



Arrogant Leadership and Innovative Work Behaviour in Times of Discontinuity

By

Graeme Mitchell

BA, MBA, MA

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List of Abbreviations

ABC	Antecedent–behaviour–consequence
BP	British Petroleum
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
CTA	Category theme analysis
GFC	Global Financial Crisis
HLB	Harmful leadership behaviour
HP	Hewlett-Packard
IWB	Innovative work behaviour
LA	Leader arrogance
MAXQDA	MAX Qualitative Data Analysis
NoW	News of the World
NPI	Narcissism Personality Inventory
SL	Systems leadership
UK	United Kingdom
US	United States
VUCA	Volatile, uncertain, complex and ambiguous

Abstract

This study aims to determine whether there is a relationship between leader arrogance (LA) and innovative work behaviour (IWB) in ‘times of discontinuity’ and, if there is, the type of relationship that exists. Most studies have indicated that arrogance is a vice that has a detrimental impact, both on perpetrators and victims, yet alternative accounts have suggested it may also have a positive impact. To clarify this apparent contradiction as regards the effects of arrogance in the workplace, a qualitative approach was adopted in this study and the documentary analysis methodology was used to explore the documented leadership behaviour and impact of prominent chief executive officers across the wider business community. The research design involved the use of systematic reviews of literature on LA and IWB for constructing two data analysis frameworks based on the antecedent–behaviour–consequence model, which were applied to analyse the collected data for the period from 2000-2024. That is, in the LA systematic literature review, 42 studies were examined, which resulted in the identification of 52 antecedents, 160 behaviours and 63 outcomes. Likewise, in the IWB systematic literature review, 53 studies were reviewed, which revealed 56 antecedents, 40 behaviours and 12 consequences. Data were collected by triangulating accounts of LA behaviour and employee IWB drawn from media articles and biographies. The two frameworks were applied to the data, which were then extracted, coded and organised for both manual and digital analysis (using the MAXQDA software) to identify themes that would inform the research question.

The context for this thesis has been set as ‘times of discontinuity’, a term for the changed business and social environment experienced through events such as the 2007–2009 Global Financial Crisis and, more recently, the 2019 pandemic because of the coronavirus disease. Watson-Manheim, Chudoba and Crowston (2002) referred to discontinuity as a gap, or lack of coherence, in aspects of work, such as the work setting, task and relationships with other workers or managers.

A category theme analysis was conducted using manual and computer-assisted qualitative analyses, although showing no relationship between LA and IWB, indicated that inspirational leaders who articulate an evocative vision and create conditions in which employees

meaningfully grow and develop from the experience of working with such leaders will find their usually objectionable behaviour may be tolerated.

Significantly, the documentary analysis approach relies on the quantity and quality of documents from credible sources to effect a useful study that can produce meaningful outcomes. Given the data limitations of this study, areas for future research have been identified, including the ideas that the intention to harm may explain the extremes of arrogant behaviour and that anger is an aspect of arrogance that requires examination. In addition, determining how inspirational leaders effectively use more autocratic and authoritarian behaviours without detriment could provide valuable insight.

Declaration

I certify that this thesis:

1. does not incorporate without acknowledgment any material previously submitted for a degree or diploma in any university
2. and the research within will not be submitted for any other future degree or diploma without the permission of Flinders University; and
3. to the best of my knowledge and belief, does not contain any material previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made in the text.

Signed

Date 13 May 2024

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Good ideas sometimes come from ‘ah-ha’ moments, but great ones come when you do something about it. Undertaking this doctorate sprang from a dinner conversation with my daughter Gabrielle, when during recent crisis times, we observed a lack of capable leadership often manifested in attempts of some people wanting to appear smarter than others, and often accompanied by an absence of humility. From this observation came the thought that leadership had been replaced by leadership arrogance. When talking to others about the idea of leadership arrogance, most would nod their heads, and say “yeah!” or “nice” which suggested there was substance to the idea.

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Publications

1. Conference Paper

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2. Journal Article (Resubmission)

Mitchell, GK, McMurray, AJ, Manoharan, A & Rajesh JI 2024, 'Workplace and workplace leader arrogance: a conceptual framework', *International Journal of Management Reviews*.

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Background of Problem

Leader arrogance (LA) is the act of an organisational leader engaging in arrogant behaviour in a workplace setting. To date, the influence of LA on innovative work behaviour (IWB) has failed to attract the interest of researchers, despite the fact that the creation of new products, markets, services, systems and relationships is the foundation of business growth (Hughes, Rigtering et al. 2018; Scott, D & McMurray 2021; Totterdill & Exton 2014). The proposition in the current research is that by not knowing the effect, if any, of LA on IWB, organisations may be missing an opportunity to improve their performance and future growth.

Leader behaviour has been demonstrated to influence employee work behaviour and outcomes (Jackson, TA, Meyer & Wang 2013, Mrusek, Ottenbacher & Harrington 2022, Muchiri et al. 2020). Indeed it is, by definition, the intention of leadership to do exactly that—that is, the purpose of leadership is to influence followers to achieve specific outcomes (Macdonald, Burke & Stewart 2018). It is also the case that what a leader does affects followers whether the leader knows it or not (Macdonald, Burke & Stewart 2018) and whether it is intentional or not.

As for arrogant leader behaviour, it is associated with employee burnout, turnover intentions, job performance feedback, low morale (Borden, Levy & Silverman 2018), lack of workplace cohesion, lack of teamwork, poor professional relationships (Cleary et al. 2015), negative citizenship behaviour (Silverman et al. 2012), increased employee stress levels (Das 2015), poor collaborative senior leadership team behaviour (Toscano, Price & Scheepers 2018), lack of both competence and performance (Johnson, RE et al. 2010; Padua et al. 2010) and the creation of a climate in which employees engage in retaliatory behaviour against the leader (De Clercq, Fatima & Jahanzeb 2021). Thus, arrogant behaviour by organisational leaders has negative consequences for the actor, the recipient and the organisation in which the behaviour has occurred. Conversely, an alternate view suggests that under certain circumstances arrogance may be regarded as a virtue (Dillon 2003), as a facilitator in building relationships (Senyuz & Hasford 2022) or as a catalyst for creativity and renewal (Ma & Karri 2005; Peters 1990; Sutton 2003).

In the business context, LA has been highlighted as the underlying cause of some significant business scandals. For instance, in the enquiry conducted by the Royal Commission into Misconduct in the Banking, Superannuation and Financial Services Industry (2019), Commissioner Hayne ‘called out’ behaviour reflecting arrogance among the financial sector’s leaders. Specifically, following the appearance of Dr Ken Henry (Chair) and Andrew Thorburn (Chief Executive Officer [CEO]) of the National Australia Bank at the Royal Commission, it was reported that ‘arrogance and an unwillingness to take the bank’s misconduct seriously ... were the fatal flaws that set NAB on a pathway that seems likely to claim the jobs of its chairman, Ken Henry, and chief executive, Andrew Thorburn’ (Butler 2019, p. 1). Indeed, both men subsequently resigned from their roles not long after, on 8 February 2019. The same claim was made about the Enron scandal (Will 2002) and continues to be made (Streitfield & Romney 2022), as with the downfall of Uber founder Travis Kalanick (Abcarian 2014).

In contrast, although Steve Jobs was perceived as arrogant (Valentine 2014), for he told people their ideas were worthless or stupid or callously disregarded others’ feelings (Isaacson 2011), his vision and passion were such that when he was fired from Apple in 1987 and established a new technology company, NeXT, numerous Apple employees followed him there (Bariso 2016). This example raises the following questions: What is the impact of arrogance, and given that arrogance is said to stifle creativity (Carter, J 2015; Kumar, Kang & Chand 2022), why did that not happen at Apple?

As regards IWB, SG Scott and Bruce (1994) largely introduced it as an individual-level concept that encompasses three stages: problem-recognition and generation of ideas and solutions, sponsorship for the selected idea, and testing of the idea through a prototype. IWB is a key component to organisational sustainability and growth, even in a turbulent business environment (Muchiri et al. 2020; Wang, Z et al. 2021). However, IWB is influenced by organisational factors, such as the organisational climate, leader support, leader behaviour (Muchiri et al. 2020; Scott, SG & Bruce 1994; Strobl et al. 2019), organisation systems (Janssen 2000), values, autonomy (Purc & Laguna 2019) and role ambiguity (Craig 2015), and by individual factors, such as competence and felt competence, capability, commitment (Craig 2015), openness to change, self-enhancement (Purc & Laguna 2019) and perceived fairness (Muchiri et al. 2020).

In addition, SG Scott and Bruce (1994) found that employee IWB has a positive and significant relationship with the quality of the supervisor–subordinate relationship and that such high-level dyadic relationships provide the autonomy and discretion to subordinates to allow innovation to emerge. Yang et al. (2021), who explored the relationship between leader narcissism and IWB, found that narcissistic leaders exert a significant negative impact on the IWB of employees. They argued that the bright and dark sides of leader narcissism both influence followers in an attracting or controlling way and thereby foster reliance on the leader, who uses that reliance to influence followers' IWBs.

Given this evidence, it is reasonable to expect that there is a relationship between LA and IWB. Accordingly, the limited amount of research into LA in the workplace and its impact on organisations and their employees necessitates further studies for gaining more comprehensive knowledge of the outcomes of a relatively poorly understood behaviour.

The remainder of this chapter is organised as follows, Section 1.2 introduces the statement of the study problem; Section 1.3 the study purpose, Section 1.4 the study scope; Section 1.5 the significance of the study; Section 1.6 the study's underlying theory and Section 1.7 concludes the chapter.

1.2 Statement of Problem

The relationship, if any, between LA and IWB remains unknown, despite innovation being a driving force behind business growth (Muchiri et al. 2020; Wang, Z et al. 2021) and LA being known to negatively affect organisations and their employees (Borden 2017; Borden, Levy & Silverman 2018; Cleary et al. 2015; De Clercq, Fatima & Jahanzeb 2021; Johnson, RE et al. 2010; Kumar, Kang & Chand 2022; Padua et al. 2010; Silverman et al. 2012; Toscano, Price & Scheepers 2018).

This research aims to reveal that relationship, its nature and effects, which may provide the basis for addressing and rectifying LA, if and when appropriate, or utilising any benefit from it to create sustainable organisational performance and growth.

1.3 Study Purpose

The purpose of this study is to ascertain the experience and effect, if any, of LA on IWBs, namely, whether there is no effect, a positive effect or a negative effect. Through the selected data analysis techniques, it is expected themes will be revealed that will inform the study problem and in turn, may provide pathways for future studies.

1.4 Study Scope

The context for this thesis has been set as ‘times of discontinuity’, which refers to the changed business and social environment as experienced through events such as the 2007–2009 Global Financial Crisis and, more recently, the 2019 pandemic because of the coronavirus disease (COVID-19). Watson-Manheim, Chudoba and Crowston (2002) referred to discontinuity as a gap, or lack of coherence (p. 191), in aspects of work, such as the work setting, task and relationships with other workers or managers.

The focus in this research on a discontinuous operating environment, which is characterised by uncertainty, instability and high levels of change, is appropriate because of the potential impact of this environment on work, leader behaviour and, in particular, LA and IWB.

1.5 Study’s Significance

Why study LA and its impact on organisational growth? It is necessary primarily because LA makes life difficult for others in organisations (Borden, Levy & Silverman 2018; Burke 2006; Carter, J 2015; Toscano, Price & Scheepers 2018) and is believed to stifle growth and creativity (Carter, J 2015; Kumar, Kang & Chand 2022). Silverman (2018) argued that most people have encountered arrogance at work and that leaders’ arrogant behaviour is often a mask to hide incompetence or unfavourable self-evaluations, they have difficulty accepting criticism and can be overly optimistic regarding success, leading to complacency. Indeed, they do not listen to others nor accept another’s ideas, believing they know best. Thus, these factors reflect a fixed, not growth, mindset, thereby implying that team members will not have the opportunity to contribute new ideas (Carter, J 2015), resulting in smothering the innovative behaviour of others.

The significance of investigating whether there is a relationship between LA and IWB, and what its nature might be, is that, academically, these topics have attracted little attention, and, professionally, organisations have a duty to shareholders to manage risk, and according to Australia's Corporations Act (2001), a legal obligation to operate solvently, which may be compromised by dysfunctional leadership.

Last, should a relationship between LA and IWB be identified, this finding will add to those in the literature on IWB and on the impact of LA on organisations and their employees.

1.6 Underlying Theory

Attribution theory has been chosen as the underlying theory to explain the content, detail and depth of the proposed research and research question. It is based on the principle that people try to make sense of their environment and the events that occur by assigning causes, which helps them to exercise control over their actions and events they experience and to predict the future. Attribution theory is not a single theory, but a collection developed from the studies by Heider (1958), EE Jones and Davis (1965), Kelley (1973) and Weiner (1985).

Martinko and Thomson (1998), Harvey et al. (2014) and Eberly et al. (2011) suggested that Kelley's (1973) and Weiner's (1985) studies have been the most influential in developing attribution theory. Kelley (1973) discussed the types of information people use to make attributions and asserted that the information should be consistent, there should be a consensus about it and it should be distinctive or unique. Together, these three factors determine whether one's attributions are internal or external, stable or unstable and global or specific. Weiner (1985) considered the consequences of attributions and argued that the locus of causality (internal or external), stability and controllability were the factors determining how people respond to events.

Martinko (1994), Martinko, Gundlach and Douglas (2002), Harvey and Martinko (2009) and Martinko, Harvey, Sikora and Douglas (2011) have demonstrated that workplace behaviours, such as abusive supervision, counterproductive behaviours and entitlement, can be understood through attribution theory. That is, these studies found an attributional perspective that effectively explained the connections between entitlement perceptions and workplace outcomes (Harvey & Martinko 2009).

Given that scholarly examination of arrogance has mostly been conducted from the perspective of the recipient or observer (Cowan et al. 2019; Johnson, RE et al. 2010; Tanesini 2018), the selection of attribution theory would seem particularly relevant as it is designed to explain how people make sense of others' behaviour (Heider 1958)

1.7 Conclusion

This chapter provides the context for this study, first by explaining that LA may have positive or negative effects and that IWB is integral to business growth. Further, LA has not been examined in relation to IWB despite arrogance generally being associated with damaging effects on people and business. These effects demonstrate the significance of, and reason for, the current study. In addition, it is of interest whether the external social and business environment influences any potential relationship. Attribution theory has been introduced as the theory underlying this study.

