that some emotions last longer than others (Verduyn and Lavrijsen, 2015).

Based on this, two things seem likely following PCB. First, negative emotional reactions to PCB will likely decrease in intensity over time as people learn to cope with and manage their negative emotions (Lazarus, 1991). Second, the specific emotions experienced will likely vary over time. Out of 27 different emotions, Verduyn and Lavrijsen (2015) found that feelings of sadness lasted the longest while shame lasted the shortest amount of time and anger lasted somewhere in between. Given this study and the research on psychological contracts, anger seems to be the most likely emotional reaction to PCB initially (Morrison and Robinson, 1997), while feelings of sadness will likely last the longest. Shame might initially seem unlikely following PCB, but the group-value model (Tyler and Lind, 1992) suggests that experiencing PCB may make people feel they are not respected and valued members and thus cause a negative self-

evaluation, a key aspect of felt shame (Creed *et al.*, 2014). It follows that shame could occur initially following awareness of a broken promise but would be unlikely to persist. This discussion leads to the second and third hypotheses:

Hypothesis 2: The emotions associated with PCB will decrease over time.

Hypothesis 3: The emotions associated with PCB will vary over time, such that the initial emotional reaction to PCB will primarily be anger and shame, but over time the emotional reaction will primarily be sadness.

METHODS

Sample and Procedures

Data were collected from a sample of 4,820 alumni of a large, Southeastern public university at several points in time using Qualtrics surveys. The alumni association at the school provided the e-mail addresses of a random sample of alumni who had graduated from the university between 1990 and 2010. A total of 432 participants completed the first survey at Time 1, while 255 subjects completed the Time 2 survey (3 months later) and 148 subjects completed the Time 3 survey (3 months later). Based on this, the initial response rate was 9.0%, while the overall response rate was 3.1%. Subjects were assured confidentiality and anonymity prior to taking all surveys.

While the response rates may seem low, there is evidence that web surveys tend to yield a lower response rate compared to other methods (Manfreda *et al.*, 2008), low response rates can be just as or more valid than high response rates (Visser *et al.*, 1996), there is little relationship between survey response rates and nonresponse bias (Hendra and Hill, 2019), and survey response rates have been falling over time (Adamy and Zumbrun, 2019).

In terms of the demographic characteristics of the full Time 1 sample, subjects were 55% female and 91% Caucasian. The average age was 33.82 (s.d. = 7.64), and the average length of tenure at their current company was 64.17 months (s.d. = 65.90). While a comparison cannot be made between this sample and the overall alumni population, the alumni association provided university enrollment reports during the same time period. Comparing this sample to the “average enrolled student” indicated that this sample was similar in terms of age but contained more women (55% vs. 48%) and more Caucasians (91% vs. 83%).

Comparisons were also made between Time 1 and Time 3 to examine response bias. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) results suggested that there were no significant differences between those who completed all three surveys and those who dropped out with respect to gender ($F = 3.32, p > 0.05$), race ($F = 0.01, p > 0.05$), tenure ($F = 1.67, p > 0.05$), and age ($F = 0.23, p > 0.05$).

Measures

All measures but two were based on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from “Strongly Disagree” (1) to “Strongly Agree” (7). Scale scores were created by averaging responses on the associated items.

Time 1 measure. *Psychological contract breach (PCB)* was assessed using the five-item scale from Robinson and Morrison (2000). A sample item is “I have not received everything promised to me in exchange for my contributions.” The Cronbach’s alpha of this measure was 0.93.

Time 2 measures. *Mistrust (MT)* was assessed using Robinson and Rousseau's (1994) seven-item trust scale. A sample item is "I can expect this company to treat me in a consistent and predictable fashion (reversed)." The Cronbach's alpha of this measure was 0.91.

Distributive injustice (DI) was assessed using Niehoff and Moorman's (1993) five-item scale. A sample item is "Overall, the rewards I receive here are quite fair (reversed)." The Cronbach's alpha of this measure was 0.82.

Perceived lack of organizational support (PLOS) was assessed using the eight-item short-form of the Survey of Perceived Organizational Support (Eisenberger *et al.*, 1986; Eisenberger *et al.*, 1997). A sample item is "My employer shows very little concern for me." The Cronbach's alpha of this measure was 0.91.

Self-identity threat (SIT) was assessed using Henderson and O'Leary-Kelly's (2012) seven-item measure on a five-point Likert scale (1 – "Strongly Disagree" to 5 – "Strongly Agree"). A sample item is "The way I'm treated by my employer makes me feel devalued." The Cronbach's alpha of this measure was 0.96.

Time 2 and 3 measures. *Psychological contract violation* was assessed in two ways at both Time 2 and Time 3. First, the four-item measure from Robinson and Morrison (2000) was used (PCV). A sample item is "I feel betrayed by my organization." The Cronbach's alpha of this measure was 0.96 at Time 2 and 0.95 at Time 3.

Second, a measure was created to assess the range of emotions one can experience following PCB. There is no agreement in the literature on the structure of emotions (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996). As a result, three subscales were created that seemed most appropriate in the context of PCB. The first subscale (Anger) consisted of six emotions: angry, betrayed, outraged, resentful, bitter, and indignant. The second subscale (Sadness) consisted of three emotions: disappointed, frustrated, and hurt. The third subscale (Shame) consisted of three emotions: humiliated, shamed, and embarrassed. The instructions asked subjects to "indicate the extent to which [the emotion] characterizes how they felt on average after finding out about a broken promise" on a six-point Likert scale from 1 ("Not at All") to 6 ("To a Very Great Extent"). The Cronbach's alpha of Anger was 0.93 at Time 2 and 0.91 at Time 3. The Cronbach's alpha of Sadness was 0.88 at Time 2 and 0.87 at Time 3. The Cronbach's alpha of Shame was 0.91 at Time 2 and 0.89 at Time 3.

Demographic characteristics. Initially, several demographic characteristics were collected as control variables. More specifically, subjects were asked their gender, age, and tenure. In order to understand the role of these demographic characteristics as control variables (Becker *et al.*, 2016), the analyses were conducted both with and without them. Only one demographic characteristic was significantly related to an outcome variable (i.e., women scored higher than men on the Sadness scale at Time 2, $p < 0.05$), and none of the demographic characteristics were significantly correlated with any of the study variables ($p > 0.05$). Given the desire to conserve power and the advice of Becker *et al.* (2016), they were thus excluded in the analyses.

Analyses

Before testing the hypotheses, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) of all Time 2 mediator variables was conducted using LISREL 8.8. The results showed that the four-factor model fit the data best: $X^2 = 894.18$ (318 df), $X^2/df = 2.81$, CFI = 0.98, SRMR = 0.06, and RMSEA = 0.08. Given that the fit indices indicate reasonable fit (Bentler,

1992; Hu and Bentler, 1999) and that the four-factor model fit the data better than all three-factor, two-factor, and one-factor models based on chi-square difference tests ($p < 0.01$), subjects were distinguishing between the four mediators.

Hypotheses 1a-1d were tested using an SPSS macro application produced by Preacher and Hayes (2004, 2008) that allows estimation of the indirect effect using both the Sobel test and bootstrap approach to obtain confidence intervals. This method: (1) increases power over the Baron and Kenny causal steps approach and Sobel product-of-coefficients approach (Baron and Kenny, 1986; Sobel, 1982), (2) does not impose the assumption of multivariate normality of the sampling distribution of total and specific indirect effects like the other two methods (Preacher and Hayes, 2008), and (3) maintains reasonable control over the Type I error rate (Preacher and Hayes, 2008).

Hypotheses 1a-1d were tested by creating a mediator model that included PCB as the independent variable, PCV as the dependent variable, and all four mediators. Full mediation is indicated when the indirect effect of the mediator on PCV is significant and the direct effect of PCB on PCV is not. Hypotheses 2 and 3 were tested using paired sample t-tests. For Hypothesis 2, the Time 2 and Time 3 emotion scales (e.g., PCB, Anger, Sadness, and Shame) were compared to see if the means of these variables significantly changed from Time 2 to Time 3. For Hypothesis 3, the specific emotion scales (e.g., Anger, Sadness, and Shame) were compared to each other within each time period to see if the means of these variables were significantly different from each other.

RESULTS

Table 1 reports the means, standard deviations, and correlation coefficients for all study variables. All correlations are in the expected direction and all mediators are significantly related to both PCB and PCV (at both times). With respect to the three sets of emotions, average correlations with the four mediators are strongest for Anger at Time 2 and lowest for Shame at Time 3. Interestingly, Sadness has the highest means, while Shame has the lowest. In fact, almost half of the subjects reported not feeling any Shame emotions at both Time 2 (47%) and Time 3 (45%). Finally, the means for all three dropped 7-9% from Time 2 to Time 3.

Hypotheses 1a-1d predicted that mistrust, distributive injustice, perceived lack of organizational support, and self-identity threat would mediate the relationship between PCB and PCV. The results of these analyses are shown in Table 2. While all four mediators were significantly related to PCB ($\beta = 0.52$, $p < 0.01$ for mistrust, $\beta = 0.40$, $p < 0.01$ for distributive injustice, $\beta = 0.37$, $p < 0.01$ for perceived lack of organizational support, and $\beta = 0.34$, $p < 0.01$ for self-identity threat), only mistrust was significantly associated with PCV ($\beta = 0.54$, $p < 0.01$). In addition, only mistrust had an indirect effect on PCV ($\beta = 0.28$, $p < 0.01$) and the formal two-tailed significance test demonstrated that this indirect effect was significant (Sobel $z = 3.98$, $p < 0.01$). Bootstrap results confirmed the Sobel test as the bootstrapped 95% confidence intervals for mistrust did not contain zero (0.15 to 0.42). Since the direct effect between PCB and PCV was non-significant ($\beta = 0.10$, $p > 0.05$), this means that mistrust fully mediates the relationship between PCB and PCV. Thus, only Hypothesis 1a is supported.

Table 1
Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations

Variable	Mean	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. PCB – Time 1	2.62	1.29												
2. Mistrust – Time 2	2.77	1.16	0.56											
3. DI – Time 2	2.46	1.09	0.47	0.47										
4. PLOS – Time 2	2.66	1.02	0.48	0.70	0.53									
5. SIT – Time 2	2.14	0.75	0.58	0.74	0.57	0.73								
6. PCV – Time 2	1.99	1.21	0.49	0.77	0.42	0.50	0.66							
7. Anger – Time 2	2.54	1.20	0.42	0.46	0.23	0.31	0.42	0.47						
8. Sadness – Time 2	3.45	1.32	0.36	0.40	0.25	0.29	0.36	0.40	0.79					
9. Shame – Time 2	1.74	1.05	0.30	0.21	0.13	0.22	0.26	0.29	0.54	0.47				
10. PCV – Time 3	1.96	1.22	0.40	0.59	0.26	0.39	0.46	0.56	0.41	0.36	0.16			
11. Anger – Time 3	2.35	1.14	0.20	0.33	0.17	0.26	0.29	0.19	0.56	0.52	0.17	0.44		
12. Sadness – Time 3	3.19	1.37	0.18	0.39	0.20	0.25	0.30	0.23	0.44	0.56	0.08	0.38	0.79	
13. Shame – Time 3	1.62	0.78	0.19	0.18	0.14	0.10	0.18	0.14	0.34	0.34	0.29	0.22	0.53	0.50

N = 148

PCB – Psychological Contract Breach; DI – Distributive Injustice; PLOS – Perceived Lack of Organizational Support;

SIT – Self-Identity Threat; PCV – Psychological Contract Violation

Correlations greater than 0.17 are significant at the $p < 0.05$ level

Correlations greater than 0.21 are significant at the $p < 0.01$ level

Table 2
Regression Results for Simple Mediation (Hypotheses 1a-1d)

Predictor	B	SE	T	R ²
PCB to Mediators				
Mistrust	0.50*	0.06	8.22*	0.32*
Distributive Injustice	0.39*	0.06	6.35*	0.22*
Perceived Lack of Organizational Support	0.38*	0.06	6.59*	0.23*
Self-Identity Threat	0.34*	0.04	8.66*	0.34*
Direct Effect of Mediators on PCV				
Mistrust	0.58*	0.12	5.02*	0.36*
Distributive Injustice	-0.06	0.09	-0.64	
Perceived Lack of Organizational Support	-0.07	0.13	-0.57	
Self-Identity Threat	0.10	0.19	0.50	
Indirect Effect of PCB on PCV via Mediators				
Mistrust	0.29*	0.07	4.01*	(0.16 to 0.44)
Distributive Injustice	-0.02	0.04	-0.57	(-0.10 to 0.06)
Perceived Lack of Organizational Support	-0.03	0.05	-0.52	(-0.14 to 0.08)
Self-Identity Threat	0.03	0.06	0.52	(-0.09 to 0.16)
Direct Effect of PCB on PCV				
	B	SE	Z	
Direct Effect of PCB on PCV	0.11	0.08	1.33	

N = 148

PCB – Psychological Contract Breach

PCV – Psychological Contract Violation

* means $p < 0.01$

Hypothesis 2 predicted that the emotions associated with PCB would decrease over time. Paired sample t-tests showed that two of the four PCV measures decreased from Time 2 to Time 3. Specifically, Anger significantly decreased from 2.54 to 2.35 ($t = 2.11$, $p < 0.05$) and Sadness significantly decreased from 3.45 to 3.19 ($t = 2.51$, $p < 0.05$). The decrease in PCV from 1.99 to 1.96 was not significant ($t = 0.33$, $p > 0.05$) as was the decrease in Shame from 1.74 to 1.62 ($t = 1.29$, $p > 0.05$). These results partially support Hypothesis 2, but only for Anger and Sadness.

Hypothesis 3 predicted that the emotions associated with PCB would vary over time, such that the initial emotional reaction to PCB would be anger and shame, but that over time it would primarily entail sadness. Paired sample t-tests showed that across both Time 2 and Time 3, Sadness was the most likely emotional reaction, then Anger, and finally Shame. At Time 2, the comparisons showed that Sadness was more common than Anger ($t = 16.45$, $p < 0.01$) and Shame ($t = 20.76$, $p < 0.01$), while Anger was more common than Shame ($t = 10.76$, $p < 0.01$). At Time 3, the comparisons again showed that Sadness was more common than Anger ($t = 12.26$, $p < 0.01$) and Shame ($t = 15.80$, $p < 0.01$), while Anger was more common than Shame ($t = 8.80$, $p < 0.01$). These

results partially support Hypothesis 3 in that Sadness is the dominant emotion over time, but it is also the dominant emotion initially.

DISCUSSION

This study empirically tested several possible mediating PCB-PCV mechanisms to determine their validity and also examined the change in emotions over time. The results showed that (1) mistrust fully mediates the relationship between PCB and PCV, (2) anger and sadness emotions decrease over time, and (3) sadness is the dominant emotion associated with PCB. This study adds to the understanding of psychological contracts in several meaningful ways.