The next chapter presents a review of literature on arrogance, LA, IWB, leadership and work. Attribution theory will be examined in detail and the conceptual framework and research question presented.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

The literature review is undertaken to better understand the origins and theory of arrogance, LA, IWB, leadership and discontinuity. The chapter is organised as follows, Section 2.2 is an overview of arrogance; Section 2.3 provides a historical and theoretical background; Section 2.4 examines the wider concept of arrogance; Section 2.5 raises the issue of endogeneity; Section 2.6 reviews arrogance definitions; Section 2.7 introduces the model of leadership used in this study; Section 2.8 considers concepts of work; Section 2.9 reviews the literature on innovative work behaviour; Section 2.10 investigates the background to ‘times of discontinuity’; Section 2.11 is a review of attribution theory; Section 2.12 presents the conceptual framework and Section 2.13 the research question. Section 2.14 summarises the steps in the literature review.

2.2 Arrogance

Each of us has likely crossed paths with someone who acted arrogant. (Johnson, RE et al. 2010, p. 403)

In critically examining the literature on authentic leadership, Alvesson and Einola (2019) observed the necessity of a construct that has sound philosophical, historical and theoretical underpinnings. Their approach is used here to direct this literature review in order to understand, in particular, the origins, development and approaches to arrogance.

Arrogance is a term used to describe, belittling and unacceptable behaviour undertaken by one individual against another. It is widely understood across cultures (Cowan et al. 2019, p. 425; Volk, et al. 2021) and has historically attracted the interest of philosophers and the psychoanalytic research community (Dillon 2003; Emmons 1984; Raskin & Hall 1979; Tanesini 2018). In addition, since the 1980s various fields of psychology, including clinical, cognitive, developmental, personality, social, motivation and emotion, have sporadically examined the impact of arrogance, or its relationship with, other variables such as narcissism, hubris, pride, humility, confidence, self-esteem, vanity and personality by treating arrogance as a factor or descriptor of one of these constructs. Notably, arrogance has not been identified as a discrete construct or personality factor, as might be, for example, found in the five-factor

model of personality (Costa, McCrae & Kay 1995), but has been identified as a dysfunctional trait (Zibarras, Port & Woods 2008) and a component (along with manipulative, dramatic and eccentric) of a factor called ‘moving against people’ (p. 205).

Arrogance has attracted minimal interest from scholars apart from managerial and organisational psychologists (Johnson, RE et al. 2010; Silverman et al. 2012; Toscano, Price & Scheepers 2018), cognitive psychologists (Cowan et al. 2019), those studying business sectors, in particular, the health sector (Cleary et al. 2015), the music sector (Coppola 2023) and philosophers (Dillon 2019; Miller 2011; Tanesini 2018; Tiberius & Walker 1998). According to RE Johnson et al. (2010) arrogance is an overt and explicit interpersonal act undertaken by one person to another, unlike narcissism or hubris (Ruvio & Shoham 2016) that do not require engagement with others. In the interaction, the arrogant person will use their inflated sense of superiority, self-importance and abilities to disparage and diminish their target. Such behaviour raises questions about arrogance, including whether it is a state (event) or trait (quality or characteristic), its types, the causes of arrogant behaviour, the contexts in which it occurs, its consequences and outcomes, the extent of its pervasiveness and actions to address it.

Although RE Johnson et al. (2010) focused on developing a scale for workplace arrogance, they also concluded that ‘arrogant behaviors may be performed as a façade in order to mask incompetence or unfavorable self-evaluations’ (p. 423). They observed that high levels of arrogant behaviour in a work environment were related to low levels of organisation citizenship behaviours, that is, ‘behavior that promotes the social and psychological environments in which formal job duties and responsibilities are carried out’ (Johnson, RE et al. 2010, p. 411). In addition, such arrogant behaviour is also linked to poor in-role task performance; poor perceptions of the arrogant actor in terms of likeability, respect and deserving of failure; the creation of stress in those who work around and for this actor; reduced feedback-seeking behaviour by subordinates from an arrogant leader; and the creation of negative social climates, all of which have negative effects on work relationships and lead to burnout, reduced customer satisfaction and, ultimately, reduced profits (Borden, Levy & Silverman 2018; Cleary et al. 2015; Silverman et al. 2012; Toscano, Price & Scheepers 2018).

From a business perspective, workplace LA may be viewed both as managing risk and as a leadership issue. Various examples of the impact and consequences of such arrogance include

people problems, such as reduced team morale, job commitment and job satisfaction; ineffective leader–member relationships; burnout; and intention to leave; commercial issues, such as disruption to business operations, the risk of failure to deliver the service offering, and decreased customer loyalty or satisfaction; and financial problems, including increased costs associated with rehiring and retraining replacement employees and potential litigation or workplace injury claims (Borden, Levy & Silverman 2018; Cleary et al. 2015; Johnson, RE et al. 2010).

2.3 Historical and Theoretical Background of Arrogance

The literature on arrogance has evolved along several pathways since arrogance first became a point of scholarly interest, in philosophy (Dillon 2019; Hacker 2017; Miller 2011), psychoanalysis (Bion 2018; Raskin & Hall 1979; Emmons 1984), psychology (Cowan et al 2019; Hareli & Weiner 2000; Kleitman, Hui & Jiang 2019) and, more recently, business and management (De Clercq, Fatima & Jahanzeb 2021; Johnson, RE et al. 2010; Toscano, Price & Scheepers 2018). Each pathway has essentially developed independently, although the business and management field has drawn on content from the other three fields. Notably, little to no cross-disciplinary research has been undertaken to better understand the construct.

According to Baselice and Thompson (2018), the word arrogance is derived from the Latin word *arrogans*, the present participle of *arrogare*, which means ‘to appropriate’. *Arrogatus*, meaning to seize or claim without justification or to make undue claims, is the past participle of *arrogare* and today means ‘arrogate’, from which the word arrogant is derived. Interestingly, Dillon (2007) indicated this derivation of ‘arrogant’ as well, including its meaning of unjustified claims. Baselice and Thompson (2018) suggested that the word arrogant is applied when a person arrogates, or claims, more consideration than is due their position, and has two parts: overconfidence and an air of superiority.

Table 1 provides a historical summary of the literature on arrogance, which reflects the span of fields in which arrogance studies have been conducted and the lack of integrated studies and calibration across disciplines.

Table 1. Historical–Theoretical Summary of Arrogance Literature

Year	Field	Author(s)	Contribution
c.360 AD	Philosophy	Hacker (2017); Moseley and Bailey (2014)	These essays argue Aristotle viewing arrogance as a vice. Greeks sought <i>sophrosune</i> (soundness of mind), strove for <i>arete</i> (excellence) and kudos/ <i>kleos</i> (glory) and avoided hubris (arrogance).
1724–1804	Philosophy	Dillon (2003)	Drawing on Kant’s (1797/1996) research, Dillon ‘proposed two types of arrogance, primary arrogance, associated with self-respect and interpersonal arrogance, associated with respect for others’ (p. 193).
1899–1914	Psychoanalysis	Padovan (2017)	Padovan (2017) observed that Näcke (in 1899) labelled narcissism as a problem of pathological sexuality: a ‘passion for oneself’ (Padovan 2017, p. 648). Freud consolidated the concept in 1914. Emmons identified arrogance as a factor of narcissism in 1984.
1967	Psychoanalysis	Bion (2018)	Bion examined curiosity, arrogance and stupidity in borderline patients and proposed that ‘where life instincts predominate, pride becomes self-respect, and where death instincts predominate, pride becomes arrogance’ (p. 83).
1973	Psychoanalysis	Weiss (1973)	In observing behaviours along ‘the humility–arrogance continuum’ Weiss (1973, p. 148) found that behaviour therapy students presented as more self-confident/secure to the point of arrogance.
1979	Psychoanalysis	Raskin and Hall (1979)	They developed the Narcissism Personality Inventory (NPI) in response to the inclusion of narcissistic personality disorder in the <i>Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders</i> (3rd edn).
1979	Personality & Social Psychology	Wiggins (1979); Trapnell and Wiggins (1990)	They proposed a psychological taxonomy of trait-descriptive terms for clinical context. In all, 16 categories were identified, including arrogant/calculating said to be a blend of dominance and hostility.
1980	Business & Management	Ingelfinger (1980)	This study examined arrogance in bioscientists, and in physicians in relation to patients.
1984	Psychoanalysis	Emmons (1984)	This study identified arrogance as the third of four factors on the NPI and that 12 items had underlying themes of superiority and grandiosity. It found that arrogance

			is not itself pathological and observed a superiority/arrogance – self-esteem relationship.
1984	Education	Mayer (1984)	Mayer addressed the arrogance of ignorance in changing the path of teaching science.
1988	Psychoanalysis	Raskin and Terry (1988)	They undertook factor analysis of the NPI, but failed to determine arrogance as a factor, although they identified superiority as one.
1990	Business & Management	Kets de Vries (1990)	Kets de Vries observed that ‘hubris has ... been a recurring theme in leadership, the obvious reason being that with power often comes excessive pride and arrogance’ (p. 752).
1990	Business & Management	Peters (1990)	This researcher argued the benefits of arrogance and asserted that not understanding the essential role it plays in creation and renewal is as dangerous as underestimating its dysfunctional side effects.
1992	Psychology	JR Cook (1992)	JR Cook conducted the first arrogance study with potential workplace application. The findings: an arrogant person’s belief in their superiority helps them cope with stressors but leads to their inability to admit failure, and could distort events to maintain a positive self-image.
1997	Business & Management	Hayward and Hambrick (1997)	They referred to arrogance as an exaggerated sense of self-confidence.
1998	Philosophy	Tiberius and Walker (1998)	They defined arrogance as involving the inflation of oneself, a sense of being ‘truly’ superior to others and owed deference by them; an arrogant person does not take others’ opinions seriously or permits this to show when interacting with them.
1999	Psychoanalysis	Feldman (1999)	Two forms of pride were identified; one is constructive called ‘proper’ pride, and the other is destructive in which pride and arrogance prevail and qualities such as love, concern and gratitude are devalued.
2000	Motivation & Emotion	Hareli and Weiner (2000)	They used attribution theory to identify three ‘antecedent’ qualities or conditions—locus, controllability, and stability observed in others—that elicit perceptions of arrogance or modesty.

2007	Philosophy	Dillon (2007)	Among other points, Dillon argued there is no mode of treatment of others that is uniquely arrogant but what is common is that the arrogant person denies others acknowledgement that is their due.
2010	Business & Management	RE Johnson et al. (2010)	This is the first significant published study on workplace arrogance and LA. It proposed a clear definition of workplace arrogance, a measuring instrument and relationships with similar constructs.
2020	Philosophy	Tanesini (2018)	The author argued that preserving self-worth is the objective of arrogance and feeling superior is the means to achieve that objective; arrogant people construe others' abilities and achievement as a threat to their self-esteem.
2019	Psychology	Cowan et al. (2019)	They adopted a cross-disciplinary perspective to investigate arrogance as a cognitive, motivational, and social phenomenon and identified three types of arrogance: individual, comparative and antagonistic.
2020	Consumer Psychology	Ruvio et al. (2020)	Ruvio and colleagues described arrogance as reflecting an exaggerated sense of pride.
2023	Music	Coppola (2023)	Coppola examined arrogance as one of four factors of egotism and revealed themes of self-preservation, other-relegation, elitism and interpersonal harms, whose essence is the social negotiation of power.

Note: Citations refer to key papers on arrogance

2.3.1 Philosophy

In philosophy, the concept of arrogance appears to have first been documented around 360 AD at the time of Aristotle. In the ‘Nicomachean Ethics’ (Miller 2011), Aristotle pointed out that the pursuit of moral goodness leads ‘men’ to act in the best possible way whereas vice does the opposite in the same situation. He viewed arrogance as a vice: ‘for the Greeks, seeking a balance or “sophrosune” (soundness of mind) was vital—striving for arete- (excellence) and kudos or kleos (glory) but avoiding hubris (arrogance)’ (Moseley & Bailey 2014, p. 17). Dillon (2003), in her essay on arrogance and self-respect, drew on the work of Immanuel Kant (Gregor 1996) who ‘discusses arrogance throughout his ethical works’ (p. 192), and she claimed that arrogance was the deadliest of moral vices. Kant proposed two types of arrogance and contrasted primary arrogance with self-respect and interpersonal arrogance with respect for others. Tiberius and Walker (1998) suggested that arrogance is an inflation of oneself, not one’s abilities: ‘a sense of being “truly” superior to others, is owed deference by them, does not take their opinions seriously and does not permit these attitudes to be displayed when in interactions with them’ (pp. 380–2).

2.3.2 Psychoanalysis

Psychoanalytic interest in arrogance was a consequence of Näcké’s research on the concept of narcissism (Padovan 2017). In 1899, Näcké labelled narcissism as a problem of pathological sexuality and referred to it as a ‘passion for oneself’ (Padovan 2017, p. 650). Freud consolidated the concept of narcissism in 1914 (Padovan 2017, p. 654), and Emmons (1984) identified arrogance as one of four factors derived from the Narcissism Personality Inventory (NPI) devised by Raskin and Hall (1979), an instrument developed in response to the inclusion of a new category called ‘narcissistic personality disorder’ in the third edition of the American Psychiatric Association’s (1987) *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders*. In his factor analysis and construct validity studies, Emmons (1984) noted that the third (of four) factor(s) was loaded with 12 items that ‘had an underlying theme of superiority and grandiosity’, and ‘since one also has to be a bit arrogant to endorse many of these items, this factor is labelled “superiority/arrogance”’ (p. 294).

According to JR Cook (1992), while Emmons did not define arrogance, he did state that although it was an accompanying feature of a pathological condition, it was not in itself

pathological 1992). Emmons (1984) also observed a significant relationship between Factor 4 ‘superiority/arrogance’ and ‘self-esteem’ (0.38, p. 1) in his factor analysis of the NPI but did not undertake further analysis of these two variables. Later, Raskin and Terry (1988) undertook their own factor analysis of the NPI but failed to determine arrogance as a factor, although they identified superiority as one.

Further, Bion (2018) examined the relationship between curiosity, arrogance and stupidity in borderline patients. He stated that arrogance ‘may be indicated by supposing that in the personality where life instincts predominate, pride becomes self-respect, where death instincts predominate, pride becomes arrogance’ (p. 83).

In reporting on potential clinical students from two different therapy streams (behaviour v. analytical), Weiss (1973) observed the different behaviours of both along ‘the humility–arrogance continuum’. However, he failed to provide definitions of the construct apart from observing that the behaviour his therapy students presented was more self-confident and secure to the point of arrogance.

2.3.3 Psychology

In the field of psychology, while there was scant research on arrogance pre 2000, there had been significant research that led to the later development of the construct, including Schlenker and Leary’s (1982) paper on self-enhancing claims, Weiner’s attribution theory (1985) and Carlston and Shovar’s (1983) study on performance attributions. Other relevant studies focused on self-esteem (Ryan 1983), illusion and wellbeing (Taylor & Brown 1988).

Wiggins (1979) proposed a psychological taxonomy of trait-descriptive terms. It was originally developed and mostly applied in a clinical context (Trapnell & Wiggins 1990), and later formed the basis of his taxonomy of personality scales (Wiggins & Broughton 1991). The original 16 categories of the Wiggins (1979) ‘circumplex of interpersonal variables’ included one called ‘arrogant/calculating’, which was said to be a blend of dominance and hostility (Trapnell & Wiggins 1990). Wiggins (1979) proposed a set of adjectives to represent ‘arrogant’, which include ‘bigheaded, boisterous, conceited, boastful, “overforward”, swellheaded, cocky and flaunty’ (p. 405).

Moreover, hubris has been associated with arrogance. Kets de Vries (1990) observed that ‘hubris has ... been a recurring theme in leadership, the obvious reason being that with power often comes excessive pride and arrogance’ (p. 752). Hayward and Hambrick (1997) referred to it as an ‘exaggerated sense of self-confidence’ (p. 103) and Ruvio et al. (2020) as ‘reflect(ing) an exaggerated sense of pride’ (p. 1119). Thus, hubris, self-confidence and pride are all associated with arrogance. In addition, Feldman (1999) identified two forms of pride, one constructive, referred to as ‘proper’ pride, the other destructive, in which ‘pride and arrogance prevail and there is a devaluation of and contempt for qualities such as love, concern and gratitude’ (p. 152).

2.3.4 Business and Management

There is early evidence of arrogance being of interest to workplace leaders and professionals (Ingelfinger 1980; Mayer 1984; Peters 1990). Peters (1990) and Sutton (2003) highlighted the creative and positive effects of arrogance, while acknowledging the importance of managing its toxic effects. This raises the question for the current study as to what aspect of arrogance leads to creativity.

The first scholarly study of workplace arrogance appears to have been undertaken by JR Cook (1992) in his doctoral research into cognitive arrogance as a ‘stressor’ coping style. He proposed that as a cognitive style, ‘cognitive arrogance’ manifests itself when a person attempts to cope with stress. His key finding is that an arrogant person’s belief in their superiority helps them cope with any stressors but leads to an inability to admit failure. He also found that a highly arrogant individual could selectively distort events to maintain a positive self-image.

In a key study, Hareli and Weiner (2000) used attribution theory to identify three ‘antecedent’ qualities or conditions—locus, controllability and stability—observed in others, which could elicit perceptions of arrogance or modesty (i.e., they reflect the extent to which a person is likely or not likely to proclaim their ability). However, the first significant published study on workplace arrogance and LA was by RE Johnson et al. (2010), who developed a clear definition of workplace arrogance and an instrument to measure it and examined its relationship with associated constructs. Further, Cleary et al. (2015) reviewed the impact of workplace arrogance in the mental health sector, and Cowan et al. (2019) developed a framework for research into arrogance from a cross-disciplinary perspective, which comprises three types of arrogance and

six components. Last, Coppola (2023) using a phenomenological approach, and only one of three qualitative studies in this thesis, (Demirbilek [2022] and Jenkins [2015] being the others), examined the lived experience of egotism and particularly arrogance in musicians and music professionals.

Figure 1 provides a timeline of the development of scholarly interest in arrogance by author, the associated disciplines and the contributions of these studies.

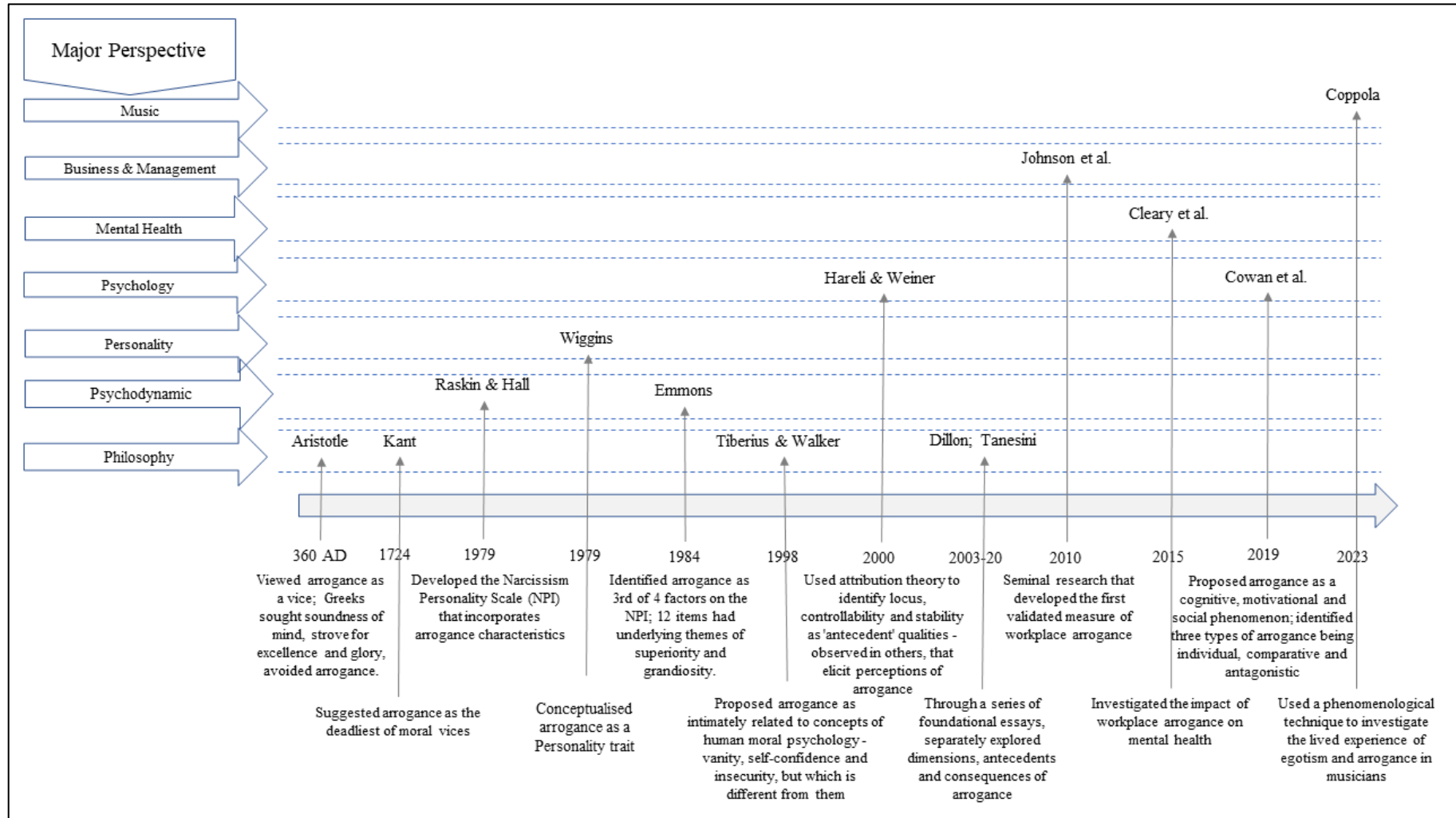


Figure 1. Research on Arrogance over Time (Adapted from Blevins, Stackhouse & Dionne 2022)

2.4 About Arrogance

RE Johnson et al. (2010) established a clear, evidence-based definition of arrogance on examining workplace arrogance and workplace LA. However, outside this field of work-based arrogance, the term ‘arrogance’ remains inconsistently used and lacking in precision. It is encountered in many different contexts and explained in varying ways—that there are so many perspectives and explanations make its study somewhat challenging.

2.4.1 Arrogance by Another Name

Anecdotally, ‘arrogant’ as used in everyday language, is generally accepted as a negative rather than a positive term (Cowan et al. 2019; Silverman et al. 2012; Tanesini 2018). When applied to people other than oneself, it conjures up ideas that the ‘arrogant’ person may be full of themselves, acting superior, self-focused, disrespectful and denigrating others in terms of those people’s views and contributions (Johnson, RE et al. 2010). When assigned by others (to oneself), it would most likely be construed as an insult (Dillon 2019). In the academic and professional realm, arrogance is often used in conjunction with terms such as superiority, entitlement, exploitativeness, hubris, pride, overconfidence and narcissism. As regards the last construct, Kowalski (2003, p. 79) stated, ‘Narcissism is so frequently used to refer to arrogance that I will use the terms interchangeably’, yet Emmons (1984, 1987) had demonstrated years earlier that arrogance was a factor of narcissism, not a replacement for it.

Bollaert and Petit (2010) similarly found a lack of precision when defining hubris. They argued that poorly defined concepts have implications for methodological choices, such that when it becomes difficult to operationalise a concept in a meaningful way, it is then difficult to measure it. This argument also applies to having clear definitions of related constructs, in this case, overconfidence and narcissism. In regard to overconfidence, the lack of a precise definition bears a striking similarity to the problem of having a common definition of arrogance that operates across different disciplines. That is, ‘blanket references to ‘overconfidence’ raise the issue of comparability between different studies, as we cannot be sure that findings are based on identical concepts’ (Bollaert & Petit 2010, p. 365).

This assertion also applies to narcissism. The reason that arrogance and narcissism are often confused in the literature is clear—self-esteem, superiority, dominance and entitlement are associated with both constructs (Emmons 1984). Thus, that same imprecision as demonstrated with hubris is present regarding narcissism and arrogance.

As aforementioned, arrogance has been used with constructs such as pride, hubris and narcissism, but inconsistently. For example, according to Kerfoot (2010), '*Webster's Dictionary*' defines hubris as arrogance and/or excessive pride' (p. 350). Sadler-Smith and Cojuharenco (2021) stated that 'the attributes of hubris are overconfidence, arrogance and pride, superiority over others, and contempt for advice and criticism' (p. 271), whereas Toscano, Price and Scheepers (2018) observed that 'arrogance is also differentiated from hubris, or exaggerated self-confidence and pride' (p. 631). Poggi and D'Errico (2011) classified arrogance as a type of pride and noted that an arrogant person tends to believe that they have power over others. LA Williams and DeSteno (2009) (see their footnote) added 'synonyms for proud are almost universally negative (e.g. arrogant, haughty)' (p. 284), and Bollaert and Petit (2010) described arrogance alongside haughtiness as a behaviour or attitude in the diagnostic criteria for narcissistic personality disorder.

The issue is that arrogance is used as a factor of other constructs, as an adjective to describe those constructs or as a behaviour to demonstrate them, depending on the context in which arrogance is used. Thus, the way arrogance is used in the scholarly and professional literature depends on the purpose of the writer, rather than adhering to evidence and the discipline of the research method.

2.4.2 Correlates to Arrogance

Mitchell et al. (2024) reported that narcissism, hubris and pride are related to LA, as attested to in numerous studies (Braun 2017; Brennan & Conroy 2013; Chatterjee & Hambrick 2007; Chatterjee & Pollock 2017; Claxton, Owen & Sadler-Smith 2015; Grijalva et al. 2015; Hiller & Hambrick 2005; Kerfoot 2010; Kets de Vries 1990; Nevicka et al. 2018; Park et al. 2018; Petit & Bollaert 2012; Rosenthal & Pittinsky 2006). Whether arrogance differs from narcissism, hubris or pride has received little scholarly attention. However, the current study examines these relationships in order to effectively inform the construction of the frameworks it uses to identify LA and IWB. The advantages of clarifying the

meaning of arrogance are that it may isolate this construct and it allows the argument that it is its own construct. The following arguments are intended to facilitate that goal.

It can be argued that arrogance is discrete from narcissism, hubris and pride as it requires a social or interpersonal context (Johnson, RE et al. 2010; Ruvio et al. 2020). The inference is that a minimum of two people is required for the display of arrogance. Although Dillon (2007) has presented a contrary argument that ‘not all forms of arrogance involve relations to other people’ (p. 106) her examples are propositions, not established events. In contrast, narcissism, hubris and pride may require the presence of only one person, the actor.

Second, the outcomes from narcissism, hubris, pride and arrogance differ. The outcome from narcissism is being admired (Back et al. 2013); from hubris, it is gaining benefit, usually at another’s expense (Berger, J et al. 2020); from pride, it is gaining prestige and dominance (Poggi & D’Errico 2011; Tracy & Robins 2007); and from arrogance, it is the knowledge of being superior or better than others (Johnson, RE et al. 2010).

Third, the antecedents to arrogance can be contextual items, such as tenure systems and employment in industry sectors as found in higher education (Haan, Britt & Weinstein 2007), and are not found in narcissism, or hubris. Further, arrogance may be at the individual, organisational or institutional level (Borden, Levy & Silverman 2018; Haan, Britt & Weinstein 2007; Zhong, J, Li & Luo 2021). Recent studies by Tanesini (2023) and Roe (2023) argued the basis of organisational- and institutional-level arrogance, but narcissism, hubris and pride occur only at the individual level.

Fourth, interventions to modify or eliminate arrogant behaviour in organisations are suggested through coaching, training, behaviour modification or change management initiatives (Borden, Levy & Silverman 2018; Johnson, RE et al. 2010), whereas for narcissism and hubris a more personal method is required that reflects their being embedded within the individual (Rosenthal & Pittinsky 2006) and that respond to clinical or therapeutic interventions (Roberts et al. 2017).