First, mistrust seems to be the most important mechanism in determining whether PCB will result in PCV, as it was found to fully mediate the relationship between the two. It appears then that when employees perceive PCB, they primarily lose trust in the organization and its ability to fulfill obligations moving forward and this results in a strong negative emotional response. Given that most of the early work on psychological contracts stressed how PCB undermines employees' sense of trust (Rousseau, 1989; Robinson, 1996), it is not surprising that trust was the key overall mediator. Still, this result suggests that organizations would be wise to attempt to repair trust following PCB in order to avoid its negative consequences (Zhao *et al.*, 2007). Managers should also find ways to show employees that they can trust the organization. They can do this through regular communication with their employees by reminding them of the promises that have been kept and being respectful toward employees in general.

Second, the results show that the emotions associated with PCB decrease over time. Specifically, both anger and sadness significantly decreased from Time 2 to Time 3, while feelings of shame stayed relatively stable. This is surprising given that Verduyn and Lavrijsen (2015) found that feelings of shame lasted the shortest amount of time in their study of 27 emotions. While the results showed that shame was a relatively uncommon reaction to PCB (with almost half of subjects not reporting any feelings of it), when felt, it may last longer in the context of PCB. While few psychological contract studies have incorporated emotions, the results show that the most common measure of emotions in the context of psychological contracts (i.e., the four-item PCV measure from Robinson and Morrison, 2000) would have obscured these changes as the means were very similar between Time 2 and 3. This is particularly interesting given that the emotions of anger, betrayal, and frustration (which make up three of the four PCV scale items) all decreased significantly from Time 2 to Time 3 when measured individually rather than as part of PCV. It could be that some of the items in the Robinson and Morrison (2000) measure are not clear enough on the reason behind the emotion. For example, one could be angry or frustrated at one's organization and it could have nothing to do with one's psychological contract. The low correlations (0.22-0.47) between PCV and the three emotions seem to suggest a lack of convergent validity that needs to be further explored.

Third, the results showed that the primary emotion associated with PCB is sadness. Across both time periods, sadness was the dominant emotion when compared to anger and shame. This indicates that the experience of PCB may be a more passive emotional experience than previously believed. While Morrison and Robinson (1997: 231) referred to PCV as an "emotional blend," research since has focused primarily on the more

visceral emotions like anger and resentment. These results show that this focus has oversimplified the emotional experience associated with PCB and, at least in this sample, it primarily involves less intense emotions like disappointment and frustration. This is not to suggest that anger is unimportant, as it was still a common emotional reaction to PCB (only 17-18% of subjects reported not experiencing anger across Times 2 and 3). However, the results highlight that feelings of sadness are more common than feelings of anger (only 8-12% of subjects reported not experiencing sadness across Times 2 and 3). As a result, managers should monitor employees for sadness (which is often less obvious than anger), as it may indicate that they have experienced PCB. Managers could then use repair tactics (such as full penance, apologies, and excuses) to improve trust and ease the negative emotions (Henderson *et al.*, 2020).

Future Research

Additional studies are needed to examine mediators of the PCB-PCV relationship. It seems likely that not all employees will respond the same to PCB. Therefore, studies should examine when each of these reactions is most likely using a moderated mediation model. It seems plausible that some employees will experience trust issues following PCB, while some will experience injustice. The focus then should be on uncovering when each of these mediators is most likely to occur. Some of the variables that may play a role in determining this are: (1) characteristics of the employee (type of PC, personality, degree of connection to the organization, etc.), (2) characteristics of the PCB (reason for PCB, importance of the promise that was broken, etc.), and (3) the context itself (prevalence of PCB in the organization, experiences of other employees, etc.). It is vital that future research examine this issue because, without understanding the precise mechanism of PCB, it will be difficult to provide practical advice and recommendations to managers regarding how to proceed.

Additional studies are also needed on the emotions associated with PCB. The results of this study highlight that the use of specific emotions may result in a better understanding of the emotional experience compared to the four-item PCV scale from Robinson and Morrison (2000). Hopefully, the three emotion scales created for this study will be of assistance to researchers interested in further exploring the emotions associated with PCB.

Study Strengths and Limitations

There are several strengths and limitations to this study. In terms of strengths, hypotheses were tested using a longitudinal design that spanned six months. Considering how process-oriented the model is, collecting data at multiple points helps provide validity to the findings. In addition, by using a varied sample of alumni, external validity concerns are somewhat offset, as it would be surprising for these findings to be unique in such a diverse pool of random subjects.

On the other hand, this sample did have fairly positive attitudes overall towards their employer (e.g., low PCB, low PCV, etc.). It could be that a sample of employees with less positive attitudes toward their organization would react more negatively to PCB when it occurs. Or it could be that a sample with more positive attitudes reacts more negatively to PCB, since employees would be less likely to experience it. Second, the overall response rate was quite low. This concern is offset by the fact that it was a random pool of subjects. The demographic characteristics also show that the sample was fairly

diverse with respect to age, gender, and tenure. Third, although it is unclear why it would impact the results, all subjects were college graduates from a Southern university, which means that the results may not replicate in other samples. Finally, there are concerns with common methods variance, since single-source, self-report surveys were used (Avolio *et al.*, 1991; Lance *et al.*, 2010). Given that only the employee knows how he or she experiences PCB, this is not a major concern; however, alternative methods could have been used (e.g., interviews, diaries, etc.). Overall then, additional research is needed to confirm whether these findings generalize to other samples, using additional methods, in other contexts.

CONCLUSION

This paper sought to address some longstanding shortcomings in the psychological contract literature. Using a longitudinal design that incorporated four different theoretical mediators of the PCB-PCV relationship, the study found that mistrust is the most important mechanism linking PCB with PCV and that sadness is the most common emotional reaction, not anger. These findings challenge some long held tenets in the field and point out the need for new theoretical perspectives about the PCB process, more complex moderated mediation models that account for how the PCB-PCV relationship unfolds over time, and a better understanding of the emotions evoked by PCB.

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Do Managers Like Being Asked for Feedback? The Influence of Personality on Sources' Attitudes about Being Sought for Feedback

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Feedback-seeking occurs when one party (i.e., the seeker) attempts to obtain feedback from another party (i.e., the source). This study examines the influence of sources' personality on their attitudes about being sought for feedback by seekers. Specifically, this study focuses on sources' Big Five dimensions of personality and on their attitudes about being asked for feedback by their subordinates, coworkers, and supervisors. After developing scales to measure sources' attitudes, a survey was administered to full-time working managers in Canada. Results showed that extraversion was positively related to sources' attitudes about being sought for feedback by their coworkers and supervisors. Agreeableness was positively related to sources' attitudes about being sought for feedback by their subordinates. Openness to experience was positively related to sources' attitudes about being sought for feedback by their supervisors. The Big Five explained between 13% and 15% of the variance in sources' attitudes about being sought for feedback.

Keywords: feedback-seeking, feedback, personality, Big Five, attitudes, managers

Feedback-seeking occurs when one party – the seeker – attempts to obtain feedback from another party – the source (Ashford and Cummings, 1983; Ashford *et al.*, 2016). An example of feedback-seeking is a subordinate (i.e., seeker) asking his or her manager

(i.e., source), “Is this right?” or “Am I going about this the right way?” The concept of feedback-seeking was introduced by Ashford and Cummings (1983) over 35 years ago. The researchers argued that in addition to passively receiving feedback (for example, when a manager decides to provide it), people can also proactively seek it. Since that time, research on the topic has proliferated and a large literature has developed (for recent reviews see Anseel *et al.*, 2015; Ashford *et al.*, 2016).

Research has shown that it can be highly beneficial for seekers to seek feedback from sources. For example, studies have shown that seeking feedback can increase seekers' job satisfaction and job performance and decrease their turnover intentions (Morrison, 1993; Whitaker *et al.*, 2007). Because of these and other benefits that feedback-seeking can offer, researchers have advocated that organizations should support and promote feedback-seeking in the workplace (Steelman *et al.*, 2004; Williams *et al.*, 1999). Indeed, several major organizations have recently developed smartphone apps to enable their employees to seek feedback on demand (Cappelli and Tavis, 2016; Stoeckli *et al.*, 2019).

While research has shown that seekers can benefit from seeking feedback from sources, it has not been established if sources like being sought for feedback by seekers. Understanding sources' attitudes about being sought for feedback is important because attitudes can influence behaviour (Ajzen, 2005; Kraus, 1995). For example, research has shown that people's attitudes about diversity can influence their involvement in diversity initiatives and people's attitudes about change can influence their involvement in change initiatives (Bommer *et al.*, 2005, van Oudenhoven-van *et al.*, 2009). In a similar vein, sources' attitudes about being sought for feedback may influence their involvement in feedback-seeking initiatives and their behaviour in feedback-seeking interactions. For example, sources who like being sought for feedback may encourage feedback-seeking more and respond more quickly and thoroughly to feedback-seeking requests.

The purpose of this study, therefore, is to provide a first look at sources' attitudes about being sought for feedback. Specifically, this study will examine the manner in which sources' attitudes may be influenced by their personality. In so doing, this study will contribute to the general understanding of the source which to date has been lacking. While each feedback-seeking interaction requires a seeker and a source, virtually all of the research to date has focused on the seeker. Reviews of the feedback-seeking literature have called for more research on the source (Anseel *et al.*, 2015; Ashford *et al.*, 2016) and this study will increase the knowledge in this area. A summary of the relationships to be examined in this study is shown in Table 1.

Table 1
Hypothesized and Demonstrated Relationships

Big Five Dimension of Personality	Attitudes about Being Sought for Feedback by:		
	Subordinates	Coworkers	Supervisors
Neuroticism	-	-	-
Extraversion	+	+*	+*
Openness to Experience	+	+	+*
Agreeableness	+*	+	+
Conscientiousness	+	+	+

* Indicates a hypothesized relationship that was demonstrated.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Attitudes can be defined as an attitude holder's "degree of favorability" toward an attitude object (Ajzen, 2001: 29). In this study, the attitude holder is the source and the attitude object is being sought for feedback. Attitudes have three components – an affective component, a cognitive component, and a behavioural component (Ajzen and Fishbein, 2005). The affective component reflects how an attitude holder feels about an attitude object, the cognitive component reflects how an attitude holder thinks about an attitude object, and the behavioural component reflects how an attitude holder is inclined to behave towards an attitude object.

Research has shown that people's attitudes can be influenced by various factors including their personality (Ajzen, 2005). This study will focus on sources' Big Five dimensions of personality (Costa and McCrae, 1992). The Big Five is a taxonomy of personality that summarizes all human personality traits into five dimensions – neuroticism, extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness, and conscientiousness (Digman, 1990). Each of these dimensions can be further subdivided into six facets. This taxonomy has been shown to influence numerous work-related attitudes such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and attitudes towards diversity (Erdheim *et al.*, 2006; Judge *et al.*, 2002; Strauss *et al.*, 2003). In this study, the influence of the Big Five on sources' attitudes about being sought for feedback will be examined.

Sources are most often sought for feedback by their subordinates, coworkers, and supervisors (Ashford, 1993; Ashford and Tsui, 1991). As such, this study will focus on sources' attitudes about being sought for feedback by each of these seekers. Consistent with prior research, separate hypotheses and tests will be provided for sources' attitudes about being sought for feedback by each of these seekers (Bennett *et al.*, 1990; Krasman, 2010; Qian *et al.*, 2017; Srikanth and Jomon, 2013). This will make it possible to pinpoint which attitudes are related to each personality dimension.

In addition to different seekers, feedback can also be sought using different strategies such as direct inquiry and monitoring (Ashford and Cummings, 1983). Direct inquiry occurs when a seeker solicits feedback from a source in an overt fashion such that the source knows he or she is being sought for feedback. An example of direct inquiry is a subordinate asking his or her supervisor "Is this right?" or "Am I going about this the right way?" (Earley *et al.*, 1990) Monitoring occurs when a seeker solicits feedback from a source in a covert fashion such that the source does not know he or she is being sought for feedback. An example of monitoring is a subordinate paying attention to whether his or her supervisor smiles or frowns at his or her work. Consistent with prior research, this study will focus on sources' attitudes about being sought for feedback via direct inquiry.

As noted, virtually all of the research to date has focused on the seeker (e.g., Beenen *et al.*, 2017; De Stobbeleir *et al.*, 2020; van der Rijt *et al.*, 2013). Indeed, hundreds of studies have examined the antecedents and consequences of feedback-seeking for the seeker while only a handful of studies have concentrated on the source. Several of these studies have looked at sources' perceptions of seekers (Ashford and Northcraft, 1992; De Stobbeleir *et al.*, 2010). More recent work has shown that being sought for feedback can have the positive impact of increasing sources' job satisfaction but also the negative impact of increasing sources' role overload and stress if they are sought for feedback too often (Krasman, 2018; Krasman and Kotlyar, 2019). Again, in addition to providing a

first look at sources' attitudes about being sought for feedback, this study contributes to the general understanding of the source.

HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

Neuroticism

The first dimension of the Big Five is neuroticism. Neuroticism is also referred to as emotional stability, however, the two are inverses of one another. Neuroticism is comprised of the facets of anxiety, angry hostility, depression, self-consciousness, impulsiveness, and vulnerability (Costa and McCrae, 1992). Neuroticism is proposed to be negatively related to attitudes about being sought for feedback for the following reasons: first, neurotic people rank high on the facet of anxiety, meaning they are apprehensive, fearful, prone to worry, nervous, tense, and jittery (Costa and McCrae, 1992). This suggests that neurotic sources may be overly concerned about various aspects of being sought for feedback such as whether their feedback is correct, whether the seeker understands their feedback, and what will happen if their feedback fails. In support of this, research has shown that neuroticism predicts a number of variables that capture discomfort with making mistakes such as test-taking anxiety, performance anxiety, and fear of failure (Steptoe and Fidler, 1987; Moutafi *et al.*, 2006; Walsh, 1968). Second, neurotic people rank high on the facet of self-consciousness, meaning they are overly concerned with how others perceive them (Costa and McCrae, 1992). This suggests that neurotic sources may be overly concerned with fulfilling seekers' role expectations such as being expert, accessible, and courteous (Vancouver and Morrison, 1995). Research by Sawyer and colleagues (2002) provides support for a negative relationship between neuroticism and attitudes about being sought for feedback. The researchers showed in an experiment that when instructed to provide feedback to fictitious test-takers, subjects who ranked higher on neuroticism exhibited greater rater avoidance. Specifically, they felt less comfortable providing feedback, they felt providing feedback would be less easy, and they had a higher preference for providing feedback in writing than in person. Based on the above, the following hypothesis is put forth:

Hypothesis 1: Neuroticism is negatively related to attitudes about being sought for feedback by (a) subordinates, (b) coworkers, and (c) supervisors.