Fifth, the nature and purpose of arrogance, narcissism, pride and hubris differ. Arrogance has clearly been observed for a long period as a factor of narcissism rather than its equivalent, and aspects of narcissism, such as entitlement and superiority, also occur in arrogance but the context in which these occur also differs (Edershile & Wright 2022; Johnson, RE et al. 2010). Further, RE Johnson et al. (2010) found that the narcissism factors

of self-sufficiency and authority were not related to arrogance. The purpose of hubris is to gain a benefit at another's expense, as previously stated, and it differs from arrogance even though they share some factors, such as overconfidence and the overestimation of abilities (Berger, J et al. 2020). The purpose of arrogance is to be superior to others and have them know that. Poggi and D'Errico (2011) argued that the purpose of pride is being superior to benefit the superior person, namely, a goal. In contrast, in arrogance, superiority is an inner belief deriving from a poor sense of self-worth, which drives behaviour (Tanesini 2018). These arguments demonstrate how arrogance is isolated from narcissism, hubris and pride but further research is required.

2.4.3 Types of Arrogance

The literature has identified many different types of arrogance, most of which include aspects of superiority, self-importance, entitlement and inflation of oneself, as well as the ways that arrogant people treat others, usually contemptuously. It is the compilation of these concepts the current study refers to when using the term 'arrogance in general', which is meant to reflect its 'everyday' use (Cowan et al. 2019; Cleary et al 2015; Godkin & Allcorn 2011; Hareli & Weiner 2000; Johnson RE et al 2010; Milyavsky et al. 2017).

There are other forms of arrogance based on a belief of superiority and treating people with disdain and contempt, but these usually have a unique characteristic. According to Tanesini (2023) and Tanesini and Lynch (2020), intellectual arrogance is arrogance as occurs in the epistemic domain. Ford (2009) considered 'arrogant perception' an epistemic error to which people of social privilege are systemically oriented. For Kleitman, Hui and Jiang (2019), cognitive arrogance is an exaggerated view of one's intellectual abilities and knowledge based on a belief of superiority and self-importance. In studies on interpersonal arrogance (Dillon 2007; Tanesini 2018), the focus is on how the arrogant actor treats others, which is usually disdainfully and contemptuously. Regarding workplace arrogance (Cleary et al. 2015; Coppola 2023; Johnson, RE et al. 2010) the characteristic is the context (the workplace) in which the presumption of superiority is manifested when disparaging others, whereas consumer arrogance occurs in the consumption of goods and services (Ruvio et al. 2020; Senyuz & Hasford 2022). Haan, Britt and Weinstein (2007) identified institutionalised arrogance, which was named thus as the authors argued that the higher education system in the United States (US) was partially responsible for how academics, staff and students behaved, and that the tenure system of employment led to a decrease in

the accountability felt by academics, resulting in arrogant behaviour by them. These different types of arrogance all refer to the belief or presumption of superiority that manifests in unacceptable behaviour. The differences occur in their context, that is, the epistemic domain, systemically driven social privilege, intellectual abilities and knowledge, workplaces, institutions and consumerism.

2.4.4 Leader Arrogance

Antonakis and Day (2018) referred to leadership as directing and guiding an organisation's resources to achieve strategic objectives with purpose, based on values, ideals, vision, symbols and emotional exchanges with others. A leader is an individual appointed to that role by an organisation. In terms of leadership and arrogance, to date, no study has suggested that the arrogant behaviour of someone in a leadership role differs from that of someone who is not, inferring that the difference between arrogance and LA is context. Further, leadership does not occur in a vacuum but in an actual location (Oc 2018), which may be physical (workplace), in institutions or markets, and in culture. This view implies that discussions on leadership assume where that leadership happens.

From a research perspective, RE Johnson et al. (2010) is the first to have raised the issue of LA, which they proposed was demonstrated through acts of disparaging others, resulting in negative consequences for both the actor and the target. Cowan et al. (2019) concurred with this view but also argued there could be beneficial group outcomes. Borden, Levy and Silverman (2018) considered the impact of arrogance by supervisors on team members in terms of feedback and burnout, while Toscano, Price and Scheepers (2018) examined its impact on top-management teams. Similarly, commentary (Burke 2006; Hicks 2021; Ma & Karri 2005; Silverman et al. 2012) on LA also pointed to the negative effects on organisations and people, including the leaders themselves, but an alternative perspective that LA can be beneficial also emerged (Ingelfinger 1980; Peters 1990).

Thus, LA is treated in this study as the arrogant act of a person in an organisational leadership role, and that behaviour may have either problematic or beneficial consequences. It is worth noting that although a leader may possess more knowledge and expertise than followers, if they make a point of demonstrating that superiority it would still amount to arrogance as per the RE Johnson et al (2010 definition of arrogance (see Table 2).

2.4.5 Leader Arrogance and Harmful Workplace Leadership

In investigating antecedents to workplace arrogance, Mitchell et al. (2024) referenced Mackey et al.'s (2021) study on the dark side of leadership in which they identified 21 styles of destructive leadership. Mitchell et al. (2024) concluded that although LA, by definition, may have been evident in many of those styles, the purpose of LA differs from that of destructive leadership. The arrogant leader strives to display their superiority through disdainful and contemptuous behaviour towards others, which includes diminishing others' work (Tanesini 2018) and believing the leader is deserving of 'more' than anyone else, with the behaviour being the means to achieve that end (Dillon 2007; Tanesini 2018). Second, according to Cleary et al. (2015), RE Johnson et al. (2010), Sim and Ling (2020), Senyuz and Hasford (2022) and Toscano, Price and Scheepers (2018), leaders who engage in those behaviours are more likely to face harm, including eroded self-esteem and wellbeing, and compromised workplace relationships, engagement, commitment, satisfaction, performance and brand. Thus, the key difference between LA and other harmful leadership styles is in the leader's manifested belief of superiority that leads to individual and organisational detriment.

2.4.6 Manifestations of Arrogance

Manifestations of arrogance are behaviours arrogant people engage in, and although this term is widely used in the literature, it fails to convey a sense of meaning simply because of the number of such behaviours. This study identified 160 behaviours from the literature and reduced those to 38 by similarity grouping and removing duplicates. Each of those 38 behaviours (see Table 8 in Section 3.8.4) has a unique meaning, yet the literature offers little guidance for understanding how they differ. Thus, when someone is called out as arrogant it can (based on this study) have 38 different meanings. Although it is the intention in this study to understand how LA and IWB might be related, increased knowledge about arrogance might inform IWB.

2.4.7 Arrogant Behaviour or Arrogant Person

The literature does not distinguish between arrogant behaviour and the idea of an arrogant disposition; however, attribution theory (see Section 2.11) provides an explanation that is used in this study. According to Weiner (1985), behaviours or events are explained through perceiving or observing behaviour, making judgements about intention (i.e. whether

deliberate or not) and attributing cause according to the internal characteristics of the actor, or external circumstances. EE Jones and Davis (1965) proposed that when there is correspondence between how someone behaves and who they are perceived to be, that is, their personality, then that behaviour is perceived to be intentional. Presumably, when there is no correspondence, that behaviour would be attributed to external factors and therefore considered unintentional. In this model, arrogance is perceived by the recipient or observers.

For example, if a leader is perceived to be arrogant (e.g. Donald Trump), an arrogant act by them would correspond with their perceived disposition and their behaviour would be deemed intentional. Conversely, if it were the Dalai Lama, this behaviour would probably not correspond with the perception of his disposition and the behaviour would be deemed as unintentional. This example suggests that the perception of an arrogant person relies on their perceived disposition (by others), and it implies repetition. In contrast, arrogant behaviour does not have this implication, as it may be an isolated or intermittent act and not necessarily a matter of disposition. In the latter circumstances, Weiner's theory of motivation (1982, 1985) can explain an isolated act of arrogance with unknown parties, that is, disposition is not a factor. Weiner's theory (1982) rests on three causal dimensions of behaviour: locus (of causality), which is internal or external to the individual; stability in terms of whether an event will change; and controllability, which refers to whether the actor can exercise choice. If a new, unfamiliar employee were seen to engage in domineering behaviour, it may initially be interpreted by others as having an external cause (to the employee), unstable (probably would not happen again) and outside that person's control.

In essence, attribution theory explains that arrogant behaviour becomes dispositional when there are enough events to draw the conclusion that the observed behaviour is internal to the actor, stable and controllable. The importance of this difference is that isolated acts of arrogance may not be as confronting or traumatic as dealing with a person known to be arrogant.

An associated interpretation is that LA while being trait-like and stable may also be influenced by contextual factors, such as the social environment (Eva et al. 2020). The literature has identified contextual factors in relation to LA as the working environment, institutions, industry sectors, compensation systems and social norms, (Borden, Levy &

Silverman 2018; Haan, Britt & Weinstein 2007; Kumar, Kang & Chand 2022; Roe 2023) there is no indication that these operate in isolation from, or in conjunction with, disposition-based arrogance.

2.5 Isolating Arrogance

An issue that needs to be addressed is that of endogeneity, which in this study, particularly refers to the isolation and measurement of arrogance, given the potential for construct overlap or conflation with narcissism, pride and hubris. The quantitative approach to endogeneity is to rely on randomisation, experimental or statistical control, instrumental-variable estimation, process tracing or an improved research design to isolate key variables and infer causality (Alvesson & Einola 2019; Bettis et al. 2014; Reeb, Sakakibara & Mahmood 2012; Shaver 2020). In contrast, and using a qualitative approach, this study does not attempt to prove causality, but examines potential relationships by relying on practical and real-life evidence. It addresses endogeneity through a rigorous examination of the literature, the investigation of the social and scholarly construction of arrogance, and last, the analysis of factors involved in arrogant workplace behaviour through its antecedents, behaviour and outcomes.

2.6 Defining Arrogance

Notably, the literature does not sufficiently define or differentiate arrogant behaviour occurring in a workplace from the arrogant behaviour of a leader. However, both point to the location of the behaviour, that is, the 'workplace', which is defined as 'the site or location where a person works' (*Oxford English Dictionary* 2022), whereas 'leader' identifies the perpetrator of the arrogant behaviour. For the purposes of this review, there are three contexts in which workplace arrogance and workplace LA may occur: the physical location where work is undertaken and in which the perpetrator is not a leader, the physical location where work is undertaken and the perpetrator is in a leadership role, and the context in which workplace arrogance is attributed to the organisation and not individuals. Furthermore, work features three aspects of an organisation, that is, the technical, commercial and social (people) aspects (Macdonald, Burke & Stewart 2018). The technical aspect refers to the work that creates monetary value for a business, such as production, the commercial includes marketing, sales, business development and accounting, and the social comprises the work in relation to people. In considering articles for review in this study, it

has been accepted that arrogant workplace behaviour is not confined to a specific work area.

Of the nine types of arrogance identified earlier (i.e. arrogance in general, interpersonal, intellectual, cognitive, epistemic, leader, workplace, institutional and consumer) only epistemic arrogance (Ford 2009) appears to demonstrate a difference in behaviours reflecting arrogance, that is, due to assumed knowledge of others. For the purposes of this study, if article content relates to leader arrogance, then the article is accepted for the systematic literature review irrespective of descriptors used. This step is contained in Section 3.6.1.5.3 and shown in Figure 8.

As can be observed from historical developments, including philosophical and multidisciplinary studies, the definition and understanding of workplace arrogance are fragmented, as is further shown in Table 2. The lack of clarity in understanding workplace arrogance and workplace LA from a management perspective can limit organisations from clearly outlining measures that restrict the negative effects of workplace arrogance on employees, innovation and overall performance (Bollaert & Petit 2010).

Table 2. Definitions of Workplace and Workplace Leader Arrogance

Author	Definition
AS Berger (2002)	‘Arrogance may be manifested ... as lack of proper respect, consideration, and good manners ... failure to pause, listen, and share a friendly word or two; being abusive or critical of subordinates, sometimes even in the patient’s presence; and (for male physicians) addressing women condescendingly’ (p. 145).
Borden, Levy and Silverman (2018)	‘An individual’s tendency to engage in behaviors that convey an exaggerated sense of superiority’ (p. 346).
Brown (2012)	‘A chronic belief of superiority and exaggerated self-importance that is demonstrated through excessive and presumptuous claims’ (p. 555).
Burke (2006)	‘You think you’re right and everyone else is wrong’ (p. 93) .
Cleary et al. (2015)	‘A condition or attribute whereby an individual perceives that he or she is in some way superior to others and so has no need to show courtesy or respect, nor listen to the advice or feedback of others’ (p. 266).
Cowan et al. (2019)	As a starting point, we adopt the definition from the <i>Oxford English Dictionary</i> online, of arrogance as ‘a high or inflated opinion of one’s own abilities, importance, and so on, that gives rise to presumption or excessive self-confidence, or to a feeling or attitude of being superior to others’ (p.425).
Coppola (2023)	‘Arrogance is conceived as a more extreme form of haughtiness in which people further insulate themselves from criticism by adopting an antisocial stance of ‘total self-reliance’ to neutralize possible threats to their self-esteem’ (p. 299).
De Clercq, Fatima and Jahanzeb (2021)	‘The understudied propensity of leaders to exhibit inflated levels of self-importance and express a sense of superiority over followers’ (p. 2).
Demirbilek, Keser and Akpolat (2022)	‘Arrogance refers to an orientation that causes individuals to show superiority over others and to think that they are more important’ (p. 84).
Dillon (2007)	‘The arrogant individual is generally thought to be someone who thinks he is better than other people, who looks down on others and treats them contemptuously, disdainfully, peremptorily, or without consideration, making it clear that he views them as less important, less worthy than his very important, very great self (Interpersonal Arrogance)’ (p.103).
Ford (2009)	‘Arrogant perception’ is a particular type of epistemic error to which people who are in positions of social privilege are systemically oriented’ (p. 48).