Extraversion

The second dimension of the Big Five is extraversion. Extraversion is also referred to as introversion, however, the two are inverses of one another. Extraversion is comprised of the facets of warmth, gregariousness, activity, excitement-seeking, assertiveness, and positive emotions (Costa and McCrae, 1992). Extraversion is proposed to be positively related to attitudes about being sought for feedback for the following reasons: first, extraverted people rank high on the facets of warmth and gregariousness, meaning they like to form close relationships with other people and be in other people's company. Consistent with this, being sought for feedback puts sources in social interaction with seekers. Second, extraverted people rank high on the facets of activity and excitement-seeking, meaning they like to keep busy and be stimulated (Costa and McCrae, 1992). Consistent with this, being sought for feedback engages sources in an exercise that has physical (e.g., listening, speaking), cognitive (e.g., thinking, evaluating), and emotional (e.g., joy from helping, frustration from seekers')

mistakes) elements to it. Third, extraverted people rank high on the facet of assertiveness, meaning they are dominant and forceful (Costa and McCrae, 1992). Consistent with this, when sources are sought for feedback, they demonstrate their knowledge and influence the direction of seekers' work. Last, extraverted people rank high on the facet of positive emotions, meaning they are upbeat and optimistic. This should insulate sources from wanting to avoid being sought for feedback because it can be uncomfortable and worrisome to respond with negative feedback (Yariv, 2006). Based on the above, the following hypothesis is put forth:

Hypothesis 2: Extraversion is positively related to attitudes about being sought for feedback by (a) subordinates, (b) coworkers, and (c) supervisors.

Openness to Experience

The third dimension of the Big Five is openness to experience. Openness to experience refers to the degree to which a person is curious and likes new and different experiences (Costa and McCrae, 1992). The facets of this dimension – namely, fantasy, aesthetics, feelings, actions, ideas, and values – reflect the domains in which a person may have such experiences (Costa and McCrae, 1992). Being sought for feedback should facilitate a number of opportunities for sources to engage in novel experiences and thus should appeal to open to experience sources. One example is that being sought for feedback may introduce sources to new people (i.e., seekers) they would not otherwise interact with. In support of this appealing to open to experience sources, research has shown that openness to experience is positively related to networking which includes meeting new people (e.g., Wanberg *et al.*, 2000). A second example is that the work seekers present to sources may introduce sources to new ideas, actions, and values they had not previously considered or paid serious attention to. In support of this appealing to open to experience sources, research has shown that openness to experience is positively related to divergent thinking; that is, thinking outside traditional paradigms (McCrae, 1987). A third example is that being sought for feedback may introduce a different activity into a source's day or call upon a source to use different knowledge, skills, abilities, or experience than he or she normally uses to perform his or her job. In support of this appealing to open to experience sources, research has shown that people with greater openness to experience respond more favorably to skill variety; that is, the degree to which a job requires the use of an array of capabilities (De Jong *et al.*, 2001). Research by Matzler and colleagues (2008) provides support for a positive relationship between openness to experience and attitudes about being sought for feedback. The researchers showed in a field study that engineers who were more open to experience, engaged in more solicited and unsolicited knowledge-sharing with their team members. Solicited knowledge-sharing is similar to being sought for feedback in that engineers were requested by others to impart their advice and opinions. Based on the above, the following hypothesis is put forth:

Hypothesis 3: Openness to experience is positively related to attitudes about being sought for feedback by (a) subordinates, (b) coworkers, and (c) supervisors.

Agreeableness

The fourth dimension of the Big Five is agreeableness. Agreeableness is comprised of the facets of straightforwardness, modesty, compliance, altruism, tendermindedness,

and trust (Costa and McCrae, 1992). Agreeableness is proposed to be positively related to attitudes about being sought for feedback for the following reasons: first, agreeable people rank high on the facet of compliance, meaning they like to follow orders (Costa and McCrae, 1992). Consistent with this, when sources are sought for feedback, they are provided with a request (i.e., order) to respond to (i.e., follow). Second, agreeable people rank high on the facets of altruism and tendermindedness, meaning they like “to assist others in need of help” and are “moved by others’ needs” (Costa and McCrae, 1992: 18). Consistent with this, when sources are sought for feedback, they provide assistance to seekers. Finally, agreeable people rank high on the facet of trust, meaning they believe others are honest and well-intentioned (Costa and McCrae, 1992). This should insulate sources from being turned off from being sought for feedback because they suspect seekers have ulterior motives. For example, people may seek feedback when they know their work is correct just to impress sources (Nakai and O’Malley, 2015). Based on the above, the following hypothesis is put forth:

Hypothesis 4: Agreeableness is positively related to attitudes about being sought for feedback by (a) subordinates, (b) coworkers, and (c) supervisors.

Conscientiousness

The fifth and final dimension of the Big Five is conscientiousness, which is comprised of the facets of competence, order, dutifulness, achievement-striving, self-discipline, and deliberation (Costa and McCrae, 1992). Conscientiousness is proposed to be positively related to attitudes about being sought for feedback for the following reasons: first, conscientious people rank high on the facet of competence, meaning they are capable and effective at what they do (Costa and McCrae, 1992). This suggests that conscientious sources should feel comfortable carrying out their role as source and performing the various tasks it requires (e.g., listening, evaluating, responding). By contrast, those who rank low on competence may feel more uneasy since they “have a lower opinion of their abilities and admit that they are often unprepared and inept” (Costa and McCrae, 1992: 18). Second, conscientious people rank high on the facet of order, meaning they are neat, tidy, and well-organized (Costa and McCrae, 1992). Consistent with this, when sources respond to feedback-seeking requests, they bring clarity to uncertainty and ensure work gets completed as it should. Third, conscientious people rank high on the facet of dutifulness, meaning they follow ethical principles and moral obligations (Costa and McCrae, 1992). Consistent with this, when sources are sought for feedback, they fulfill a professional duty and service to their fellow organizational member. Fourth, conscientious people rank high on the facet of achievement-striving, meaning they like to accomplish goals (Costa and McCrae, 1992). Consistent with this, when sources respond to feedback-seeking requests, they solve a problem for a seeker. Fifth, conscientious people rank high on the facet of self-discipline, meaning they are able to stay focused despite distractions (Costa and McCrae, 1992). Consistent with this, being sought for feedback requires a source to handle interruptions effectively since feedback is sought spontaneously and sources may be in the midst of other work (Krasman, 2018). Finally, conscientious people rank high on the facet of deliberation, meaning they think carefully before acting (Costa and McCrae, 1992). Consistent with this, being sought for feedback requires a source to evaluate a seekers’ work (i.e., think) before responding (i.e., acting). Based on the above, the following hypothesis is put forth:

Hypothesis 5: Conscientiousness is positively related to attitudes about being sought for feedback by (a) subordinates, (b) coworkers, and (c) supervisors.

METHODOLOGY

Respondents

A survey was administered to a sample of full-time working managers in Canada. A total of 240 surveys were distributed and 156 useable surveys were returned, yielding a response rate of 65%. The sample was 61% male and 39% female. The average age was 40 years and the average job tenure was six years. On average, respondents had two supervisors, eight subordinates, and 16 coworkers. Respondents worked in 19 of the 20 categories of the North American Industry Classification System. The percentage of respondents who worked in each industry were – finance and insurance (11.5%), mining, quarrying, and oil and gas extraction (9.6%), retail trade (9.0%), educational services (7.7%), management of companies and enterprises (7.7%), professional, scientific, and technical services (7.1%), accommodation and food services (6.4%), health care and social assistance (5.8%), public administration (3.2%), arts, entertainment, and recreation (2.6%), transportation and warehousing (2.6%), utilities (2.6%), administrative and support, waste management and remediation services (1.9%), construction (1.9%), real estate and rental and leasing (1.9%), information and cultural industries (1.3%), wholesale trade (1.3%), agriculture, forestry, fishing, and hunting (0.6%), manufacturing (0%), other (14.1%), and no response (1.3%).

Measures

Big Five dimensions of personality. The Big Five dimensions of personality were measured with Costa and McCrae's (1992) NEO Five Factor Inventory (NEO-FFI). Each dimension was measured with 12 items that were rated from 1 (= strongly disagree) to 5 (= strongly agree). A sample item for neuroticism is "I am not a worrier" (reverse-scored) ($\alpha = 0.77$). A sample item for extraversion is "I like to have a lot of people around me" ($\alpha = 0.72$). A sample item for openness to experience is "I often try new and foreign foods" ($\alpha = 0.64$). A sample item for agreeableness is "I try to be courteous to everyone I meet" ($\alpha = 0.74$). A sample item for conscientiousness is "I am a productive person who always gets the job done" ($\alpha = 0.78$).

Attitudes about being sought for feedback by subordinates, coworkers, and supervisors. Because research on this topic is new, there were no existing scales to use. Therefore, using the process outlined by DeVellis (2017), three scales were developed – one for sources' attitudes about being sought for feedback by their subordinates, one for sources' attitudes about being sought for feedback by their coworkers, and one for sources' attitudes about being sought for feedback by their supervisors. Each scale had the same three items – "I enjoy it when my _____ ask me for feedback about their work," "I am in favor of my _____ asking me for feedback about their work," and "I wish my _____ would ask me for feedback about their work more often." The blanks were filled in with the words "subordinates," "coworkers," or "supervisors," depending on the scale. All items were rated on a five-point scale that ranged from 1 (= strongly disagree) to 5 (= strongly agree). The scales and items appear in Table 2.

Table 2
Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) and Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) Results

Item	Component					
	1		2		3	
	Attitudes about Being Sought for Feedback by:					
	Subordinates		Coworkers		Supervisors	
	EFA	CFA	EFA	CFA	EFA	CFA
I enjoy it when my subordinates ask me for feedback about their work.	0.886	0.748				
I am in favor of my subordinates asking me for feedback about their work.	0.867	0.592				
I wish my subordinates would ask me for feedback about their work more often.	0.819	0.696				
Reliability (α)	0.87	0.71				
I enjoy it when my coworkers ask me for feedback about their work.			0.901	0.795		
I am in favor of my coworkers asking me for feedback about their work.			0.884	0.827		
I wish my coworkers would ask me for feedback about their work more often.			0.814	0.706		
Reliability (α)			0.88	0.82		
I enjoy it when my supervisors ask me for feedback about their work.					0.851	0.865
I am in favor of my supervisors asking me for feedback about their work.					0.839	0.828
I wish my supervisors would ask me for feedback about their work more often.					0.819	0.743
Reliability (α)					0.83	0.85

Values reported are standardized regression weights.

In order to explore the dimensionality and reliabilities of the scales, a survey was administered to a separate sample of full-time working supervisors in Canada. A total of 260 surveys were distributed and 101 useable surveys were returned, yielding a response rate of 39%. The sample was 57% male and 43% female. The average age was 41 years and the average job tenure was six years. On average, respondents had two supervisors, 12 subordinates, and 24 coworkers.

An exploratory factor analysis using principal components and varimax rotation was run on these data. Results showed three components with eigenvalues greater than 1 that explained 79.6% of the variance. The scree plot also showed three elbow joints. The rotated component matrix showed that each scale's items loaded on its own factor

with no cross-loadings above 0.400. The standardized regression weights were all above 0.400 and ranged from 0.814 to 0.901. The Cronbach's alpha reliabilities of the scales were 0.87 for attitudes about being sought for feedback by subordinates, 0.88 for attitudes about being sought for feedback by coworkers, and 0.83 for attitudes about being sought for feedback by supervisors. Table 2 shows these results.

A confirmatory factor analysis using structural equation modelling was then run on the data in the current study. Results showed a chi-square of 56.482 with 24 degrees of freedom that was significant ($p < 0.001$). The NFI was 0.899, the CFI was 0.937, and the RMSEA was 0.093. The standardized regression weights were all above 0.400 and ranged from 0.592 to 0.865. The Cronbach's alpha reliabilities of the scales were 0.71 for attitudes about being sought for feedback by subordinates, 0.82 for attitudes about being sought for feedback by coworkers, and 0.85 for attitudes about being sought for feedback by supervisors. Table 2 shows these results.

Control variables. Consistent with prior research on work-related attitudes, gender and job tenure were controlled for (Cohen, 1993; Lee and Wilbur, 1985). Number of seekers (i.e., number of subordinates, coworkers, and supervisors) was also controlled for since prior research has shown that being sought for feedback too frequently can lead to role overload and stress which can affect work-related attitudes (Cooper *et al.*, 2001; Krasman, 2018).

Results

Descriptive statistics, intercorrelations, and reliabilities are shown in Table 3. The hypotheses were tested with hierarchical linear regression. Three regressions were run – one with attitudes about being sought for feedback by subordinates as the dependent variable, one with attitudes about being sought for feedback by coworkers as the dependent variable, and one with attitudes about being sought for feedback by supervisors as the dependent variable. In each regression, the control variables were entered in Step 1 and the Big Five dimensions of personality were entered as the independent variables in Step 2. Table 4 shows these results.

Hypothesis 1 predicted that neuroticism is negatively related to attitudes about being sought for feedback by subordinates (H1a), coworkers (H1b), and supervisors (H1c). This hypothesis was not supported for H1a ($b = 0.121, p = ns$), H1b ($b = -0.126, p = ns$), or H1c ($b = -0.078, p = ns$).

Hypothesis 2 predicted that extraversion is positively related to attitudes about being sought for feedback by subordinates (H2a), coworkers (H2b), and supervisors (H2c). This hypothesis was not supported for H2a ($b = 0.088, p = ns$) but it was supported for H2b ($b = 0.206, p < 0.05$) and H2c ($b = 0.249, p < 0.01$).

Hypothesis 3 predicted that openness to experience is positively related to attitudes about being sought for feedback by subordinates (H3a), coworkers (H3b), and supervisors (H3c). This hypothesis was not supported for H3a ($b = 0.052, p = ns$) or H3b ($b = 0.076, p = ns$) but it was supported for H3c ($b = 0.164, p < 0.01$).

Hypothesis 4 predicted that agreeableness is positively related to attitudes about being sought for feedback by subordinates (H4a), coworkers (H4b), and supervisors (H4c). This hypothesis was supported for H4a ($b = 0.233, p < 0.01$) but not for H4b ($b = 0.079, p = ns$) or H4c ($b = -0.020, p = ns$).

Hypothesis 5 predicted that conscientiousness is positively related to attitudes about being sought for feedback by subordinates (H5a), coworkers (H5b), and supervisors

(H5c). This hypothesis was not supported for H5a ($b = 0.141, p = ns$), H5b ($b = 0.070, p = ns$), or H5c ($b = 0.085, p = ns$).

Table 3
Descriptive Statistics, Intercorrelations, and Reliabilities

	X	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Gender	1.39	0.49	(-)					
2. Age	39.68	12.09	0.120	(-)				
3. Job tenure	72.69	75.10	0.106	0.532***	(-)			
4. Number of subordinates	7.75	10.59	0.003	0.213**	0.110	(-)		
5. Number of coworkers	16.10	37.52	-0.015	0.135	0.088	0.066	(-)	
6. Number of supervisors	1.87	1.38	0.113	-0.200*	-0.100	-0.012	0.171*	(-)
7. Neuroticism	2.41	0.55	0.268**	-0.048	0.030	-0.131	-0.104	0.075
8. Extraversion	3.64	0.46	0.058	-0.190*	-0.254**	-0.039	0.018	-0.124
9. Openness to experience	3.16	0.47	0.003	-0.186*	-0.216**	0.037	-0.036	-0.045
10. Agreeableness	3.60	0.50	0.193*	0.091	-0.059	0.038	0.137	-0.002
11. Conscientiousness	3.99	0.47	-0.018	0.093	-0.020	0.057	0.141	-0.063
12. Attitudes about being sought for feedback by subordinates	4.12	0.63	-0.081	-0.031	-0.025	0.159*	0.059	0.129
13. Attitudes about being sought for feedback by coworkers	3.73	0.74	-0.025	-0.003	-0.033	-0.034	-0.079	0.045
14. Attitudes about being sought for feedback by supervisors	3.68	0.87	0.057	0.108	0.046	0.022	0.070	0.069

Gender was dummy-coded 1 = male, 2 = female.
Job tenure is reported in months.
* = $p < 0.05$. ** = $p < 0.01$. *** = $p < 0.001$.

Table 3 (continued)
Descriptive Statistics, Intercorrelations, and Reliabilities

	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. Gender								
2. Age								
3. Job tenure								
4. Number of subordinates								
5. Number of coworkers								
6. Number of supervisors								
7. Neuroticism	(0.77)							
8. Extraversion	-0.176*	(0.72)						
9. Openness to experience	-0.009	0.233**	(0.64)					
10. Agreeableness	-0.298***	0.346***	0.028	(0.74)				
11. Conscientiousness	-0.450***	0.277***	-0.096	0.332***	(0.78)			
12. Attitudes about being sought for feedback by subordinates	-0.084	0.154	0.059	0.245**	0.179*	(0.71)		
13. Attitudes about being sought for feedback by coworkers	-0.198*	0.258**	0.100	0.184*	0.168*	0.271**	(0.82)	
14. Attitudes about being sought for feedback by supervisors	-0.142	0.260**	0.169*	0.148	0.151	0.240**	0.402***	(0.85)

Gender was dummy-coded 1 = male, 2 = female.

Job tenure is reported in months.

* = $p < 0.05$. ** = $p < 0.01$. *** = $p < 0.001$.

Table 4
Hierarchical Linear Regression Results

	Attitudes about Being Sought for Feedback by:		
	Subordinates	Coworkers	Supervisors
Step 1			
Gender	-0.186*	-0.050	0.012
Age	-0.048	0.077	0.166
Job tenure	0.067	0.043	0.077
Number of subordinates	0.166*	-0.060	-0.031
Number of coworkers	-0.023	-0.150	-0.003
Number of supervisors	0.167*	0.136	0.154
Step 2			
Neuroticism	0.121	-0.126	-0.078
Extraversion	0.088	0.206*	0.249**
Openness to experience	0.052	0.076	0.164*
Agreeableness	0.233*	0.079	-0.020
Conscientiousness	0.141	0.070	0.085
R-squared	0.151	0.132	0.141

Values reported are standardized regression coefficients.

Gender was dummy-coded 1 = male, 2 = female.

* = $p < 0.05$. ** = $p < 0.01$.

DISCUSSION

Do sources like being sought for feedback? This study examined the influence of the Big Five dimensions of personality on sources' attitudes about being sought for feedback by their subordinates, coworkers, and supervisors. After developing scales to measure sources' attitudes, a survey was completed by full-time working managers. Results showed that agreeableness was positively related to sources' attitudes about being sought for feedback by their subordinates, extraversion was positively related to sources' attitudes about being sought for feedback by their coworkers and supervisors, and openness to experience was positively related to sources' attitudes about being sought for feedback by their supervisors. The Big Five explained between 13% and 15% of the variance in sources' attitudes about being sought for feedback.

Not all of the hypotheses were supported. Neuroticism and conscientiousness were not related to any of the attitudes. Openness to experience was positively related to attitudes about being sought for feedback by supervisors but unrelated to attitudes about being sought for feedback by subordinates and coworkers. It appears that being sought for feedback by subordinates and coworkers is not sufficiently novel to appeal to open to experience sources. Perhaps being sought for feedback by supervisors is more interesting because it exposes sources to problems and issues that are above their organizational level that they are not normally privy to. Agreeableness was positively related to attitudes about being sought for feedback by subordinates but unrelated to attitudes about being sought for feedback by coworkers and supervisors. Perhaps being sought for feedback by coworkers and supervisors is not sufficiently rewarding because

they may only listen to the feedback but not implement it. Subordinates, on the other hand, should be more likely to put sources' feedback into practice because sources have position power over them (Elias, 2008). Finally, extraversion was positively related to attitudes about being sought for feedback by coworkers and supervisors but unrelated to attitudes about being sought for feedback by subordinates. Perhaps subordinates, in general, are an unsuitable outlet for fulfilling social needs because sources also have to manage them (Berman *et al.*, 2002; McClelland and Boyatzis, 1982).

Despite its findings, this study has some limitations. First, because the data were cross-sectional, causality can only be inferred (Shadish *et al.*, 2002). Second, because the data were self-reported, respondents' answers could have been biased. To counteract this, the survey was made anonymous and respondents were instructed that there are no right or wrong answers (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2003). Third, common method bias may have affected the data (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2003). To counteract this, the variables were measured in the survey in reverse-causal order. Specifically, the items to measure sources' attitudes appeared before the items to measure sources' personality. Fourth, the reliability of the openness to experience scale was below the 0.70 cutoff recommended by Nunnally (1978). This is not uncommon as Caruso (2000) showed in his reliability generalization study of the NEO-FFI scales. Finally, as the study was conducted among full-time working managers in Canada, the findings may not be fully generalizable to all employees in all organizations.

Several directions for future research are recommended. First, researchers should identify other variables that influence sources' attitudes about being sought for feedback. Researchers should consider other individual difference factors as well as situational factors. For example, in terms of situational factors, sources may have more positive attitudes about being sought for feedback in collectivistic cultures because there is a greater emphasis placed on satisfying others' goals (Schwartz, 1990). Sources may also have more positive attitudes about being sought for feedback when there is high task or outcome interdependence since sources are more dependent on seekers performing their work effectively (Van der Veegt *et al.*, 1998). A second avenue for future research is to identify variables that moderate the relationships examined in this study. For example, under low routinization, there may be a positive relationship between openness to experience and attitudes about being sought for feedback by subordinates and coworkers since the problems and issues should be less typical and hence more interesting (Hage and Aiken, 1969). A final avenue for future research is to examine the consequences of sources' attitudes about being sought for feedback. For example, sources' attitudes may influence their involvement in feedback-seeking initiatives and their behaviour in feedback-seeking interactions. These linkages should be empirically tested and demonstrated.

In terms of practical implications, organizations should understand that not all sources may like being sought for feedback equally. Specifically, sources' attitudes may vary depending on their agreeableness, openness to experience, and extraversion. These differences may influence sources' reactions to participatory decision-making styles and leadership styles that rely heavily on being asked for feedback. For example, authentic leaders often ask their followers for feedback in order to fulfill the dimension of self-awareness (Walumbwa *et al.*, 2008). These differences may also influence sources' involvement in feedback-seeking initiatives and sources' behaviour in feedback-seeking interactions. For example, sources who like being sought for feedback may encourage

feedback-seeking more and respond more quickly and thoroughly to feedback-seeking requests. These behaviours may in turn influence seekers' behaviour (Anseel *et al.*, 2018). For example, Steelman *et al.* (2004) showed that feedback-seeking increases when sources promote feedback-seeking by not acting annoyed and by answering right away. Williams *et al.* (1999: 971) showed that feedback-seeking increases when sources support feedback-seeking by telling seekers "I would be happy to give you feedback." Ang *et al.* (1993) showed that feedback-seeking increases when sources appear to be in a good mood. The extent to which sources engage in these behaviours may depend on their attitudes. If sources are predisposed to have less positive attitudes about being sought for feedback based on their personality, organizations should consider taking action to strengthen sources' attitudes. According to the information processing approach of job attitudes (Salancik and Pfeffer, 1978), this may be accomplished by talking about being sought for feedback in a constructive manner (i.e., messaging) and by having organizational leaders demonstrate being sought for feedback (i.e., modelling).

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A Holistic Examination of the Antecedents and Outcomes of Frontline Employee Job Resourcefulness

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The purpose of this study is to examine the influence of job resourcefulness on service performance by utilizing a holistic approach based on the Job Demands-Resources Model. The study utilizes an online survey approach that includes data from two services settings that differ in important ways: retail banking and food service. The findings in both contexts support the assertion that person-job fit is an influencer of resourcefulness. This extends the literature by revealing that personality alone is not enough to foster the resourcefulness of frontline employees (FLEs). Also, resourcefulness lowers burnout in the higher customer workload setting and this effect is strengthened as workload increases. This is the first study to utilize the holistic Job Demands-Resources Model including personal and work resources, and interaction effects, to examine job resourcefulness. Managers should consider the resourcefulness of prospective employees during hiring decisions, and also ensure the proper fit of the FLE to the position itself. This is especially important in front-stage versus back-stage service positions. Additional research in the area is encouraged.

Keywords: Marketing, customer service, personality, job performance, efficiency

The mantra continues: “*Do more with less!*” As businesses weathered the storm of the great recession they learned that the cutbacks that resulted from pressures to increase efficiencies only added to the expectation that managers can, and must, do more with less. Now, practitioners face efficiency challenges daily. From small business (Swanciger, 2018), to health care (Sen, 2018), to entrepreneurship (McGrath, 2018), the phrase is rife in the business press, and efficiency pressures intensify with surges in staff reductions. In fact, a simple internet search of “do more with less” returns dozens of examples of the pressures for managers to ensure resourcefulness today.

Of current relevance is how managers can accomplish more with less without overwhelming the workforce or compromising quality. In fact, the issue has become a top research priority in services (Russell-Bennett and Rosenbaum, 2019) as running lean has essentially become the new normal; a normal that puts pressure on service delivery and quality. These pressures often result in lower levels of employee performance, increased disengagement, and increased stress (Seppala and Moeller, 2018). As such, it is imperative that managers ensure that employees have the resources to accomplish tasks and that sufficient support is provided.

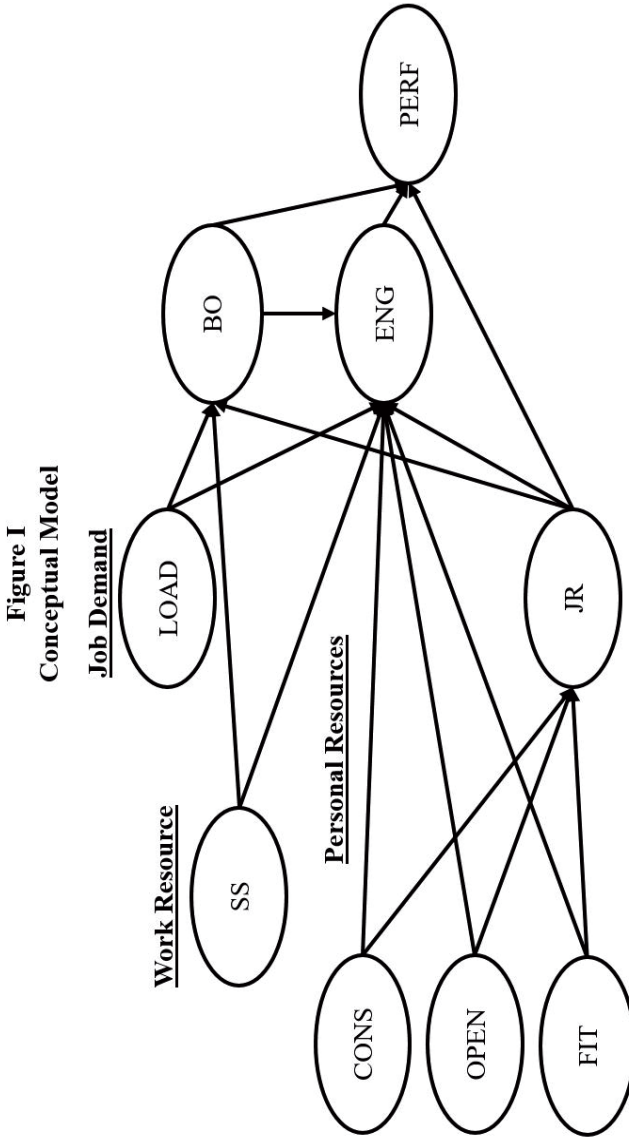
Work resources fall into two categories: work and personal (Bakker *et al.*, 2014). Work resources include support, development opportunities, and training, while personal resources include aspects of the self that influence FLE (front-line employee) behavior and performance. The challenge for managers is finding the balance between the two types of resources.

Given that personal resources play an important role in service delivery, a growing stream of research has focused on the job resourcefulness [hereafter JR] construct. JR has been shown to be an important personal resource that aids in workplace performance, especially in industries marked by cutbacks and efficiency pressures. Conceptualized as an individual-difference variable and defined as “an enduring disposition to garner scarce resources and overcome obstacles in the pursuit of job-related goals” (Licata *et al.*, 2003: 257), JR describes the FLE predisposition to succeed while doing more with less.

While this research stream matures, two important issues remain. First, research lags well behind practice in today’s environment as merely a handful of studies have focused on JR. Second, extant research has largely approached JR in piecemeal fashion, lacking attempts to fully integrate the construct into an established theory of workplace well-being. The Job Demands-Resources approach [hereafter JD-R] is well-suited for such inquiry (Bakker *et al.*, 2014; Bakker *et al.*, 2010; Bakker and Demerouti, 2007). Although some works have utilized JD-R theory as an underpinning for JR investigation (Oshio *et al.*, 2018), and while others have investigated social support influences on burnout and engagement, there has yet to be an attempt to integrate the holistic approach comprised of all aspects of the model including both JR and social support influences. This approach is similar in context to that of Harris’ (2020) investigation of productivity propensity.

The current study seeks to incorporate the JD-R approach by investigating: (a) the influence of JR on FLE engagement, burnout, and performance, (b) the influence of supervisor support on engagement and burnout, (c) the moderating impact of FLE workload on these effects, and (d) the influence of perceived job fit on JR. By examining these issues, the work presents a holistic examination of JR and its impact on FLE performance, thereby allowing researchers to gain an improved understanding of JR,

its antecedents, and its outcomes by simultaneously investigating the modeled effects. The conceptual model is presented in Figure I.



Note: Moderating influence of LOAD omitted for clarity of presentation.

EMPLOYEE JOB RESOURCEFULNESS

As discussed, JR is conceptualized as an individual-difference variable that influences employee behavior across settings. JR research has focused primarily on services including call center, banking, food service, and health care settings (e.g., Licata *et al.*, 2003; Harris *et al.*, 2007; Rod and Ashill, 2009), though more recent work has extended the construct to the sales arena (Harris *et al.*, 2013). The original work by Licata and colleagues (2003) emerged from the banking industry, an industry that, at the time, had faced cutbacks.

The banking and food service industries continue to face efficiency issues today. For example, even with record earnings and strong financial results, several banks have announced job cuts as efficiency pressures mount (Mashayekhi, 2019). Bank of America and Wells Fargo's recent decisions reflect this, as BOA's well-documented job cutbacks at a time of record earnings have preceded a forecast of up to 10% cuts at Wells Fargo over the next three years (Roberts, 2019). The food service sector is no different, facing not only resource scarcity, but thin margins and increased competition for employees (Duncan, 2019).