Friedman and Friedman (2019)	‘Thinking that you know it all and that you don’t need to improve because you are just so great already ... are quick to attack the research of others ... only value (their own) kind of research’ (p. 12).
Godkin and Allcorn (2011)	‘Arrogant narcissism—in sum, narcissistic personality disorders are associated with overt and striking grandiosity, a sense of superiority and self-importance and uniqueness that permits viewing others with disdain where perfectionism in the form of perfect standards is imposed upon others who never measure up’ (p. 561).
Haan, Britt and Weinstein (2007)	‘Arrogance is a sociological concept in that it is a trait that people perceive in others. It is assumed that most people do not see themselves as arrogant. People identify others as being more arrogant or more humble than they see themselves. If one sees his/her success as a result of one’s own self-created abilities, that person is likely to be perceived as being arrogant’ (p. 83).
Hareli and Weiner (2000); Hareli et al. (2006); Hareli et al. (2011)	‘Arrogance and arrogant communications emphasize that one’s qualities and worth are better [than] or superior [to] those of others’ (p. 216).
Hogan and Hogan (2001)	‘A sense of entitlement, excessive self-esteem, and an expectation of success’ (p. 48).
Jenkins (2015)	‘Arrogance in the medical profession is ‘to arrogate,’ that is, to claim a right that belongs to another.’ (p. 133).
RE Johnson et al. (2010)	‘Arrogance is defined as a set of behaviors that communicates a person’s exaggerated sense of superiority, which is often accomplished by disparaging others’ (p. 405).
Kleitman, Hui and Jiang (2019)	‘Cognitive arrogance pertains to the exaggerated view of one’s intellectual abilities and knowledge. Arrogance is a stable belief of superiority and exaggerated self-importance that is manifested in presumptuous claims and self-aggrandizing behaviors’ (pp. 480-481).
Kumar, Kang and Chand (2022)	‘A set of behaviors that communicates a person’s exaggerated sense of superiority, which is often accomplished by disparaging others’ (p. 73) (used RE Johnson et al’s (2010) definition).
Ma and Karri (2005)	‘The arrogance of strong incumbents often blindfolds their top management teams and creates illusions that they are invincible ... what worked before will always work. With this mentality, they unjustly belittle their rivals, mock their presence’ (p. 68).
Milyavsky et al. (2017)	‘A set of behaviors that communicates a person’s exaggerated sense of superiority, which is often accomplished by disparaging others’ (p. 2) (used RE Johnson et al’s (2010) definition).

Orunbon, Ibikunle and Lawal (2021)	‘Arrogance has been defined as a state or trait in which a person perceives that he or she is superior to others in some ways and therefore has no need to display courtesy or consideration or listen to others’ advice or input’ (p. 5).
Padua et al. (2010)	‘Arrogance is defined as that species of pride which consists in exorbitant claims of rank, dignity, estimation or power or which exalts the worth or importance of the person to an undue degree’ (p. 77).
Randolph-Seng and Norris (2011)	‘At the group level, false consensus and pluralistic ignorance work together to create pluralistic arrogance ... a form of groupthink that causes them (the group) to think they are performing better than objective outcomes suggest’ (p. 420).
Ruvio et al. (2020)	‘Consumer arrogance is the propensity to broadcast one’s superiority over others in the consumption domain’ (p.1117).
Senyuz and Hasford (2022)	‘Arrogance is a human trait that is defined as the tendency to demonstrate one’s capabilities and value over others in particularly overbearing ways’ (p. 107).
Sim and Ling (2020)	‘Arrogant leader(s)—a person(s) who has a high sense of superiority is also inaccessible and usually unapproachable’ (p. 42).
Spector (2003)	‘A sense of confidence and pride’ (p. 216).
Tanesini (2018)	‘Intellectual arrogance is generally regarded as a vice of superiority because arrogant people presume that they are better than other people’ (p. 218).
Toscano, Price and Scheepers (2018)	‘A sense of superiority and exaggerated self-importance, acted out with an overbearing manner and presumptuous claims’ (p. 631).
X Wang, Chow & Luk et al. (2013)	‘Arrogance means ‘proud and insolent; disrespectful,’ and is a characteristic that people perceive in others rather than in themselves. An arrogant communication indicates that the communicator is perceived to think that he/she is better than others’ (p. 919).
Weinstein et al. (2010)	‘Proud and insolent; disrespectful; people who exhibit this problem focus on themselves and their motives ... they are self-serving individuals’ (p. 83).
Zibarras, Port and Woods (2008)	Extremely self-confident, with an expectation to be respected. Unwilling to admit mistakes or listen to advice (p. 205).
Zohaib Khan and Batool (2022)	Actions that convey an individual’s grandiose sense of superiority by frequently belittling others (p. 463).

2.7 Leadership

While there are numerous perspectives of leadership, this study will rely on that of Macdonald, Burke and Stewart (2018) who proposed that the purpose of leadership in the workplace is to change behaviour. As distinct from adaptive and complexity leadership theories that view the organisation as a system, these authors' approach, called systems leadership (SL), is an integrated theory of organisational behaviour based on the concept of productive social cohesion derived from values-based behaviour that, in turn, underpins a positive workplace culture. SL is not a single theory but a compilation of theories and concepts that together inform how to create effective leadership and organisation.

The theory underlying SL is social cohesion as applied to the workplace and originates from Durkheim's (1897) research on social integration (Fonseca, Lukosch & Brazier 2019) in which social cohesion was characterised as a sign of interdependence between individuals within a society. Friedkin (2004) viewed social cohesion causally, namely, as having antecedents and intervening and outcome variables, from which social processes emerge that connect micro- and macro-level phenomena affecting an individual's attitude and membership. In assuming both perspectives, social cohesion from the SL view refers to those social actions that connect and bind individuals interdependently in a group. The term 'productive' demonstrates that individuals work together to achieve objectives and their intention is that the achievement of these objectives should add value to the organisation, that is, they work together for a productive purpose (Macdonald, Burke & Stewart 2018).

SL theory differs from other leadership theories in that it connects leadership to the organisational design. This connection is established through the concepts of time span, levels of abstraction (mental processing ability) and levels of work proposed by Jaques (1989), which an organisation can be structured by differentiating work and roles on the basis of complexity and timespan. Further, roles are constructed to have a clear purpose with matching authority and accountability.

Jacques (1989) defined timespan as the duration of the longest task for which a role is accountable. He explained mental processing ability as comprising work variables that cumulatively increase as the work level increases and that more of those variables are intangible, there is greater interaction between them, results are further into the future and

because of this, reviews are further apart, and the link between cause and effect is less easy to discern. By combining mental processing ability with timespan, Jaques (1989) was able to differentiate work through discrete levels of work, and after taking into account function, Jaques (1989) had a framework to structure work in organisations. Assigning people to roles is undertaken according to capability, that is, mental processing ability (Jaques 1989), knowledge, experience, skills (technical and social), wisdom and valuing of work. In this framework, matching capability to complexity is a key aspect of achieving work and organisational objectives.

Macdonald, Burke and Stewart (2018) proposed that leaders use behaviour, systems and symbols as tools to ‘create, maintain and improve the culture of a group of people so that they achieve objectives and continue to do so over time’ (p. 149). Organisational leaders with appropriate capability to design effective work and people systems is considered critical, as these systems drive the behaviour and output of organisational members.

Last, values-based behaviour reflects the values of honesty, fairness, love, dignity, courage and trust that together constitute the core human values of SL. When some, or all, of these values are experienced as negative, the effect is one of fragmentation, rather than cohesion (Macdonald, Burke & Stewart 2018). Arrogant leader behaviour, such as denigrating another person, would be judged by others as unloving, undignifying, cowardly, unfair and untrustworthy. If performed with any consistency, it may also become symbolic of that leader’s behaviour leading to a shared negative view of the leader by team members. If reflective of an organisation’s culture, that culture might be described as fragmented, rather than cohesive, and outcomes from arrogant leader behaviour may be negative. In contrast, when positive outcomes are experienced following arrogant leader behaviour, it would suggest that such behaviour has been moderated, for example, by organisational interventions (Johnson, RE et al. 2010) or that the victims have an overwhelming reason that mitigates the effects of such behaviour (i.e. there is a benefit for them).

2.8 Work

The current study has been undertaken in the context of work, which necessitates defining it to ensure clarity in content and context, particularly in the literature review and data collection that includes individual leader cases.

Jaques (1989) provided a definition of work focused on the cognitive acts of an individual when undertaking a task and proposed that work is ‘the use of discretion and judgment in making decisions, in carrying out a task, backed by knowledge, skills, temperament and wisdom, and driven by values’ (p. 14), with the focus being on discretion and judgement. Building on this definition, Macdonald, Burke and Stewart (2018) described work as the exercise of discretion in making decisions in order to achieve a productive purpose, as shown in Figure 2. They also coined the phrase that work is ‘converting intention into reality’. These propositions link choice and decision-making to outcomes. The advantage of this definition is that it need not address issues peripheral to the concept of work as it only comprises those factors present when engaging in the act of work, and hence, this perspective is unique.

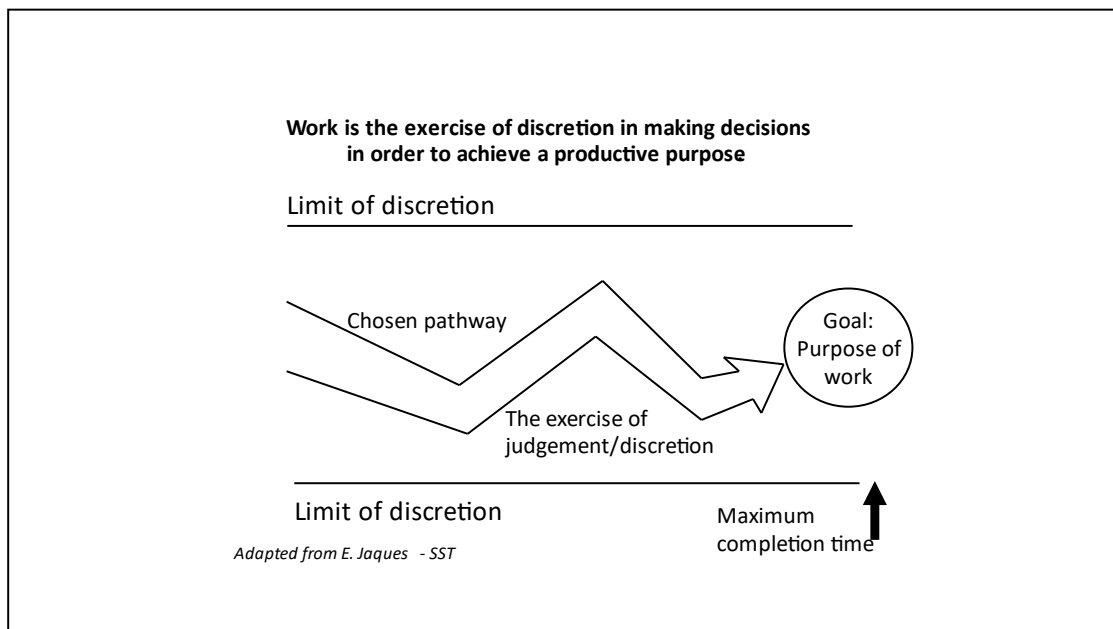


Figure 2. Graphic of Work (Adapted from Jaques 1989)

As distinct from this approach, other theorists mostly focused on outcomes achieved through the fields of work, its location, and the division of labour, purpose, role, activities, productivity, payment and effort (Cairns & Malloch 2011; Provis 2009). Okhusyen et al. (2013) provided a simple definition of work as ‘focussing effort toward an objective’ (p. 491) and examined the views about work in different domains, such as sociology, human resource management, organisational behaviour and communication. However, as with other researchers, their focus was on the surrounding aspects, rather than the act, of work itself. Svensson, Kang and Ha

(2019) drew attention to the definition in the *Concise Oxford English Dictionary* that work is the ‘expenditure of energy, striving, application of effort or exertion to a purpose’ (p. 6), but again, this definition does not inform what actually happens cognitively. Frese and Zapf (1994) discussed work in terms of action theory, which they stated is a cognitive theory, an information processing theory and behaviour theory. They described the action process as goal development, orientation, plan generation, deciding on the plan, plan execution and feedback. Although this theory acknowledges that decision-making is involved in the action process, it considers only the decisions about a plan and not decision-making before and after that point.

In summary, the literature review reveals that little research has been conducted on cognitive activity in the context of work. However, the perspectives of Jaques (1989) and Macdonald, Burke and Stewart (2018) do address this concept, and thus, are used in the present study for they provide a simple way of understanding the meaning of work, which, in turn, maximises the potential data for this study.

2.9 Innovative Work Behaviour

Understanding the IWB elements is important in determining whether there is a relationship between it and LA. However, the literature is not necessarily clear about the meaning of IWB, as revealed by Oeij, Dhondt and McMurray (2023) who observed that a detailed definition and conceptualisation of IWB is lacking. This lack leaves De Spiegelare et al.’s (2018) definition as a guide, namely, that IWB refers to those employee behaviours that lead to innovation: identifying problems/opportunities, searching for solutions, advocating for these solutions and contributing to their implementation. Further, IWB has developed over time (see Figure 3), given that many studies have contributed to understanding it as a concept, leading to IWB being interpreted through a conflation of these studies in order to provide clarity about its essence.