JR Antecedents

Research reveals that JR is influenced by the personality traits – conscientiousness and openness to experience (Harris *et al.*, 2006; Licata *et al.*, 2003). This research tradition follows a hierarchical approach to personality that conceptualizes traits as existing at varying levels of abstraction (Mowen, 2000). These two traits have consistently exhibited a positive influence on JR, which seems reasonable given that FLEs with higher levels of conscientiousness are better organized and thus have better task-focused behaviors that manifest as resourcefulness. Likewise, FLEs with a strong degree of openness are more likely to find unique solutions to overcoming resource scarcity. As Harris and colleagues (2013) propose, in order for a FLE to be resourceful, they must be both organized and creative in finding solutions to workplace challenges.

Little is known, however, regarding the influence of situational factors on JR. To this end, this study adopts the perspective of Mowen (2000) which suggests that situational influencers combine with personality traits to influence tendencies to act in a given situation. Specifically, it is hypothesized that perceived job fit (Kristof-Brown *et al.*, 2005) has a positive influence on JR. When the perceived fit between a FLE and the demands of job increases, work performance and motivation improve as well (Harris, 2018; Donovan *et al.*, 2004). The original work of Licata *et al.* (2003) supports this assertion, as employees interviewed revealed that when they must perform in contexts of resource scarcity, they draw on their resourcefulness to accomplish their assigned tasks. Those with the stronger degrees of JR would excel in such situations; situations in which the perceived match between themselves and the job is high. This is in keeping with person-job fit theory (i.e., Edwards, 1991), which has been the theoretical framework for the majority of JR research to date.

H1: JR is positively influenced by (a) conscientiousness, (b) openness to experience, and (c) perceived job fit.

Job Demands-Resources Approach

While Hypothesis 1 proposes the influence of fit on JR, the framework also allows for an examination of how job and personal resources influence engagement, burnout, and performance. According to the JD-R approach, FLE engagement and burnout are influenced by resources and demands, which in turn interact such that the influence of resources on burnout and engagement are strengthened under demanding work conditions (Harris, 2020). Engagement is viewed as a positive state of mind regarding one's work that encompasses feelings of vigor, dedication, and absorption (Harris, 2020; Schaufeli *et al.*, 2002), and burnout as a feeling of mental exhaustion, depersonalization of others, and a lack of perceived personal accomplishment and/or cynicism towards one's work (Maslach *et al.*, 1996). Two sources of work resources, JR (a personal resource) and supervisor support (a job resource) are examined in this study.

The positioning of individual-difference variables as personal resources in the JD-R approach is important and previous work supports this view. For example, Zablah *et al.* (2012) utilized this approach when they conceptualized customer orientation [hereafter, CO] as a personal resource that influences how employees function in a given work environment. Their work supported the assertion that CO influences FLE stress and engagement and that customer workload and persuasion use moderate CO effects. Specifically, the influence of CO on stress is stronger with higher workloads, as is the CO → engagement linkage. While the Zablah *et al.* (2012) work focused on CO, other works, including Licata *et al.* (2003) and Harris *et al.* (2006) view JR similarly: as a personal resource that impacts important outcomes.

JR Effects

Within the JD-R framework, theoretical support for the influence of JR on burnout is supported by Hobfoll's (1989) conservation of resources theory. According to this theory, individuals strive to protect that which they value. Given that FLEs have limited psychological resources for handling workplace pressures, they must consume available resources in order to achieve objectives (Goldberg and Grandey, 2007). When insufficient resources exist to achieve desired outcomes, stress and strain result. Higher levels of personal resources minimize this strain (Muraven *et al.*, 2006), and as such, higher levels of JR insulate FLEs from burnout.

Previous empirical works support these assertions as well as it has been shown that JR influences the emotional exhaustion dimension of burnout (Karatepe and Aga, 2013; Rod and Ashill, 2009). One caveat here is that these works specified working with "people," rather than customers. Although FLEs interact with a number of people in various roles each day (e.g., managers, coworkers), the influence of customers on FLE attitudes and behaviors is most direct.

H2: JR negatively influences customer burnout.

As Zablah and colleagues (2012) assert, the JD-R perspective suggests that personal resources, such as JR, also increases engagement and performance. When FLEs are placed in positions requiring customer service while dealing with efficiency pressures, they must pull from these resources while engaging in either surface or deep-level "acting" (Grandey *et al.*, 2005). That is, they either put on a smile regardless of felt emotions (surface-level) or regulate authentic displays of emotion (deep-level acting). Automatic responses, as would be expected from FLEs with a strong degree of JR,

encourage engagement because they do not deplete emotional resources (Goldberg and Grandey, 2007). Additionally, Cheng and Chen (2017) found that work engagement fully mediates the link between job resourcefulness and prosocial service behaviors, while Karatepe and Aga (2013) found that work engagement fully mediated the link between JR and job satisfaction, organizational commitment and turnover intentions. Indeed, according to Bakker *et al.* (2014), personal resources are one of the main drivers of workplace engagement.

H3: JR positively influences work engagement.

H4: JR positively influences self-rated job performance.

Supervisor Support Effects

While previous works have utilized the JD-R approach to investigate the role of social support (e.g., Oshio *et al.*, 2018) on engagement, the current work integrates these findings into the JR model. Supportive work environments are associated with increased productivity and positive employee outcomes, and as Babin and Boles (1996) posit, an important way that supervisors facilitate performance is through ensuring that FLEs are provided adequate job resources. This is the crux of the situation today, where managers must ensure that employees have the necessary resources to perform their jobs (Seppala and Moeller, 2018). In fact, recent works (e.g., Oshio *et al.*, 2018) have found support for the assertion that supervisor support influences work engagement in service settings.

H5: Supervisor support positively influences FLE work engagement.

Job resources, including supervisor support, have consistently been shown to negatively influence burnout (Bakker *et al.*, 2014), and as Babin and Boles (1996) have shown, supervisor support also lowers work stress. With lower levels of support, FLEs are left with inadequate guidance for what is expected or required on the job, leading to higher levels of exhaustion when dealing with customers. As such, supervisor support is expected to negatively influence customer burnout.

H6: Supervisor support negatively influences customer burnout.

Moderating Role of Demands

Job demands, such as customer workload, play a critical role in the JD-R approach. From the JD-R perspective, resources become more valuable under demanding job conditions (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007). Workload can be conceptualized in different ways. For example, Zablah *et al.* (2012) assessed the division of attention amongst a relative large number of customers per day, while Donovan *et al.* (2004) assessed the percentage of the overall workday devoted to customers. This study follows the procedure of Donovan *et al.* (2004) as the focus is on the proportion of time that FLEs have in direct contact with customers.

As noted, Zablah and colleagues (2012) found that the negative relationship between CO and role ambiguity is stronger under higher workloads and that the positive relationship between CO and job engagement is stronger under higher levels of customer workload. This study seeks to extend this finding to both JR and support. In particular, it is expected that the positive influence of JR on engagement, as well as the negative influence of JR on customer burnout, will become stronger at higher levels of workload. It is also expected that the positive influence of supervisor support on engagement, as well as the negative influence of support on customer burnout, will also

become stronger at higher levels of workload. Essentially, it is expected that job and personal resources effects are magnified under higher customer workload demands.

These assertions are further supported by the interactionist perspective which posits that the influence of personal variables is strengthened under conditions that are congruent with the variable under question. Here, the increased attention that must be devoted to numerous customers intensifies the scarcity problem for FLEs by spreading already scarce resources across multiple interactions, and highly resourceful employees would be less prone to burnout and likely more engaged. Furthermore, as Babin and Boles (1996) have shown, supervisor support is most heavily valued when FLEs perceive that they are receiving support during intense work times. Consideration of work intensity is important here, as empathic supervisors help to reduce stress that arises from meeting the demands of customers and managers (Dubinsky and Skinner, 1984).

H7: Customer workload moderates the effects of JR on (a) engagement and (b) customer burnout, such that these effects are stronger as workload increases.

H8: Customer workload moderates the effects of supervisor support on (a) engagement and (b) customer burnout, such that these effects are stronger as workload increases.

Other Modeled Relationships

A series of hypotheses are included, based on previous research, which relate personal resources to outcomes as well as endogenous relationships among engagement, burnout, and performance. These are only briefly discussed here. Specifically, research reveals that creativity positively influences engagement (e.g., Toyama and Mauno, 2016). Further, Inceoglu and Warr (2011) found that conscientiousness is a positive predictor of engagement. While the relationship between burnout and engagement has been debated in the literature, the JR-D perspective suggests that burnout leads to disengagement (Demerouti *et al.*, 2001). Furthermore, both engagement (Saks and Gruman, 2011) and burnout (Singh, 2000) have been found empirically to positively and negatively, respectfully, influence job performance. Finally, a positive influence of perceived job fit on work engagement has been noted in previous works (Saks and Gruman, 2011), as has the influence of workload on burnout (Leiter and Maslach, 2001) and engagement (Zablah *et al.*, 2012).

H9: Openness to experience positively influences engagement.

H10: Conscientiousness positively influences engagement.

H11: Customer burnout negatively influences (a) engagement and (b) self-rated job performance.

H12: Engagement positively influences self-rated job performance.

H13: Perceived fit positively influences engagement.

H14: Customer workload positively influences (a) customer burnout and negatively influences (b) engagement.

METHODOLOGY

Two service settings were selected for this study, both within the United States: retail banking and food service. An online data collection firm was utilized for data collection and the effort was part of a larger study. The settings were selected based on specific criteria (*cf.*, Donovan *et al.*, 2004). First, retail banking generally represents a pure

service in that transactions often consist of few, if any, tangibles. In restaurants, transactions are based around a tangible good. Second, transactions in a restaurant setting are generally discrete, leaning heavily on transactional marketing whereas long-term relationships often exist between customers and banking institutions. Third, the settings often differ in customer workload, with restaurant services often requiring more customer contacts and a higher percentage of work time devoted to customers than in retail banking. The sample data supported this assertion, with 45 customer interactions on average reported per day in the banking sample and 200 interactions per day in the restaurant sample ($t = -5.75, p < 0.05$). This amounted to approximately 75% of the work time devoted to serving customers in restaurants, compared to 60% in banking ($t = -4.75, p < 0.05$). It is noted that these measures do not assess effort, rather, the total number and percentage of time devoted to customers daily.

In total, 201 surveys were collected from full-time bank employees (70% female) and 205 from full-time restaurant service employees (73% female). The bank employees had, on average, 17 years tenure in the industry and 12 years tenure with their employer (11 years and 5 years for restaurant employees).

Measures

Job Resourcefulness. JR was assessed on a four-item scale from Licata *et al.* (2003), bounded by “strongly disagree (1)” and “strongly agree (9).” Sample items include “I am able to make things happen in the face of scarcity on the job” and “On the job, I am inventive in overcoming barriers” ($\alpha_{\text{total}} = 0.91, C.R._{[\text{composite reliability}]_{\text{total}}} = 0.94, C.R._{\text{restaurant}} = 0.93, C.R._{\text{bank}} = 0.95$).

Supervisor Support. Supervisor support was measured with a four-item scale from Babin and Boles (1996). Items include “supervisors tend to talk down to employees (R)” and “supervisors really stand up for people” ($\alpha_{\text{total}} = 0.78; C.R._{\text{total}} = 0.86, C.R._{\text{restaurant}} = 0.77, C.R._{\text{bank}} = 0.86$).

Burnout. Customer burnout was assessed on a four-item measure (Singh, 2000). Items included “working with customers is really a strain on me” and “I feel indifferent towards some of my customers” ($\alpha_{\text{total}} = 0.86, C.R._{\text{total}} = 0.90, C.R._{\text{restaurant}} = 0.89, C.R._{\text{bank}} = 0.92$).

Engagement. Engagement was measured with a five-item scale (Matthews *et al.*, 2016). Items include “I am enthusiastic in my job” and “I feel positive about my job,” ($\alpha_{\text{total}} = 0.94, C.R._{\text{total}} = 0.95, C.R._{\text{restaurant}} = 0.96, C.R._{\text{bank}} = 0.97$).

Perceived Fit. Fit was measured with a three-item scale (Donavan *et al.*, 2004). Items include “my skills and abilities perfectly match my job demands” and “there is a good fit between my job and me” ($\alpha_{\text{total}} = 0.81; C.R._{\text{total}} = 0.88, C.R._{\text{restaurant}} = 0.88, C.R._{\text{bank}} = 0.93$).

Personality Traits. Items for the personality measures were from Harris *et al.* (2006). The personality items asked respondents how they describe themselves with endpoints of “not at all descriptive (1)” and “extremely descriptive (9).” For conscientiousness, the reliabilities were as follows: $\alpha_{\text{restaurant}} = 0.86, C.R._{\text{restaurant}} = 0.90$ and $\alpha_{\text{bank}} = 0.85, C.R._{\text{bank}} = 0.90$. For openness, the reliabilities were as follows: $\alpha_{\text{restaurant}} = 0.85, C.R._{\text{restaurant}} = 0.90$ and $\alpha_{\text{bank}} = 0.87, C.R._{\text{bank}} = 0.91$.

Self-Rated Performance. A three-item measure from Brown *et al.* (2002) was utilized for the self-rated performance variable. Items included “overall quantity/quality of work performed” and “overall work performance.” The items were assessed on a seven-point

scale anchored by “among the worst in the company (1)” and “among the best in the company (7)” ($\alpha_{\text{total}} = 0.89$; $C.R._{\text{total}} = 0.93$, $C.R._{\text{restaurant}} = 0.89$, $C.R._{\text{bank}} = 0.93$).

Customer Workload. Customer workload was measured with a single-item: “Approximately what percentage of your day is spent in direct contact with customers?” (Donavan *et al.*, 2004).

ANALYSIS

Prior to analysis, the validity of the measures in each sample was assessed. The fit for each measurement model was acceptable ($\chi^2 = 893.06$, d.f. = 459, $p < 0.05$, $\chi^2/\text{d.f.} < 2$, CFI = 0.95, SRMR = 0.08, RMSEA = 0.07, restaurant, and $\chi^2 = 855.30$, d.f. = 459, $p < 0.05$, $\chi^2/\text{d.f.} < 2$, CFI = 0.96, SRMR = 0.08, RMSEA = 0.06, bank), with all measures loading significantly on respective factors. The hypothesis tests were conducted using partial least squares-structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM). This approach was selected for a number of reasons: this research is a predictive-causal analysis, the data analyzed in PLS-SEM does not need to be normally distributed, and PLS-SEM accommodates relatively smaller sample sizes relative to covariance based SEM.

All latent constructs had alpha and composite reliabilities above the 0.70 threshold. Also, the square root of the AVE for each construct was greater than the latent variable correlations for that variable with each of the other latent variable constructs. Additionally, the square root of the AVE for each construct was above 0.80, with the exception of supervisor support which has a square root of the AVE at 0.788 and 0.784 in the two samples. While not ideal, the combination of the statistics indicate an adequate level of psychometric quality to test the hypotheses.

Table 1 presents the results of the model analysis. The analysis began by subjecting each sample to the full path model using the bootstrapping technique in SmartPLS2.0 (Ringle *et al.*, 2005) with the parameters set using 500 draws of 190 cases, and a significance level of 0.05 ($t = 1.645$, [directional]). Sixteen hypotheses were supported in at least one sample, and the model offered significant explanatory power, ranging from 18%-46% variance explained. In both models, support was found for H1[a-c] (conscientiousness, openness, and fit \rightarrow JR), H4 (JR \rightarrow self-rated performance), H10 (conscientiousness \rightarrow engagement), H11a (customer burnout \rightarrow engagement), H12 (engagement \rightarrow self-rated performance), H13 (fit \rightarrow engagement), and H14a (workload \rightarrow customer burnout).

Other hypothesized relationships were supported in at least one context included H2 (JR \rightarrow customer burnout [restaurant]), H6 (supervisor support \rightarrow customer burnout [restaurant]), H7b (JR * workload \rightarrow customer burnout [restaurant]), and H8b (supervisor support * workload \rightarrow customer burnout [bank]), H9 (openness \rightarrow engagement [restaurant]), H11b (customer burnout \rightarrow performance [bank]), and H14b (workload \rightarrow engagement [bank]).

Table 1
Conceptual Model Results

	Path	Restaurant			Bank		
		Coefficient	Standard Error	t-value	Coefficient	Standard Error	t-value
H1a	CONS → JR*	0.158	0.083	1.912	0.194	0.080	2.437
H1b	OPEN → JR*	0.335	0.100	3.350	0.382	0.067	5.662
H1c	FIT → JR*	0.271	0.100	2.723	0.158	0.066	2.399
H2	JR → BO*	-0.632	0.264	-2.392	-0.137	0.110	-1.242
H3	JR → ENG	0.146	0.233	0.626	-0.165	0.105	-1.566
H4	JR → PERF*	0.284	0.078	3.654	0.302	0.081	3.712
H5	SS → ENG	0.118	0.222	0.532	-0.011	0.124	-0.084
H6	SS → BO*	-0.375	0.216	-1.736	-0.190	0.117	-1.623
H7a	JR x LOAD → ENG	-0.176	0.394	-0.447	0.343	0.286	1.198
H7b	JR x LOAD → BO*	0.735	0.431	1.706	-0.374	0.400	-0.936
H8a	SS x LOAD → ENG	0.054	0.286	0.189	0.270	0.217	1.245
H8b	SS x LOAD → BO	0.078	0.311	0.250	-0.359	0.207	-1.737
H9	OPEN → ENG*	0.172	0.080	2.143	0.055	0.071	0.770
H10	CONS → ENG*	0.162	0.069	2.362	0.124	0.068	1.838
H11a	BO → ENG*	-0.124	0.059	-2.094	-0.129	0.069	-1.887
H11b	BO → PERF*	-0.052	0.066	-0.781	-0.191	0.109	-1.757
H12	ENG → PERF*	0.287	0.075	3.846	0.177	0.102	1.741
H13	FIT → ENG*	0.371	0.074	5.051	0.497	0.064	7.782
H14a	LOAD → BO*	-0.702	0.415	-1.692	0.695	0.379	1.834
H14b	LOAD → ENG*	0.136	0.422	0.323	-0.542	0.309	-1.757

Note: CON=Conscientiousness, OPEN = Openness, JR = Job Resourcefulness, FIT = Perceived Fit, ENG = Engagement, SS = Supervisor Support, BO = Customer Burnout, LOAD = Workload, PERF = Performance; * significant in at least one sample at p < 0.05

The re-specified model (see Table 2) contained paths that were significant in at least one of the contexts. Thirteen of the remaining hypotheses that comprise the revised model were significant in the restaurant sample and ten were significant in the bank sample, resulting in nine being significant in both samples. Importantly, simplifying the model had minimal impact on the ability of the model to explain variance in the endogenous variables as evidenced by the non-significant changes in r-square with the removal of the paths, thereby suggesting that the more parsimonious, revised, model is appropriate for explaining the data.

Table 2
Revised Model Results

Path	Restaurant			Bank		
	Coefficient	Standard Error	t-value	Coefficient	Standard Error	t-value
CONS → JR*	0.158	0.071	2.213	0.193	0.082	2.348
OPEN → JR*	0.335	0.095	3.541	0.382	0.067	5.712
FIT → JR*	0.271	0.095	2.861	0.158	0.064	2.484
JR → BO	-0.628	0.243	-2.583	-0.111	0.110	-1.011
SS → BO*	-0.324	0.064	-5.083	-0.411	0.065	-6.318
JR x LOAD → BO	0.724	0.416	1.739	-0.442	0.411	-1.076
OPEN → ENG	0.192	0.074	2.580	0.017	0.063	0.263
CONS → ENG*	0.174	0.061	2.860	0.129	0.072	1.790
JR → PERF*	0.283	0.076	3.710	0.302	0.083	3.645
BO → ENG*	-0.175	0.056	-3.160	-0.163	0.058	-2.796
BO → PERF	-0.052	0.074	-0.700	-0.190	0.109	-1.752
ENG → PERF*	0.287	0.072	3.993	0.177	0.099	1.786
FIT → ENG*	0.403	0.062	6.515	0.522	0.057	9.139
LOAD → BO	0.638	0.350	1.824	0.472	0.357	1.312
Variance accounted for: BO (original): 0.285, (revised): 0.282; ENG (original): 0.439, (revised): 0.413; JR (original): 0.333, (revised): 0.333; PERF (original): 0.244, (revised): 0.244						
NOTE: * indicates paths that are significant at p < 0.05 in both samples						

Ultimately, the re-specified model offered support for hypotheses that were central to the JD-R conceptualization. Specifically, the results offered support for hypotheses 1(a-c) regarding the antecedents of JR (the personal resources of conscientiousness, openness, perceived fit). These findings supported not only the JD-R conceptualization, but the hierarchical personality approach as well. Furthermore, the support for hypotheses 10 and 13 (the influence of conscientiousness and perceived fit on engagement) also aligns with the JD-R and hierarchical approaches. Hypothesis 4 was

also supported, which explicates the influence of a personal resource, JR, on the outcome measure of performance. The hypothesized influence of supervisor support on burnout (Hypothesis 6), which was also supported, expounds the impact of job resources on burnout. Finally, the support for Hypotheses 11(a) and 12 lend credence to the conceptualized influence of burnout on engagement and engagement on performance, which again is a critical component of the JD-R framework. In sum, each result from the re-specified model supports the essential elements found in the JD-R approach.

Common Method Analysis

Harmon's one-factor test, which provides an indication of the extent to which a single factor accounts for the majority of covariance among a study's measures, was performed in each sample in order to address common methods concerns. The first factor accounted for only 34% of the variance in the unrotated factor matrix for the restaurant data and 31% in banking. A secondary analysis was performed following the Lindell and Whitney (2001) recommended procedure. Accordingly, a marker variable from the data set was used that was unrelated theoretically to at least one other variable in the study. This variable is used to effectively partial out the average correlation among variables attributed to common method.

The variable "need for activity," defined by Mowen (2000) as a focus on maintaining an active lifestyle, should arguably be unrelated to at least one variable in the model, namely supervisor support. The correlation between these variables was 0.07, the smallest in the data set for banking and also 0.07 for the restaurant set. After this adjustment, the correlations and t-values for the significant, conceptualized relationships, omitting those with the interaction effects, remained significant (CON – JR t-value [restaurant] = 3.85, [bank] = 5.50; OPEN – JR = 7.00; 3.28; FIT – JR = 6.00; 3.85; JR-CUBO [restaurant] = 2.70; SS – CUBO = 3.85, 5.14; JR – PERF = 7.00, 4.85). The tests, while limited, provide evidence that CMV bias may be minimal.

DISCUSSION

The goal of this paper was to address the need for continued research on JR in today's service marketing environment by examining the construct holistically via the JD-R approach. This allows for explication of the incremental contribution of each of the variables in the model in a manner that has not yet been possible. A holistic approach, such as that offered by the JD-R model, allows researchers to elucidate complex relationships between myriad variables. As shown in Table 2, the findings in both contexts support the assertion that person-job fit is a driver of JR, controlling for personality effects established in previous research. Furthermore, person-job fit is also an antecedent of employee engagement, again indicated in previous research. The appropriate fit enables FLEs to bolster higher levels of both resourcefulness and engagement.

It is further noted that JR has again been shown to influence job performance. Also, JR lowers customer burnout in the higher customer workload setting and this effect is strengthened as workload increases. This is a notable finding given that burnout negatively impacts engagement across samples. It is noteworthy that these effects were not found in the lower workload environment, bolstering the claim that JR is particularly important in high demand, high customer workload environments. The model also

explicitates the effects of supervisor support, as support has been shown to negatively influence customer burnout in the revised model. This was as predicted and follows previous research findings. It is also notable, and not surprising, that customer workload directly impacts customer burnout in higher demand settings.

The non-significant findings for the antecedents of engagement were surprising. This may be explained in that the incremental contribution of those paths, though statistically significant when examined in isolation, are actually serving as proxy measures for one of the other variables and thus those relationships become non-significant in the holistic model. For instance, the failure of this study to link JR to work engagement plausibly reveals that the findings by Cheng and Chen (2017) and Karatepe and Aga (2013) regarding this link were due to the fact that they excluded conscientiousness and openness to experience in their model and that JR was serving a proxy for the missing personality variables. Again, the holistic nature of the full JD-R approach allows for these conclusions.

In addition, these relationships may be explained from the previously discussed literature on burnout and engagement. It may be argued based on the findings of Demerouti *et al.* (2010), that the influence of job resourcefulness, supervisor support, and perceived fit on job engagement are mediated through customer burnout. To explore this possibility, the researchers first fit a model containing all expected predictors of engagement (conscientiousness, openness, perceived fit, job resourcefulness, and supervisor support) except burnout, followed by a model in which job resourcefulness and supervisor support were partially mediated by customer burnout. Finally, a model was tested where job resourcefulness and supervisor support were fully mediated by burnout. The efficacy of each specification for each predictor was examined by looking at the total effects statistics. A model of the strongest effects was fit for each sample and the explanatory power compared to the other models.

For both samples, supervisor support was partially mediated by customer burnout on engagement (total effect restaurant: support \rightarrow engagement = 0.18, t-value = 3.32; total effect bank: support \rightarrow engagement = 0.16, t-value = 2.75). Furthermore, in both samples the best fitting models indicated that JR was fully mediated by burnout on engagement (total effect restaurant: JR \rightarrow engagement = 0.04, t-value = 1.68; total effect bank: JR \rightarrow engagement = 0.02, t-value = 1.41). However, the total effect was non-significant for the bank sample. These findings support the notion that the non-significant findings for the antecedents of engagement may be attributed to the mediating effect of customer burnout. It is also noteworthy that burnout influenced job performance only in the bank sample. The contextual variable that appears to drive the divergence between the two models is the nature of FLE-customer interactions. Though conjecture, interactions in the restaurant settings are more transactionally-based than in financial service settings (Donavan *et al.*, 2004). It is plausible that burnout towards customers may not impact performance to the degree to which it would in relational settings.

MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS

This study has implications for managers who continue to face the challenges of doing more with less, of which the foremost is the need for managers to select the correct employees for frontline positions. Personality tests have long been popular for employee

selection in service settings, and the correct match of employee requirements and personal resources is crucial (SIOP, 2019). A significant research stream now supports the important role that JR plays in service settings. Beyond employee selection, managers must also ensure the proper fit of the FLE to the service position itself. The well-established research on fit supports the importance of fit, and this study reveals the role of fit and JR in high workload service positions. This is significant given that fit directly influences engagement across contexts.

Furthermore, managers should recognize the effects of workload on JR → outcomes relationships. Workload strengthens the relationship between personal resources, such as JR, and burnout. This is especially significant for managers in high workload environments. FLEs who possess strong degrees of JR can be expected to interact well with customers in such environments without experiencing the detrimental effects of customer burnout. The work also highlights the role of supervisor support in FLE well-being. The most notable relationship here is the influence of supervisor support on customer burnout across settings. Accordingly, managers are again encouraged to offer FLEs sufficient social and work-related support.

LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

Limitations of this work should be highlighted. First, modest sample sizes were collected in each setting and the research was dependent upon a third-party data collection firm. Second, the study relied on self-report, cross-sectional measures. Third, only one job demand and one job-related resource was assessed. Demands may be physical or emotional, and support includes more than supervisor-derived sources. Finally, research is needed that addresses the possibility that burnout towards customers may not impact performance as heavily in transaction-based interactions as it does in relational marketing settings. This conjecture should be given additional research attention.

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But I Deserve It! A Meta-analytic Review of Employee Entitlement

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This article reports the results of a meta-analysis of the antecedents, correlates, and outcomes of employee entitlement. The results suggest that males and younger employees are more likely to feel entitled. Furthermore, the entitlement-exploitative facet of narcissism appeared as one of the strongest correlates of entitlement. The review also shows that entitlement is associated negatively with numerous employee outcomes such as increased levels of abuse toward coworkers and counterproductive work behaviors. In addition, findings from relative weight analysis suggest that in comparison with narcissism, entitlement is a unique and significant predictor of employee counterproductive work behaviors. Finally, meta-analytic path analysis results reveal that self-esteem fully mediates the relationship between entitlement and job performance. Suggestions for future research and practical implications for managers are presented.

Keywords: Entitlement; meta-analysis; relative weight analysis; meta-analytic path model

The topic of entitlement has attracted significant scholarly and media attention in recent years (Roosevelt, 2009; Twenge, 2014). Although this increased attention is often attributed to the entrance of millennials in workplaces, the concept is not new and not specific to the field of management (Brouer *et al.*, 2011). Indeed, scholars from various disciplines – including education, psychology, criminology, and marketing have examined the issue of entitlement. In management, scholars and practitioners have expressed concerns about the increased sense of employee entitlement (Campbell *et al.*, 2004; Fisk, 2010; Harvey and Martinko, 2009). For instance, entitled employees report higher levels of conflict with supervisors and lower levels of job satisfaction (Harvey and Harris, 2010; Harvey and Martinko, 2009). On the other hand, there are beneficial effects of entitlement such as increased levels of self-esteem and creativity (Lange *et al.*,

2018; Zitek and Vincent, 2015). Accordingly, a primary goal of this meta-analytic study is to further explore the beneficial and deleterious effects of employee entitlement.

A variety of conceptualizations have been used to define employee psychological entitlement (referred to as entitlement from this point forward). For instance, some scholars have defined entitlement as a trait (stable individual difference) variable (Campbell *et al.*, 2004; Raskin and Terry, 1988) while others have defined entitlement as a state variable (where certain situations and experiences activate the underlying trait entitlement) (Feather, 2003; Fisk, 2010; Lerner, 1987). This study uses one of the most predominant conceptualizations of entitlement in management research by Campbell *et al.* (2004) and defines entitlement as a “stable and pervasive sense that one deserves more and is entitled to more than others” (Campbell *et al.*, 2004: 31). This definition includes two key points. First, entitlement is a global personality trait. It is not specific to a certain situation, but stable and pervasive across time and situations (Hart *et al.*, 2019). Second, this conceptualization focuses on both feelings of deservingness and entitlement. Individuals may feel deserving of rewards in exchange for their hard work or effort. Individuals may also feel entitled to certain rewards because of socio-cultural norms, rights, and privileges.