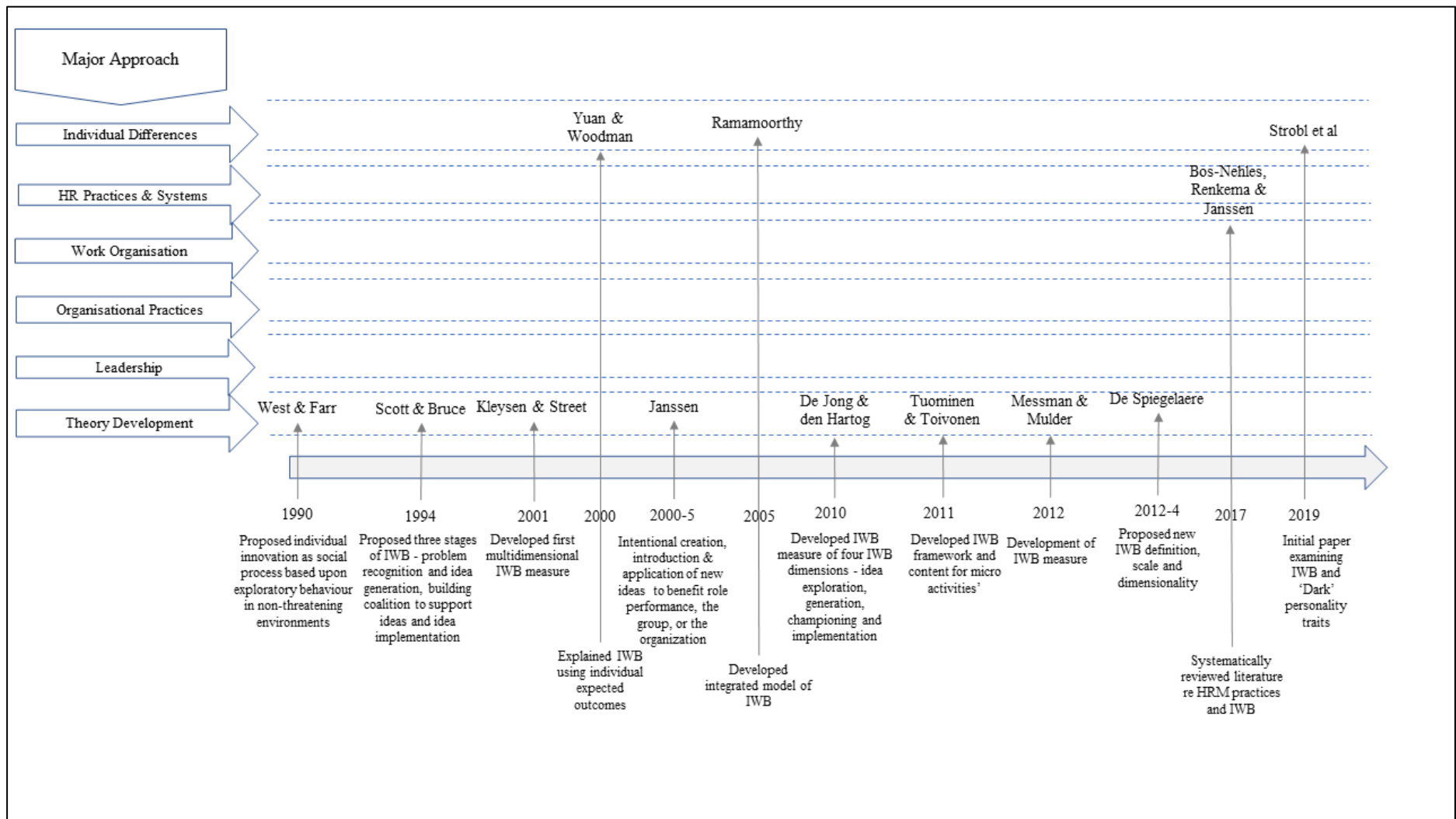


Figure 3. Research on Innovative Work Behaviour over Time (Adapted from Blevins, Stackhouse & Dionne 2022)

Table 3 provides definitions of IWB drawn from the literature review. There appear to be two approaches to defining IWB. The first (marked with an asterisk in the author column of Table 3) emphasises the stages that employees move through to construct and implement an idea, and the second (unmarked), while still focused on implementing that idea, accentuates the products (including services and methods), processes, roles (and people in them) and work units involved, that together, benefit the organisation. The first is about the innovating process (behaviour), and the second about value creation (outcome). For the purposes of this study, the question is regarding the likely influence of LA on either one of these, or both.

Table 3. Definitions of Innovative Work Behaviour

Author	Definition
SG Scott and Bruce (1994)*	Individual innovation begins with problem recognition and the generation of ideas or solutions, either novel or adapted. During the next stage of the process, an innovative individual seeks sponsorship for an idea and attempts to build a coalition of supporters for it. Last, during the third stage of the innovation process, the innovative individual completes the idea by producing ‘a prototype or model of the innovation ... that can be touched or experienced, that can now be diffused, mass-produced, turned to productive use, or institutionalized’ (Kanter 1988, p. 191).
Janssen (2000)	Innovative work behaviour (IWB) is ‘the intentional creation, introduction and application of new ideas within a work role, group or organisation, in order to benefit role performance, the group or the organisation’ (p. 288).
de Jong and den Hartog (2010)*	They distinguished four IWB dimensions: exploration, generation, championing and implementation of ideas.
Yuan and Woodman (2010)	IWB is ‘an employee’s intentional introduction or application of new ideas, products, processes and procedures to their work role, work unit or organisation’ (p. 324).
Leong and Rasli (2014)*	IWB is ‘construed as an acceptable multistage process involving idea generation, coalition building and implementation ... recent studies have examined IWB from four interrelated sets of behavioural activities namely (1) problem recognition, (2) idea generation, (3) idea promotion, (4) idea realisation’ (p. 593).
Bysted and Jespersen (2014)*	‘Employees’ IWB is a complex process of developing an internal climate supportive of idea generation and realisation through use of financial, participative and decentralisation mechanisms’ (p, 217).
De Spiegelaere, Van Gyes and Van Hootegem (2014)*	‘IWB is about employee behaviour aimed at bringing about innovations. These innovations can be products, processes, procedures or ideas that are new and intended to benefit the relevant unit of adoption. IWB covers large and small, radical and incremental innovations and concerns not only the intra-role behaviour, but also the extra-role behaviour of employees’ (p. 23).
Craig (2015)*	‘IWB is the intentional creation, introduction and application of new ideas within a work role, group or organisation, in order to benefit role performance, the group or the organisation through four non-sequential and

	sometimes independent stages: problem recognition, idea generation, idea promotion and idea realization’ (p. 15).
Bos-Nehles, Renkema and Janssen (2017)	‘IWB is defined as the intentional behaviours of individuals to produce and implement new and useful ideas explicitly intended to benefit the individual, group or organisation’ (p.1232).
De Spiegelaere et al. (2018)*	‘IWB refers to all employee behaviour that is related to identifying problems and opportunities, searching for innovative solutions, suggesting these innovations to peers and supervisors and ultimately contributing to the implementation of the innovations in the workplace’ (p. 1902).
Hughes, Rigtering et al. (2018)	IWB is ‘an employee’s intentional introduction or application of new ideas, products, processes and procedures to their work role, work unit or organisation’ (p. 750).
Purc and Laguna (2019)*	‘The small-scale innovations manifesting themselves in everyday innovative behaviour are based on creative ideas. However, IWB includes not only generating ideas but also implementing them in organisations’ (p. 1).
Strobl et al. (2019)	Innovation behaviour can be defined as the intentional creation, introduction ‘and application of new ideas within a work role, group or organization, in order to benefit role performance, the group, or the organization’ (p. 7).
Ye, Wang and Guo (2019)*	Employee IWB is the development, adoption and implementation of new ideas for products and work methods.
Muchiri et al. (2020)	IWB comprises ‘all individual actions directed at the generation, processing and application/implementation of new ideas regarding ways of doing things, including new products, ideas, technologies, procedures or work processes, towards increasing organisational effectiveness and success’ (p. 35).
Alblooshi, Shamsuzzaman, and Haridy (2020)	‘Organisational innovation is the ability to generate and adopt new ideas or behaviours and is vital to enhancing productivity and improving business performance ... can be achieved by introducing a new product, a new organisational structure, a new managerial practice or a change in organisational culture’ (p. 340).
Gao and Liu (2021)*	‘Employees’ innovative behaviour is a multistage process, which includes the generation of innovative ideas, their dissemination within the enterprise and the final realisation’(p. 2002).
Knezovic and Drkic (2021)	The concept of IWB incorporates reasoning in alternative ways, constantly looking for advancements, seeking out new ways for achieving tasks, searching for new technologies, applying distinct work strategies and methods and ensuring resources so that new ideas can become reality (p. 399).
Norouzinik et al. (2021)	‘Employees have innovative behaviour and can create new ideas for difficult situations, regularly search for new methods and techniques and find innovative solutions to problems’ (p. 6).
Siyal et al. (2021)	IWB is employee behaviour aimed at taking the initiative and the intended introduction of innovative and useful concepts, ideas, procedures and products in their working role, working groups and employer organisations (p. 1339).
Ullah, Mirza and Jamil (2021)*	‘Innovative performance comprises three dynamic and iterative stages comprising idea generation, promotion and implementation’ (pp. 266-267).

Yang et al. (2021)*	‘Innovative behaviour refers to a series of behaviours that includes the creation, promotion and implementation of new ideas’ (p. 140).
Middleton (2022)	IWB is ‘the intentional generation of new ideas within a role, group or organisation whereby the idea is implemented within the organisation once created’ (p. 23).
Muchiri et al. (2023)	IWB is ‘a behaviour orientation of initiating and implementing useful and new ideas, processes, procedures and products to improve individual and business performance’ (p. 187).

Hughes et al. (2018), in addressing the imprecision surrounding creativity and innovation concepts and language, separated creativity from innovation on the basis that creativity involves ‘cognitive and behavioural processes applied when attempting to generate novel ideas’ (p. 551) and workplace innovation concerns those processes used in implementing ideas. Furthermore, they argued that the definitions of the two concepts should not be limited by their effects, or outcomes, meaning that definitions need to embrace the ‘phenomenon’ of creativity or innovation, namely, the behaviour or the process, and not the consequence.

Further, SG Scott and Bruce (1994), in investigating innovation at the individual level, proposed that IWB is the outcome of four interacting systems: the individual, the leader, the work group and the innovation climate. They described individual innovation as a process beginning with recognising a problem and generating ideas, obtaining a sponsor to build a coalition of support for these ideas and then building a prototype for final implementation, or as Muchiri et al. (2020) suggested, idea generation, promotion and realisation. Unlike Hughes et al. (2018), SG Scott and Bruce (1994), Muchiri et al. (2020) and Leong and Rasli (2014) included idea generation (creativity) within innovation.

Totterdill and Exton (2014) described workplace innovation as an enabling and social process involving employers, employees and a range of stakeholders seeking to assist an organisation in reaching its strategic goals through the deployment of people, technology and other resources. Its purpose is to improve and renew an organisation’s products, services and systems on an ongoing basis and thereby contribute to its survival and growth.

In their research into the literature on leadership, creativity and innovation, Hughes et al. (2018) identified the organisational context, the attributes of followers and leaders, and the leader–follower relationship as moderating variables that have positive and negative

effects, and mediating mechanisms based on psychological states, such as motivation, cognition, affect and social–relational mechanisms. The importance of their findings lies in the number of factors that may influence creativity and innovation.

Moreover, D Scott and McMurray (2021) proposed that innovation can be categorised as ‘organisational nature, organisational climate and culture, leadership and management and processes required to promote innovation’ (p. 25). According to them, organisational nature refers to the industry in which the organisation operates and the organisation’s size, structure, systems, practices, technology and markets. As regards organisational climate and culture, they highlighted the influence each has on innovation—in particular, organisational climate, which includes a willingness to engage and take risks in an environment of psychological safety and in which employees’ contributions are valued. West and Altink (1996) argued the criticality of psychological safety in regard to innovation, pointing out that where there are threats, employees will not take risks, which also implies the opposite, that when people feel free of negative consequences, they are more likely to propose and try new ways of doing things.

It is D Scott and McMurray’s (2021) third element of leadership and management on which the current study is focused, as it investigates whether there is a relationship between LA and IWB. The literature is replete with studies that have demonstrated a link between inclusive leadership styles (e.g. transformational, servant, ethical, distributive, ambidextrous and authentic) and IWB (Alblooshi, Shamsuzzaman & Haridy 2020; Knezovic & Drkic 2021; Lakshman & Rai 2019; Muchiri et al. 2020; Scott, D & McMurray 2021; Scott, SG & Bruce 1994; Strobl et al. 2019; Zhong, J, Li & Luo 2021).

Leadership is largely a social process, and the common factors in the different inclusive styles are the leader’s engagement and interest, recognising team members’ capabilities and enabling their voice while underpinning these factors with the appropriate role authority and accountability and effective systems and processes, that is, creating the conditions in which team members can successfully complete their work (Macdonald, Burke & Stewart 2018). Those conditions include creating an organisational culture built on values that support innovation and IWB (Alblooshi, Shamsuzzaman & Haridy 2020). Thus, innovative work is more likely to occur if these organisational factors are in place as they facilitate and enable the requisite behaviour by leaders, which, in turn, encourages IWB by team members. Siyal et al. (2021) argued using social exchange theory that an inclusive

leadership style was critical to enabling IWBs with the benefit of creativity expressed by employees.

Conversely, negative leadership inhibits IWB. Z Wang et al. (2021) argued that an exploitative leader (one whose primary purpose is to further self-interest at the expense of others) discourages employees from engaging in IWB by using employee output for their own benefit, assigning boring work, depriving employees of development opportunities and playing them off against each other. Norouzinik et al. (2021) found that leader narcissism inhibits IWB as did Zhang et al. (2017). However, the latter also discovered that this effect could be tempered by CEOs who possess both narcissistic and humble qualities, a relationship that Strobl et al. (2019) also found could exist. Strobl et al (2019) determined that although professional will in leadership and humility triggered IWB, narcissism could coexist with these leadership behaviours, namely, they did not interfere with one another. According to Strobl et al. (2019), this effect occurs because ‘professional will creates superb results and sets the standards for greatness’ (p. 5) as well as an unwavering resolve to achieve success despite difficulty. This finding has important implications for the current study as arrogance is a factor of narcissism (Emmons 1984), and it raises the question whether there is any part of arrogance that may incite IWB, rather than inhibit it. This issue will be discussed in the next section.

A further factor in the study of IWB is values. Purc and Laguna (2019) addressed IWB from the perspective of the employee and their personal values. Using the Schwartz et al. (2012) model of human values, they found that IWB is positively related to self-enhancement values and that job autonomy mediates the relationship between personal values (self-enhancement and openness to change) and IWB. Importantly, they also found that conservation values (conformity, tradition and security) predict resistance to change and a lower inclination to behave innovatively. They argued that personal values are known to be stable (Schwartz et al. 2012) and are not easily changed, indicating that an individual with strong conservation values may not be able to adapt to an organisational culture and climate that encourages innovation and change, which has implications for an organisation in terms of recruitment and leadership style.

Last, Siyal et al. (2021) raised the issue of a country’s culture, in this case China, affecting the implementation of inclusive leadership at the ‘coalface’ as ‘as employees working in the R&Ds in China seem to have certain issues regarding the leadership of their immediate

boss or supervisor' (p. 1353), which, in turn, influences IWB. J Zhong, Li and Luo (2021) also pointed to the influence of country culture, specifically 'relationism', that is, a culture in which there is a tendency to put more weight on 'balanced interpersonal relationships and ... taking a middle road' (p. 11), which makes it difficult to innovate. The conclusion is that IWB is influenced not just by the nature of the individual but also by the culture in which they live.

On synthesising these different perspectives, it is clear that understanding IWB starts with how it is defined; the organisation in which it is applied, that is, the organisation's climate, culture, structure, systems, leadership, work structure and markets; and the operating environment, including the country's culture. Nevertheless, of most importance is how all of these factors influence the individual.

Innovative Work Behaviour and Arrogance

The aim of this thesis is to explore the possible relationship between LA and IWB in the workplace, and thus, understanding more about the nature of both may inform this objective. To facilitate this task, the similarities and differences between the two concepts will be examined in terms of their definition, origin, operation and consequence.

As aforementioned, arrogance is proposed to originate from within an individual's belief of low self-worth and esteem (Tanesini 2018) and may be triggered by either trait or state factors manifesting in a range of unacceptable behaviours. The IWB literature refers to a set of three to five steps that an individual engages in to develop new ideas, products, processes or procedures (Yuan & Woodman 2010) in response to the behaviour of others, usually leaders, or organisational factors, such as structure, systems or strategy, and may also be precipitated by an individual's capability, personality, beliefs or values.

Arrogance is defined as 'a set of behaviors that communicates a person's exaggerated sense of superiority, which is often accomplished by disparaging others' (Johnson, RE et al. 2010, p. 405), whereas IWB is essentially defined as steps or dimensions in the exploration, generation, championing and implementation of an idea (de Jong & den Hartog 2010). Both may be explained as being triggered by situations (state) or aspects of the individual (trait), yet they convey difference, more than similarity. This may be due to the purpose—to behave arrogantly is to restore one's self-worth, whereas to engage in IWB is to bring

improvement to one's organisation; that is, arrogance looks inward to the actor, but IWB looks outward to the organisation.

The literature has generally concluded that arrogant behaviour has a negative impact on people (Borden, Levy & Silverman 2018; Bozacı, Farmer & Gürer 2018; Cleary et al. 2015; Cowan et al. 2019; De Clercq, Fatima & Jahanzeb 2021; Demirbilek, Keser & Akpolat 2022; Dillon 2007; Haan, Britt & Weinstein 2007; Johnson, RE et al. 2010; Kumar, Kang & Chand 2022; Milyavsky et al. 2017; Orunbon, Ibikunle & Lawal 2021; Padua et al. 2010; Silverman et al. 2012; Sim & Ling 2020; Tanesini 2018; Toscano, Price & Scheepers 2018), yet some studies have asked whether arrogance could have a positive impact on IWB (Strobl et al. 2019; Zhong, J, Li & Luo 2021). Building on this possibility, Sundermeier Gersch and Freiling (2020), in examining hubris and start-up founders' leadership behaviour, concluded that hubris assists leaders to achieve their vision.

Although by commentary rather than research, Peters (1990) observed that arrogance is integral to innovation despite its obnoxious manifestations and proposed that it is better to manage the bad behaviour than risk not appreciating the role of arrogance in creation and renewal. Sutton (2003) shared this view and argued that the benefits of arrogance derive from the risk-taking to fuel ideas and success. The 'trick' lies in managing arrogance to avoid disrupting others while increasing the 'odds' of innovating behaviour. Sutton noted that one of the benefits of arrogance is the ability to disregard naysayers and failure.

How then might arrogance in the context of leadership, have a positive impact? Strobl et al. (Collins 2001) suggested that 'professional will', that is, having an unwavering resolve to achieve success despite difficulty, might be a factor. Another factor could be the idea of 'functional arrogance', which means a leader uses arrogant behaviour as a technique or tool intended to facilitate others in achieving a particular goal. Although, again, there is no literature that might support this idea, this will be a consideration in this study when investigating the relationship between LA and IWB.

2.10 Times of Discontinuity

The phrase 'times of discontinuity' from the research question is intended to provide the context in which IWB may relate to LA. The *Oxford English Dictionary* (n.d.) defines discontinuity as 'the quality, fact, or condition of being discontinuous in time or space; lack

or failure of continuity; interrupted sequence or connection'. In organisational discontinuity theory, discontinuity refers to the gaps and lack of coherence that appear in the environment and operations of organisations such that usual actions fail to produce the expected results. They may occur temporally, that is, a break in a logical succession, or cross-sectionally, namely, a lack of coherence in the aspects of someone's work (Watson-Manheim, Chudoba & Crowston 2002, 2012). Deeg (2009) defined discontinuity as a special type of change in the course of events, which are interrupted for reasons of time or space, and stated that it is a 'specific phenomenon of behavioural dynamics, noticeable in sudden, pervasive changes in the variables of an entity under observation' (p. 196).

At the macro level, Zarghami (2021) identified specific business vulnerability factors (susceptibility to face a loss of functionality) due to the COVID-19 pandemic because of government restrictions, sector-specific factors and macro-economic changes. These included working from home capacity, social distancing, essential businesses allowed to remain operating and as defined by government, macro-economic drivers, trade exposure, labour intensity and supply chain exposure. Each of these may have affected businesses, their leadership and operations, the ways in which work was performed and workplace relationships, that is, technically, commercially and socially (McGill et al. 2021).

At the organisational level, Zarghami (2021) reviewed the literature on the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on Australian businesses, including on people in business and their roles, collaboration, attitude and behaviour. Zarghami suggested a new style of leadership was required to change hierarchical forms of leadership and to develop intercultural competencies in order to improve communication and technological competencies and build interdependencies between organisational capital, corporate social responsibility and organisational resilience. Collaboration between stakeholders was noted as important to recovery as was the appreciation of employees' mental health, innovativeness during isolation and personal growth. In addition, from the perspective of businesses, Zarghami found that innovation was a crucial requirement to ensure that businesses thrived during the pandemic and is presumably still crucial. Confirming this finding, McGill et al. (2021) found that in hospitality businesses, innovation was key to surviving during lockdowns and continued to be post lockdowns. A Jones et al. (2021) found that the pandemic provided the opportunity to turn a negative disruption into positive change and outcomes, which

include a different style of leadership (transformational), greater collaboration and equity, and effective communication structures.

Furthermore, Watson-Manheim, Chudoba and Crowston (2012) proposed that at the individual level, an actor who encounters a discontinuity will be ‘triggered’ to move from a mode in which interactions and activities are expected and unremarkable, to a more attentive mode of thinking that may lead to changes in behaviour. They referred to this response to discontinuity as ‘cognitive switching’ and asserted that the new behaviours are embedded if the discontinuity is removed.

A term often used in conjunction with discontinuity in the literature is crisis. Zacher and Rudolph (2022) defined crisis as ‘a time of discontinuity and change with three key components – threat, uncertainty and urgency’ (p. 7) and referenced the COVID-19 pandemic as an example. They also examined theories regarding employee experiences and behaviour in times of crises and found that discontinuity was a key factor in two such theories: event systems theory and the crisis management – resilience framework. Event systems theory explains crises through the nature and consequences of events over time and across levels from the individual to the societal (Morgeson, Mitchell & Liu 2015). Zacher and Rudolph (2022) suggested that this theory is appropriate in investigating employee experiences and behaviour during crisis events such as the COVID-19 pandemic. The crisis management – resilience framework proposes that a crisis is both a process and a single event with its intention being to restore equilibrium through acts of prevention and recovery (Williams, TA et al. 2017).

For the organisation, a crisis has been viewed as a low-probability, high-impact situation perceived to threaten its viability. Further, specific styles of leadership (e.g. agile leadership) are suitable in certain types of crises (Edmondson 2021). In addition, for leaders, prior relationships play an important role in meaning making for their stakeholders, engagement with all stakeholders is critical, leaders need appropriate crisis management skills and wilful ignorance by a leader could trigger disruption, in both usual and crisis situations. Furthermore, McGill et al. (2021) observed that the pandemic revealed the criticality, yet lack, of capable leaders who could effectively manage increasingly complex internal and external environments.

Roulet and Bothello (2022), who examined the disruption caused by an event chain (rather than a single event) suggested four psychological ‘micro-level experiences’—stagnation, disorientation, polarisation and repudiation—that have macro-level (‘trickle-up’) effects at the political, economic and cultural level. They proposed that ‘stagnation stems from a failure to acknowledge the incremental nature of the growing event chain, while disorientation is the inability to handle intervals between events. The third experience, polarisation results from the intersection of an event chain with another, while the fourth and final experience of repudiation develops from the irregularity of events’ (p. 783). More specifically, they pointed out that imperceptible changes (in the stagnation phase) result in complacency and then passivity in response to an impending crisis, paralysing individuals and particularly leaders, which may explain the lack of adaptation to changed operating circumstances.

Fors Brandebo (2021) found a strong association between ‘destructive leadership’ in usual and crisis circumstances and that both trust in a leader and subordinate performance are based on their established relationship. In other words, a crisis does not precipitate changed behaviour or relationships, which implies that everyday leadership matters the most. With regard to the current study, the implication is that times of discontinuity may have little impact on the relationship between LA and IWB. Nevertheless, the question that is not addressed is how the crisis, or discontinuity, affects leader behaviour and performance. In an earlier study, Fors Brandebo (2020) found that destructive leader behaviours in a crisis are either task or relationship based and manifest as being over-controlling (not involving others), egocentricity, lack of decisiveness, avoiding responsibility, ambiguity in communication and information, threatening or punishing, and not showing respect and understanding for others. However, whether these are interpreted as destructive or constructive is related to the expectations about the leader in the specific context. Further, TA Williams et al. (2017) observed that building resilience is perceived as a positive and beneficial response to crisis, but has a potential disadvantage in that it may also be associated with leaders having overly positive self-concepts and engaging in self-enhancing behaviours that can be incompatible with the honest acknowledgement of failure and learning, all of which are also observed in arrogance.

Morais, Kakabadse and Kakabadse (2020) proposed two types of discontinuous change on examining how discontinuous change events influence board leadership. The first is ‘tame’

problems that involve technological and macro-economic issues, and the second is ‘wicked’ problems that involve reputational and/or financial/systemic issues as well as uncertainty and complex interdependencies. In their view, discontinuous change refers to ‘rapid, revolutionary, and frame-breaking change that disrupts existing cultures, structures, and processes, and requires fundamental shifts in order for the business to stay competitive and survive’ (Morais, Kakabadse & Kakabadse 2020, p. 1). That is, discontinuous change is accompanied by large-scale disruption, which requires urgent responses to ensure survival, reflecting a desire to return to a state of equilibrium (Anton et al. 2020). Supporting the point already made in this section that certain crises require a specific type of leader (Fors Brandebo 2020), it was found that ‘wicked’ problems required the intervention of the Chair in conjunction with the CEO, whereas ‘tame’ problems usually resulted in a new CEO being appointed.

These perspectives show that the key features of discontinuity (see Figure 4), including crises, appear to be that, first, discontinuity can be experienced at the global, national, governmental, organisational and individual levels. Second, the experience of discontinuity may be one of surprise, which involves a sense of threat, uncertainty and urgency, and has the potential to impact all parties. Third, subject to the degree of the discontinuity (as in the COVID-19 pandemic) government intervention, sector-specific factors and macro-economic changes can alter how business and work are performed and how people interact (particularly with leaders), and these effects can differ (Zarghami 2021). Fourth, how leaders respond to the discontinuity is crucial; for instance, acting with wilful ignorance raises issues of capability, and thus, matching capability with an appropriate leadership style is critical—the literature has suggested that an engaging and inclusive approach is effective (Williams, TA et al. 2017; Zacher & Rudolph 2022; Zarghami 2021). Fifth, the existing relationships between a leader and team members have a stronger influence on how they will respond to the circumstances of a discontinuity and to the leader, than the discontinuity conditions, but the interpretation of destructive leader behaviours is context driven. Sixth, discontinuity will be experienced as a factor of time and space that manifests as a gap and/or lack of coherence, and, in response, people will engage in cognitive switching (Watson-Manheim, Chudoba & Crowston 2012). Seventh, discontinuity is an opportunity to innovate.

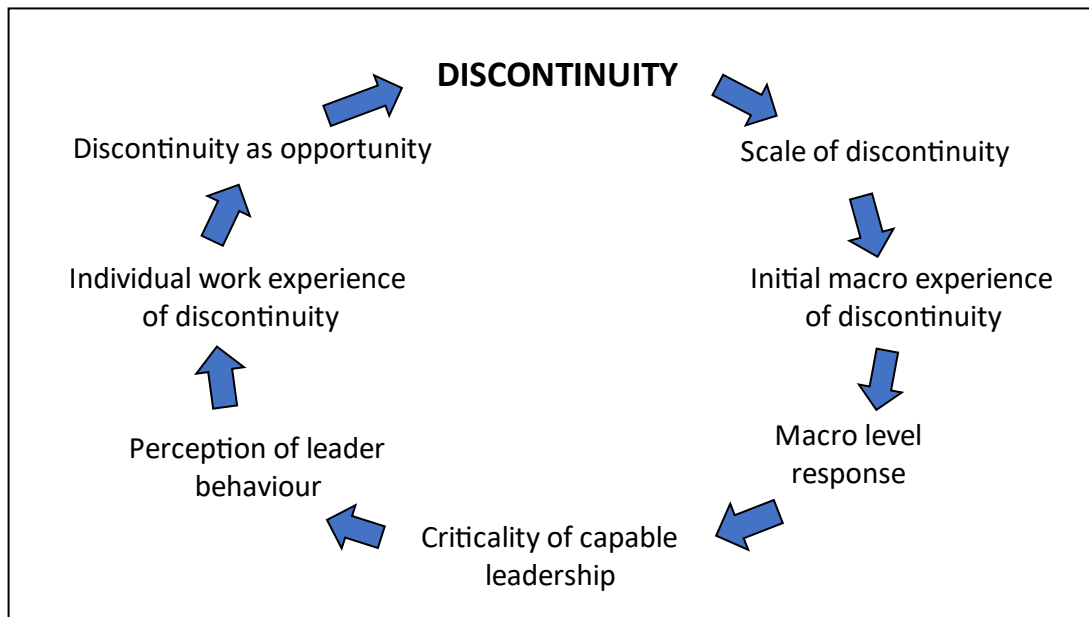


Figure 4. Discontinuity Cycle (Adapted from Watson-Manheim, Chudoba & Crowston 2012; Williams, TA et al. 2017; Zacher & Rudolph 2022; Zarghami 2021)

The question that arises for the current study is how a discontinuity context may affect IWB and LA.