Equity sensitivity theory (Huseman *et al.*, 1985) and attribution theory (Weiner, 1985) are critical to understand why individuals feel entitled or more deserving than others at work. According to equity sensitivity theory (Huseman *et al.*, 1985), entitled individuals prefer being over rewarded for their contributions. According to attribution theory (Weiner, 1985), entitled individuals maintain their positive self-image by engaging in self-serving attributional biases. When individuals engage in self-serving bias, they are more likely to attribute positive outcomes to themselves and negative outcomes to others (Harvey and Martinko, 2009; Weiner, 1985). Based on these and other theoretical foundations, researchers have examined a variety of variables in the nomological network of entitlement. The purpose of this article is to provide an accurate understanding of the relationships between the variables in the nomological network of entitlement and conduct a meta-analytic examination of the antecedents, correlates, and consequences of employee entitlement. In addition, a relative weight analysis is performed to examine the uniqueness of entitlement over and above narcissism and Big Five personality traits in predicting counterproductive work behaviors (CWBs) and job performance.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND AND CONCEPTUALIZATION OF ENTITLEMENT

Two theoretical frameworks are predominantly used to understand entitlement: equity sensitivity theory (Huseman *et al.*, 1985) and attribution theory (Weiner, 1985). Equity sensitivity theory emerges from the tenets of equity theory (Adams, 1963) and argues that individuals react to situations of equity and inequity on a continuum ranging from benevolents to equity sensitives to entitleds (Huseman *et al.*, 1985). Benevolent individuals are altruistic “givers” who prefer to give more than they receive. Equity sensitive individuals prefer equality and an equitable ratio of their outcome/input relative to others. Finally, entitled individuals are the “getters” who prefer to receive more than they give (Huseman *et al.*, 1985). These individual differences in equity sensitivity may explain, for instance, why benevolent individuals perceive higher levels

of pay fairness, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment, and lower levels of turnover intentions in comparison with entitled individuals (King and Miles, 1994; Shore, 2004). Entitled individuals may also protect their positive self-perceptions by engaging in self-serving attributions (Harvey and Martinko, 2009; Laird *et al.*, 2015). According to attribution theory, individuals rely on internal (i.e., dispositional) or external (i.e., situational) explanations to justify their own and others' behavior (Fiske and Taylor, 1991). Building on these ideas, entitled individuals are more likely to engage in self-serving attributional biases or take personal credit for positive outcomes and blame others for negative outcomes (Harvey and Martinko, 2009; Laird *et al.*, 2015).

Despite the different conceptualizations of entitlement, the common underlying theme of these definitions is that entitlement reflects individual beliefs about what they deserve (Jordan *et al.*, 2017; Naumann *et al.*, 2002). These individual beliefs may occur due to both state and trait influences (Campbell *et al.*, 2004; Feather, 2003; Fisk, 2010; Lerner, 1987). As a state variable, entitlement is considered as a situation specific variable, activated only under certain circumstances (Feather, 2003; Fisk, 2010; Lerner, 1987; Tett and Guterman, 2000). Trait activation theory focuses on the person-situation interactions and suggests that situational cues can influence expressions of certain personality traits (Tett and Guterman, 2000). In other words, an individual behaves in trait specific ways only in "trait-relevant" situations. These situations signal to the individual that the expression of the focal trait is both appropriate and important (Tett and Burnett, 2003: 502). Based on trait activation theory, the relationships between entitlement and employee outcomes may depend on the context because individuals may experience entitlement only under certain situations (Lerner, 1987; Tett and Guterman, 2000). For example, situational factors such as societal values, norms, and individual rights can cause some individuals to feel and express more entitlement than others (Feather, 2003; Lerner, 1987). Indeed, disciplines such as law, psychology, management, criminology, anthropology, and marketing have examined situation specific entitlement and highlighted the importance and applicability of entitlement in a variety of situations (Naumann *et al.*, 2002).

As a trait variable, entitlement is predominantly examined as a component of narcissism (Raskin and Terry, 1988) or as a stand-alone personality trait of psychological entitlement (Campbell *et al.*, 2004; Jordan *et al.*, 2017). Some of the earliest work on entitlement exists in the narcissism literature where entitlement is used to diagnose clinical or subclinical narcissism (American Psychiatric Association, 1994). For example, both DSM-IV (American Psychiatric Association, 2000) and the Narcissistic Personality Inventory (NPI; Raskin and Hall, 1981; Raskin and Terry, 1988) focus on the maladaptive nature of entitlement and describe entitlement as individuals' distorted views of self-importance and unreasonable expectation of favorable treatment and automatic compliance from others (Campbell *et al.*, 2004; Jordan *et al.*, 2017). On the other hand, there is a broader and less pathological conceptualization of entitlement, also known as psychological entitlement (Campbell *et al.*, 2004; Jordan *et al.*, 2017). These scholars define entitlement as a stable personality trait that predisposes some individuals to experience higher levels of entitlement than others (Campbell *et al.*, 2004; Harvey and Harris, 2010; Naumann *et al.*, 2002). Moreover, such global tendency toward favorable outcomes exists in all situations and regardless of any contributions or justifications (Harvey and Harris, 2010).

To examine entitlement as a unique construct and empirically assess its impact on the general population, Campbell *et al.* (2004) developed the nine-item Psychological Entitlement Scale (PES). PES is a unidimensional scale that captures entitlement beliefs and expectations. Example items are: I deserve more things in my life, I demand the best because I'm worth it, and I feel entitled to more of everything. Campbell *et al.* (2004) validated the PES across a wide range of social settings and found that entitlement was positively associated with a variety of self-serving behaviors and attitudes. In the last decade and a half, organizational researchers have predominantly used PES to explore entitlement in the workplace (e.g., Harvey and Harris, 2010; Harvey and Martinko, 2009; Wheeler *et al.*, 2013; Westerlaken *et al.*, 2017). Guided by the theoretical framework of equity sensitivity (Huseman *et al.*, 1985) and attribution (Weiner, 1985) theories, the overarching research question being examined in this study is: "What are the true relationships between the antecedents, correlates, and consequences of employee entitlement?" The study answers this question with the help of a meta-analysis of empirical studies that have used Campbell *et al.*'s (2004) operationalization. The results of a relative weight analysis to compare entitlement with other personality traits such as narcissism and the Big Five are also presented.

METHOD

Literature Search and Criteria for Inclusion

A variety of electronic databases, including ABI/INFORM, Business Source Premier, Dissertation Abstracts, EBSCOhost, Google, Google Scholar, ProQuest Dissertations & Theses, and PsycINFO were searched using the following search terms: *psychological entitlement*, *workplace entitlement*, *psychological entitlement scale*, and *employee entitlement*. In addition, a manual search of the reference list in Campbell *et al.* (2004) and other seminal articles and prominent authors for any additional sources was also performed. This process yielded a total of 456 conceptual and empirical articles. A study was eligible for inclusion if it assessed entitlement in a work context (studies that assessed student entitlement in an academic setting were excluded) and if it reported a correlation coefficient or some other statistic that could be easily converted into a correlation coefficient. After applying these inclusion criteria, the final database consisted of 71 independent samples involving 30,998 employees. Of these samples, 54 were from published journal articles and 17 were from unpublished dissertations.

Meta-Analytic Procedures

Hunter and Schmidt's (2004) random-effects meta-analytic approach was used. Moreover, each reported correlation was corrected for measurement unreliability and sampling error. When a study failed to report reliability coefficients, the missing value was assigned with the weighted mean reliability from studies that reported this information (Hunter and Schmidt, 2004). The sample-size weighted mean reliability for entitlement was 0.86. The results report the number of studies (k), the sample size (N) and calculated corrected mean correlation (r^+), and 95% confidence interval ($95\%CI$) for each relationship. Moderator effects were assessed by computing the Q statistic, Q_T . Q_T includes Q within (Q_W) and Q between (Q_B) components (Hedges, 1994). The presence of moderators was also evaluated with the I^2 statistic which is a relative measure of heterogeneity. An I^2 statistic of 25% represents low, 50% represents moderate, and 75%

represents high levels of heterogeneity (Higgins and Thompson, 2002). Finally, publication bias was assessed by computing Fail-safe N numbers (Rosenthal, 1979). Fail-safe N reflects the number of unreported or missing studies that should be added to the analysis to make the results insignificant. According to Rosenthal (1979), the failsafe number should be greater than $5k+10$, or greater than five times the studies included in the meta-analysis plus ten. In addition, Duval and Tweedie's (2000) trim and fill tests were performed to look for missing studies to the left or right of the overall effect size. These tests then trim the asymmetric studies to report the missing imputed studies (k^{TF}) and adjusted mean correlation ($TF\ adj. r^+$).

Relative Weight Analyses

Relative weight analyses investigate the relative importance of entitlement over and above narcissism and Big Five personality traits in predicting CWBs and job performance. The input correlation matrices for these analyses were created using the results from the current meta-analysis or from previous meta-analysis (Forsyth *et al.*, 2012; Grijalva and Newman, 2015; Hurtz and Donovan, 2000; Van der Linden *et al.*, 2010). The web-based tool developed by Tonidandel and LeBreton (2015) was used to compute raw weights of each predictor variable to the total variance. The resulting weights indicate the percentage of variance explained by each predictor variable in the assessment of the criterion variable.

RESULTS

Antecedents of Entitlement

With respect to demographic variables, age was negatively associated with entitlement ($\rho = -0.09$). In addition, females were less likely to feel entitled ($r^+ = -0.11$). On the other hand, education ($r^+ = 0.05$), organizational tenure ($r^+ = -0.04$), and position tenure ($r^+ = -0.07$) did not show any significant relationships. However, entitlement was positively associated with negative affectivity ($r^+ = 0.12$). With respect to Big Five, entitlement had a significant negative relationship with neuroticism ($r^+ = 0.05$) and insignificant relationships with agreeableness ($r^+ = -0.03$), conscientiousness ($r^+ = -0.21$), extraversion ($r^+ = -0.01$), and openness to experience ($r^+ = 0.11$). Finally, entitlement had insignificant relationships with political skill ($r^+ = -0.10$), moral identity ($r^+ = -0.12$), and felt accountability ($r^+ = 0.15$) (Table 1).

Correlates of Entitlement

With respect to correlates, entitlement had significant positive relationships with self-esteem ($r^+ = 0.17$), narcissism ($r^+ = 0.56$), and the entitlement-exploitative facet of narcissism ($r^+ = 0.69$). However, entitlement was negatively associated with social desirability ($r^+ = -0.09$) (Table 2).

Table 1
Antecedents of Entitlement

Variable	<i>k</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>r</i> ⁺	95%CI	Heterogeneity		Fail-safe <i>N</i>	<i>k</i> ^{TF}	Publication bias	
					<i>Q_T</i>	<i>I</i> ² (%)			<i>TF adj.</i>	<i>r</i> ⁺ (95%CI)
Age	31	19899	-0.09	(-0.14,-0.04)	144.77**	77.28	197	0	-0.09(-0.14,-0.04)	
Gender	31	8885	-0.11	(-0.18,-0.05)	238.43**	87.42	128 ^a	1	-0.09(-0.17,-0.02)	
Education	6	1518	0.05	(-0.01, 0.12)	4.67	0.00	7 ^a	0	0.05(-0.01, 0.12)	
Org Tenure	12	3946	-0.04	(-0.12, 0.04)	46.05**	76.11	0 ^a	0	-0.04(-0.12, 0.04)	
Position Tenure	5	1032	-0.07	(-0.17, 0.03)	5.44	26.52	0 ^a	0	-0.07(-0.17, 0.03)	
Negative affectivity	3	888	0.12	(0.02, 0.21)	0.93	0.00	10 ^a	0	0.12(0.02, 0.22)	
Neuroticism	4	959	0.05	(0.00, 0.11)	0.84	0.00	0 ^a	0	0.06(0.00, 0.11)	
Agreeableness	4	667	-0.03	(-0.16, 0.10)	3.08	2.58	0 ^a	0	-0.03(-0.16, 0.10)	
Conscientiousness	4	795	-0.21	(-0.56, 0.20)	48.21**	93.78	0 ^a	0	-0.21(-0.63, 0.20)	
Extraversion	4	667	-0.01	(-0.11, 0.09)	2.01	0.00	0 ^a	1	0.01(-0.08, 0.09)	
Openness to Experience	3	493	0.11	(-0.24, 0.44)	7.01*	71.46	0 ^a	0	0.11(-0.25, 0.47)	
Political Skill	3	747	-0.10	(-0.25, 0.06)	2.03	2.50	6 ^a	0	-0.10(-0.26, 0.06)	
Moral Identity	3	879	-0.12	(-0.40, 0.17)	8.81**	77.30	0 ^a	0	-0.13(-0.42, 0.17)	
Felt Accountability	4	1004	0.15	(-0.08, 0.37)	18.03**	83.36	2 ^a	0	0.15(-0.08, 0.39)	

Note. *k* = the number of samples in each analysis; *N* = the total number of individuals in the *k* samples; *r*⁺ = weighted corrected mean *r*; 95%CI = 95% confidence interval; *Q_T* = *Q* total; *I*²(%) = heterogeneity in percentages; *k*^{TF} = number of imputed studies as part of "Trim and Fill" method.

^a Fail-safe *N* falls below threshold. **p* < 0.05 ** *p* < 0.01

Table 2
Correlates of Entitlement

Variable	<i>k</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>r</i> ⁺	Heterogeneity			Fail-safe <i>N</i>	<i>k</i> ^{TF}	Publication bias TF adj. <i>r</i> ⁺ (95%CI)
				95%CI	<i>Q_T</i>	<i>I</i> ² (%)			
Self-esteem	4	1468	0.17	(0.06,0.28)	5.52	45.70	30	0	0.17(0.06,0.28)
Narcissism	6	2691	0.56	(0.38,0.70)	118.63**	95.79	81	0	0.63(0.40,0.87)
Entitlement-Exploitative	3	1165	0.69	(0.20,0.90)	42.99**	95.35	40	0	0.85(0.20,1.50)
Social Desirability	4	1423	-0.09	(-0.17,-0.01)	2.79	0.00	16 ^a	0	-0.09(-0.17,-0.01)

Note. *K* = the number of samples in each analysis; *N* = the total number of individuals in the *k* samples; *r*⁺ = weighted corrected mean *r*; 95%CI = 95% confidence interval; *Q_T* = *Q* total; *I*²(%) = heterogeneity in percentages; *k*^{TF} = number of imputed studies as part of "Trim and Fill" method.

^a Fail-safe *N* falls below threshold. **p* < 0.05 ***p* < 0.01

Consequences of Entitlement

The results for consequences indicate that entitlement had a positive influence on dysfunctional work behaviors such as CWBs ($r^+ = 0.21$), coworker abuse ($r^+ = 0.28$), and ignoring instructions ($r^+ = 0.31$), but an insignificant influence on CWB-I ($r^+ = 0.34$) and organizational deviance ($r^+ = 0.30$). Moreover, entitlement had insignificant relationships with positive employee behaviors such as employee job performance ($r^+ = 0.09$) and OCBs ($r^+ = 0.06$). With respect to affective responses, entitlement was positively associated with negative affect ($r^+ = 0.13$). However, there was an insignificant relationship between entitlement and positive affect ($r^+ = -0.07$). With respect to work attitudes, entitlement had a negative impact on job satisfaction ($r^+ = -0.15$) and a positive impact on organizational identification ($r^+ = 0.18$). In addition, entitlement had an insignificant influence on organizational commitment ($r^+ = -0.06$), job tension ($r^+ = 0.18$), perceived organizational support ($r^+ = -0.11$), and psychological contract violation ($r^+ = 0.20$). Finally, entitlement was positively associated with perceptions of abusive supervision ($r^+ = 0.30$) and had an insignificant relationship with leader member exchange ($r^+ = 0.16$) (Table 3).

Heterogeneity and Publication Bias

The I^2 test of heterogeneity suggested moderate to high levels of heterogeneity for majority of the relationships (I^2 statistic exceeded 50% or 75% levels). With respect to publication bias, the fail-safe N test provided some evidence of publication bias.¹ Specifically, in 27 out of 37 cases, failsafe numbers fell below the recommended thresholds. Moreover, the trim and fill tests also suggested absence of publication bias. Specifically, in only four cases, the trim and fill method suggested missing studies.

Relative Importance of Entitlement

The results indicate that narcissism (RW = 0.04, %RW = 57.04%) showed greater dominance over entitlement (RW = 0.03, %RW = 42.96%) in the prediction of CWBs while entitlement (RW = 0.01, %RW = 70.55%) showed greater dominance over narcissism (RW = 0.01, %RW = 29.45%) in the prediction of job performance (Table 4). When Big Five was added to the analyses, Big Five (RW = 0.23, %RW = 80.17%) showed greater dominance over narcissism (RW = 0.04, %RW = 12.76%) followed by entitlement (RW = 0.02, %RW = 7.07%) in the prediction of CWBs. Finally, Big Five (RW = 0.07, %RW = 44.26%) showed greater dominance over entitlement (RW = 0.05, %RW = 29.39%) and narcissism (RW = 0.04, %RW = 26.35%) in the prediction of job performance (Table 5).

¹ The role of publication status of a study as a moderator of the relationships between the antecedents and consequences of entitlement was also examined. The results indicate absence of any evidence for this moderator.

Table 3
Consequences of Entitlement and Leadership Perceptions

Variable	k	N	r ⁺	95%CI	Heterogeneity			Publication bias	
					Q _T	I ² (%)	Fail-safe N	k ^{TF}	TF adj. r ⁺ (95%CI)
<i>Dysfunctional work behaviors</i>									
CWB	14	4223	0.21	(0.11,0.30)	102.63**	87.81	99	0	0.21(0.11,0.31)
Coworker abuse	3	578	0.28	(0.05,0.48)	3.22	37.90	28	0	0.29(0.05,0.52)
Ignoring instructions	3	858	0.31	(0.07,0.51)	4.52	55.74	37	0	0.32(0.07,0.56)
CWB-I	4	1242	0.34	(-0.30,0.76)	138.13**	97.83	1 ^a	0	0.35(-0.30,1.01)
Org. deviance	4	1444	0.30	(0.01,0.54)	40.99**	92.68	11 ^a	0	0.31(0.01,0.61)
<i>Positive work behaviors</i>									
Job Performance	6	1506	0.09	(-0.01,0.19)	11.24*	55.52	7 ^a	2	0.04(-0.06,0.14)
OCB	8	12982	0.06	(-0.11,0.22)	108.06**	93.52	0 ^a	0	0.06(-0.11,0.23)
<i>Affective responses</i>									
Negative Affect	10	3590	0.13	(0.10,0.17)	8.94	0.00	206	0	0.13(0.10,0.17)
Positive Affect	3	747	-0.07	(-0.16,0.02)	0.67	0.00	2 ^a	1	-0.06(-0.13,0.01)
<i>Work attitudes</i>									
Job satisfaction	6	1540	-0.15	(-0.27,-0.02)	17.38**	71.23	14 ^a	0	-0.15(-0.27,-0.02)
Organizational commitment	3	541	-0.06	(-0.64,0.56)	12.14**	83.53	0 ^a	0	-0.06(-0.76,0.63)
Job tension	9	2196	0.18	(-0.03,0.37)	156.04**	94.87	3 ^a	0	0.18(-0.03,0.39)
Perceived org. support	3	876	-0.11	(-0.53,0.36)	21.52**	90.70	0 ^a	0	-0.11(-0.60,0.37)
Organizational identification	3	649	0.18	(0.03,0.32)	1.61	0.00	20 ^a	0	0.18(0.03,0.34)
Psych. Contract Violation	3	714	0.20	(-0.22,0.55)	10.44**	80.85	3 ^a	0	0.20(-0.22,0.62)
<i>Leadership</i>									
Abusive supervision	9	3222	0.30	(0.09,0.49)	155.97**	94.87	40 ^a	0	0.31(0.09,0.53)
Leader member exchange	8	1863	0.16	(-0.04,0.35)	98.81**	92.92	2 ^a	0	0.16(-0.04,0.36)

Note. k = the number of samples in each analysis; N = the total number of individuals in the k samples; r⁺ = weighted corrected mean r; 95%CI = 95% confidence interval; Q_T = Q total; I²(%) = heterogeneity in percentages; k^{TF} = number of imputed studies as part of "Trim and Fill" method. ^a Fail-safe N falls below threshold. *p < 0.05 **p < 0.01

Table 4
Relative Importance of Entitlement and Narcissism

	CWBs		Job Performance	
	Raw relative weights	Relative weights as a % of R ²	Raw relative weights	Relative weights as a % of R ²
Workplace entitlement	0.01	3.22	0.02	13.67
Narcissism	0.11	39.19	0.01	3.41
R ² = 0.07	0.04	12.76	0.04	26.35

Note. *RW* = relative weight; *%RW* = percentage of relative weight calculated by dividing individual relative weights by their sum (total R²) and multiplying by 100 (R² add up to R² and *%RWs* add up to 100%, respectively).

Table 5
Relative Importance of Big Five, Entitlement, and Narcissism

	CWBs		Job Performance	
	Raw relative weights	Relative weights as a % of R ²	Raw relative weights	Relative weights as a % of R ²
Extraversion	0.01	3.22	0.02	13.67
Agreeableness	0.11	39.19	0.01	3.41
Openness	0.00	1.75	0.00	1.12
Neuroticism	0.04	12.82	0.01	5.03
Conscientiousness	0.07	23.19	0.03	21.02
Workplace entitlement	0.02	7.07	0.05	29.39
Narcissism	0.04	12.76	0.04	26.35
	R ² = 0.29		R ² = 0.16	

Note. *RW* = relative weight; *%RW* = percentage of relative weight calculated by dividing individual relative weights by their sum (total R²) and multiplying by 100 (R² add up to R² and *%RWs* add up to 100%, respectively).

DISCUSSION

This article reports the results of a meta-analysis of the relationships between the antecedents, correlates, and consequences of employee entitlement. In addition, a relative weight analysis was performed to compare the effects of entitlement, narcissism, and Big Five personality traits on CWBs and job performance. Below is a summary of the study findings and implications for theory and practice.

Antecedents of entitlement. Several scholars have suggested that younger individuals and those with certain negative personality characteristics are more likely to feel entitled (Hochwarter *et al.*, 2010; Jordan *et al.*, 2017; Laird *et al.*, 2015). The results show that younger, male employees are more likely to feel entitled. In addition, the results indicate that neuroticism was positively associated with entitlement. However, the results do not indicate any relationship between entitlement and an individual’s level of political skill or the ability to influence others, moral identity or an individual’s deep-rooted commitment to morality, or the extent to which individuals feel accountable to their supervisors. With respect to neuroticism, the results were in agreement with

Campbell *et al.* (2004) who found a positive association between entitlement and neuroticism. Overall, the results suggest that demographic characteristics such as age and gender and personality characteristics such as neuroticism play important roles in the development of inflated self-perceptions of entitlement. Future scholars should explore the theoretical mechanisms through which demographic variables and personality characteristics influence entitlement. Scholars should also investigate the longitudinal impact of these antecedents. For instance, scholars may investigate how neuroticism shapes and is in return, shaped by entitlement over time. These results also raise practical implications for organizations and suggest that organizations should pay special attention to young, male, and neurotic individuals, as they are more likely to feel entitled. However, in order to foster a deeper understanding, future scholars should investigate additional antecedents of entitlement such as organizational culture and organizational justice perceptions.

Correlates of entitlement. This article also examined the role of self-esteem, narcissism, entitlement-exploitative facet of narcissism, and social desirability as correlates of entitlement. The results show that entitlement has positive relationships with self-esteem, narcissism, and entitlement-exploitative dimension and negative relationship with social desirability. These findings have important implications for theory and research on entitlement. First, the result that entitlement correlates positively with self-esteem provides further support to scholars who have suggested that perceptions of entitlement may have a close relationship with one's feelings of self-worth (Lessard *et al.*, 2011). In addition, individuals with high self-esteem may feel worthy of, or entitled to, receive more than others and these entitlement beliefs can further inflate feelings of self-worth. Future scholars should therefore investigate this non-recursive relationship to provide a more complete picture of the relationship between entitlement and self-esteem. Second, the results show that entitlement had strong positive relationships with narcissism and entitlement-exploitative facet of narcissism. More specifically, the correlation between entitlement and entitlement-exploitative facet of narcissism ($r^+ = 0.69$), followed by entitlement and narcissism ($r^+ = 0.56$) were the strongest relationships in this study. Thus, it appears that entitlement and narcissism are closely related and perhaps even overlapping constructs. Indeed, feelings of entitlement (as assessed with Campbell *et al.*'s (2004) PES) are a key component of Narcissism (as assessed by the NPI) (Raskin and Terry, 1988).

Taken together, the above finding indicates that scholars need to examine further the distinction between narcissism and entitlement. To investigate this issue, a relative weight analyses was conducted to compare the uniqueness of entitlement vis a vis narcissism in predicting two individual behavioral outcomes: CWBs and job performance. The results indicate that entitlement outperformed narcissism in the prediction of job performance. However, narcissism was more dominant in the prediction of CWBs. Furthermore, when Big Five was added to the analyses, Big Five followed by narcissism and entitlement showed dominance in the prediction of CWBs. Big Five also showed dominance over entitlement and narcissism in the prediction of job performance. To sum, the above findings suggest that Big Five is the best predictor of both job performance and CWBs. These findings are consistent with the description of Big Five as a higher order personality construct that may capture the majority of the variance in the criterion variables (Barrick and Mount, 1991). Future researchers should further explore this finding. However, in comparison with narcissism, entitlement is a

better predictor of positive work behaviors such as job performance while narcissism is a better predictor of counterproductive behaviors. It is possible that as an inflated sense of self-worth, entitlement enhances an individuals' self-esteem, which, in turn increases their work performance.

To further examine the mediating role of self-esteem, a meta-analytic path model was performed (Viswesvaran and Ones, 1995). To construct the input correlation matrix, the meta-analytic effect sizes from the current study and the meta-analytic estimate for self-esteem and job performance ($\rho = 0.26$) from Judge and Bono (2001) were used. The results show that the partially mediated model was a fully saturated model with a direct path from entitlement to job performance and an indirect path through self-esteem (χ^2 (df = 0) = 0; GFI = 1; CFI = 1; RMSEA = 0). Because it is hard to derive any conclusion from this saturated model, models that were more parsimonious and provided acceptable fit were examined. Therefore, two nested models: no mediation and full mediation were tested (Figure 1). The results show that the full mediation (χ^2 (df = 1) = 6.20; GFI = 1; CFI = 0.97; RMSEA = 0.05) model had a better fit than the no mediation model (χ^2 (df = 1) = 52.76; GFI = 0.98; CFI = 0.72; RMSEA = 0.17). Overall, these results suggest that entitlement has as an indirect effect (through self-esteem) on job performance. These results are an important contribution to the understanding of the psychological process by which entitlement may influence job performance. Future scholars may consider other possible mediators in order to derive a more thorough picture of the relationships between entitlement and its outcomes.

Consequences of entitlement. The study also examined a variety of affective, attitudinal, and behavioral consequences of entitlement. With respect to behavioral responses, the results show entitled individuals tend to experience a variety of negative outcomes such as increased levels of CWBs, abusive behavior toward coworkers, and failure to follow instructions. In addition, entitled individuals were more likely to experience higher levels of negative affect and lower levels of job satisfaction. Overall, these results revealed that in comparison with attitudinal and affective responses, entitlement has a stronger impact on employee dysfunctional work behaviors. For instance, the effect size for dysfunctional behaviors were $r^+ = 0.31$ for failure to follow instructions and $r^+ = 0.28$ for abusive behavior toward coworkers. In comparison, the results for negative affect ($r^+ = 0.14$) and job satisfaction ($r^+ = -0.15$) were less intense. These results suggest that perhaps entitlement has a more direct impact on negative behaviors. Moreover, it appears the effects of entitlement are more likely to manifest in behaviors that are harmful to the organization. These findings further highlight the importance for organizations to curtail self-serving behaviors of entitled employees and thus, safeguard the interest of other employees and the organization at large.

Limitations and Directions for Future Research

In addition to the strengths, the findings of the current meta-analyses have several limitations. First, a relatively small number of studies were available to meta-analyze additional variables of interest. Future researchers should conduct additional empirical research and examine a wide variety of antecedents, correlates, and consequences of employee entitlement. Second, majority of the primary studies included data collected via using self-reports and/or cross-sectional research designs and used Campbell *et al.*'s (2004) measurement. Moreover, common method variance may have artificially inflated some of the results. Future scholars should use other conceptualizations and other

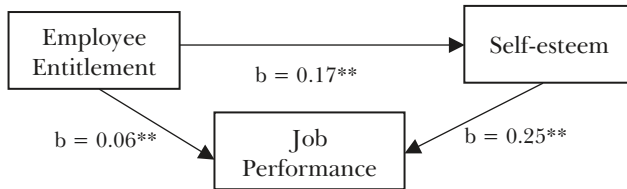
ratings (e.g., peers and supervisors) to measure entitlement and conduct longitudinal research (where the assessment of independent variables precedes the dependent variable) to determine causality and understand how entitlement unfolds over time. Third, due to insufficient data, it was difficult to examine the geographical location and/or occupational context of the study sample as a moderator. Future research on entitlement should therefore explore entitlement in different organizational and national contexts.

Figure I

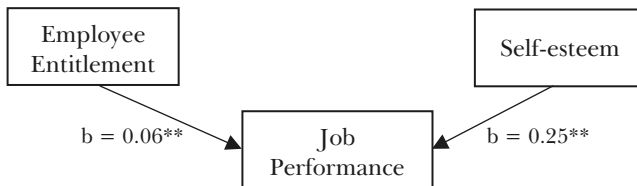
a.) Fully mediated meta-analytic structural equation model (mediated by self-esteem)



b.) Partially mediated meta-analytic structural equation model



c.) No mediation meta-analytic structural equation model



Note. Values represent standardized regression weights.

** $p < 0.001$

CONCLUSION

This meta-analysis provides a summary of the relationships between the antecedents, correlates, and consequences of employee entitlement. The results show that entitlement is associated with a variety of dysfunctional work outcomes. The findings also provide insight into the distinctiveness of entitlement over and above narcissism. Overall, the results of this study should encourage further research on entitlement and its nomological network.

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