2.10.1 Times of Discontinuity, and Innovative Work Behaviour

In attempting to better understand discontinuity as a concept in relation to IWB, this thesis has borrowed from the literature on scenario development, specifically from van Notten's (2005) research on scenario development in times of discontinuity, in which he defined discontinuity as 'a temporary or permanent, sometimes unexpected, break in a dominant condition in society caused by the interaction of events and long-term processes' (p. 55). He based this definition on discontinuity characteristics, which include its intrinsic difference from established social concepts, high impact, irreversibility, interconnection with certain events and long-term processes, a combination of physical and immaterial processes and dependence on the observer's perspective. He proposed ideas about discontinuity that are relevant to this study, which he termed 'surprise', 'wild card' and 'abrupt'. 'Surprise' equates to the unexpected; 'wild card', to having high impact; and 'abrupt', to the instantaneous break with the status quo.

In proposing the concept of ‘surprise’, van Notten (2005) drew from the environmental, anthropology and military science disciplines. ‘Surprise’ includes social, political and natural events that might be unexpected or predictable, as well as improbable or probable; for example, natural disasters, such as an earthquake, or human-constructed events, such as the energy crisis of the 1970s. He added that ‘surprise’ is strongly dependent upon the observer’s perception, and the context and time scale in which they observe it. ‘Wild card’ is a type of discontinuity known for its high impact, although van Notten (2005) did identify that it might also include one-off events, catalytic developments and discontinuities with unintended consequences. The concept of ‘abrupt’ arises from examining the speed of change, that is, whether a change occurs like a jolt or whether it is incremental—an example of abruptness could be an economic crisis, such as the 2007–2009 Global Financial Crisis.

In reviewing the period to which the term ‘times of discontinuity’ is applicable, significant global events since the year 2000 were considered in this study. These include the 9/11 terrorist attacks on the US and the subsequent attacks in Spain and Bali; the US response in the Middle East to the 9/11 attacks; the 2004 Indian Ocean earthquake and tsunamis; the 2011 Japanese earthquake and tsunami that destroyed the Fukushima nuclear plant; the 2007–2009 Global Financial Crisis, which is considered to be the most devastating financial crisis since the Great Depression (Greenbaum, Thakor & Boot 2015); Brexit, that is, the withdrawal of the United Kingdom (UK) from the European Union; and the recent COVID-19 pandemic that has caused substantial worldwide economic, business, health, government, social and community dislocation since 2020 (Haleem, Javaid & Vaishya 2020; Hind 2022).

Of all these events, the COVID-19 pandemic would appear to meet van Notten’s (2005) threshold for being unexpected, with high impact and causing an instantaneous break with the status quo. It is proposed that the term ‘times of discontinuity’ for the purpose of refining the period for the IWB systematic literature review reflect the COVID-19 timeframe, namely, from 11 March 2020 to 5 May 2023 as declared by the World Health Organization (n.d.). Furthermore, given the substantial time taken to review academic literature, the acceptable dates for the inclusion of articles in the review are based on their submission, rather than acceptance, date.

2.10.2 Leadership, Leader Arrogance and Innovative Work Behaviour

Burke (2006) observed that arrogance is a factor in leadership failures. He stated that arrogance is reflected in leaders overestimating their company's dominance, feeling they have all the answers, not listening to subordinates, removing employees who do not back them completely, underestimating their rivals and having a felt need to be right. Such behaviour is reflected in the corporate collapses of Kodak, Blackberry and Blockbuster that had cultures of arrogance at the top level, which led to poor strategic decisions (Nasser 2018). In particular, the case of Kodak is interesting for it ignored the advent of the digital camera despite having invented the technology for it in the 1970s, only for that to be rejected by its senior executives.

Conversely, Steve Jobs (as stated in Section 1.1) was renowned for his arrogance (Aley 2011; Isaacson 2011; Valentine 2014) yet enjoyed significant business success and had people wanting to work with him because of his passion and ability to bring the best out in them (Bariso 2016). Continuing this idea of 'beneficial' arrogance, Zibarras, Port and Woods (2008) found that arrogance is positively related to self-reported innovative characteristics and that mid-range scores of the 'arrogant' dimension include 'socially confident and energetic behaviours' (p. 211).

However, there appears to be a gap in the literature regarding how LA influences the innovative behaviour of those at any level of an organisation, which is what the current study is designed to examine.

2.11 Theory That Informs This Study

In choosing a theory that can effectively underpin and explain the content, detail and depth of this study, it is first necessary to understand its purpose. In essence, the study aims to investigate the influence of LA on employee IWB within a volatile social and business environment and whether there is a relationship between the two.

On its own, this presents as a somewhat narrow view—that is, to understand the impact of someone's behaviour on another requires an understanding of all potential contributing factors listed next. Without taking these into account, the understanding of any effect of workplace LA on the behaviour of others would be incomplete. These factors include:

1. the trigger for the leader's behaviour
2. whether that trigger was overt or covert, and if the latter, what that could be
3. the way in which the leader might have perceived that trigger and formed the subsequent response (the behaviour)
4. whether this behaviour by the leader was usual or unusual
5. the workplace context in which the behaviour occurred
6. the types of relationships between those working within that workplace
7. the observer's/recipient's perceptions about the leader's behaviour
8. factors contributing to that perception
9. the basis for the response formed by the observer/recipient
10. the relationship between the leader's and observer's attributions, and at what point do they agree/disagree
11. the likely contribution of these factors to the potential impact on employee innovative behaviour
12. the target of the behaviour.

This could be illustrated as shown in Figure 5.

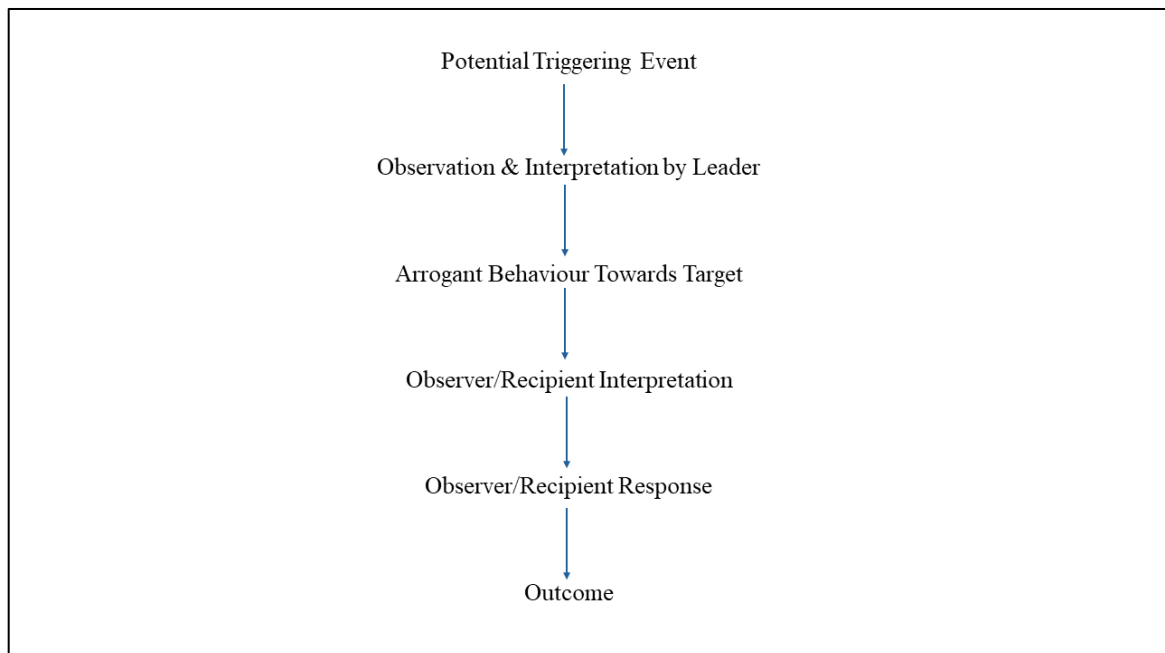


Figure 5. Leader – Recipient/Observer Interaction

A range of theories may provide insight and explanation about what has occurred in the above interaction, including social exchange theory, self-esteem theory, values theory, social cognitive theory of personality, social information processing theory and self-efficacy theory. However, the most appropriate theory appears to be attribution theory.

Attribution theory comprises a number of different theories (Muschetto & Siegel 2021) about attribution as applied to different settings and contexts, rather than a single theory. Its central tenet is that people seek to make sense of their environment and their experiences by assigning cause, which is designed to help them exercise control over their lives and predict the future and the factors that they consider are their successes and failures. It is generally accepted (Eberly et al. 2011; Harvey et al. 2014) that the seminal research on attribution theory was undertaken by Heider (1958), EE Jones and Davis (1965), Kelley (1973) and Weiner (1986). Significantly, Martinko and Thomson (1998), Harvey, Madison et al (2014) and Eberly et al. (2011) suggested that Kelley's and Weiner's studies have had the most influence in the development of attribution theory.

Kelley (1973) discussed the types of information people use to make attributions, that is, whether the information is consistent, whether there is consensus among groups of people about it and whether it is unique. Together, these three factors determine whether one's attributions are internal or external, stable or unstable and global or specific.

However, Weiner (1986) examined the consequences of those attributions in the context of achievement: success and failure. He considered the locus of causality (internal or external), stability and controllability as the determining factors in how a person would feel and respond to an 'event'. Specifically, if an individual feels personally responsible for a recent success (an internal attribution) and think that a certain repeatable behaviour is connected to it, then they would expect success each time they engage in it (a stable attribution). Further, those attributions are linked to certain emotions that, in turn, connect to specific behavioural responses. For example, controllability could result in anger/pity or shame/guilt, and in the case of anger, could produce negative behaviours, such as reprimand, condemnation, neglect or retaliation, which are consistent with many behaviours identified in the current literature review, such as diminishment, belittlement, disparagement, humiliation, oppression and rejection.

To date, attribution theory has not been used in the academic literature to understand or explain arrogance or arrogant leader behaviour at work. Nevertheless, Harvey and Martinko (2009) have demonstrated a possible pathway in which the arrogant leader's sense of superiority reinforces their positive self-view by attributing negative events or failure to external factors, namely, blaming others, which maintains this leader's sense of superiority.

Harvey and Martinko (2009) examined the role of attributions in psychological entitlement and its impact on turnover intention, job satisfaction and conflict with the supervisor. They observed that the literature had identified a relationship between narcissism and self-serving attributions in which negative outcomes are attributed to external factors and positive ones, internally to the individual. In noting that entitlement is a sub-dimension of narcissism, they explored whether entitlement alone produces self-serving attributions. Importantly, they observed that 'entitled' individuals do not accept information that is inconsistent with their positive self-image and will distort perceptions of themselves to maintain their own view. They achieve this goal by attributing negative events to external factors—a perceptual distortion that protects their ego—but such attribution results in the individual's failure to accept responsibility, which also protects their self-image. They found that self-serving attribution styles (stable attributions over time and across situations) (Cutrona, Russell & Jones 1984, cited in Harvey & Martinko 2009) are related to lower job satisfaction and increased levels of conflict with supervisors.

Likewise, Emmons (1984) found arrogance to be a sub-dimension of narcissism. Using the above rationale, it is reasonable to propose that arrogance may also have a relationship with self-serving attributions such that negative outcomes are attributed to external factors in order to protect the person's self-image, which manifests in the refusal to accept blame for those outcomes (Harvey & Martinko 2009). However, positive outcomes are suggested to lead individuals to focus on causal information that reinforces a positive self-view, namely, an internal attribution. Nevertheless, there is no evidence that arrogance has been examined in the same way that Harvey and Martinko (2009) studied the relationship of psychological entitlement with workplace outcomes, but the literature review has revealed adverse outcomes of workplace arrogance and LA for the arrogant actor, the intended target and observer(s), as well as costs to businesses.

Last, attribution theory might also explain the perspectives that Dillon (2007) and Tanesini (2018) held in explaining the origins of arrogant behaviour, namely, that the actor has low

self-esteem with a poor sense of self-worth, which arrogant behaviour addresses. Diminishing another's achievement (an act of arrogance) might be intended to protect the actor's self-esteem but could also be an act of superiority, that is, by diminishing another's achievement the actor's own achievements in consequence, are raised above the others. An act of superiority is communicating to another person that you (the actor) are better (Tanesini 2018). Moreover, attribution theory suggests that conveying a message of achievement is akin to asserting one is better than others (superiority) as it tells others that success derives from the actor and that this is a stable condition, that is, repeatable (Hareli & Weiner 2000). Next, a brief discussion on other theories used in the related literature is presented.

Other Theories

Social cognitive theory of personality is a 'blend' of the theories of Bandura (2001), Mischel (2004) and Rotter (1966), and it suggests the development of personality is the consequence of cognitive processes, such as thinking and judging, namely, how a person thinks and reacts in social situations. It suggests that personality may also be the result of imitating admired others. It has similarities with attribution theory in that it includes Rotter's locus of control that explains how people perceive control over their lives, namely, internal, in which they accept responsibility for what they do, and external, which reflects that forces outside their control determine what happens to them. However, there appears to be little research into explaining dysfunctional behaviour.

According to Baumeister and Vohs (2007), social exchange theory attempts to explain how people form, maintain and terminate social relationships. It operates on the idea that within those relationships, people seek to maximise their rewards and minimise their costs. Essentially, it deals with the exchange of tangible goods and services that may be inputs or outcomes of the relationship, such as payment for work. The principle is that people will want to ensure there is balance in the exchange and relationship, which might include how an organisation's people systems treat someone—for instance, distributive justice. However, it is limited as it does not address antecedents to an individual's behaviour, such as entitlement, and hence cannot be expected to adequately explain what may have preceded or followed arrogant leader behaviour.

Self-esteem theory, similarly to attribution theory, is a collection of theories rather than a single concept. Self-esteem has been associated with self-worth (Cowan et al. 2019; Dillon 2019; Johnson, RE et al. 2010; Padua et al. 2010; Tanesini 2018) and has been proposed as a compensatory mechanism to protect or build the individual's self-worth, and thus self-esteem (Dillon 2003), or to act as a façade in order to mask incompetence or unfavourable self-evaluations (Johnson, RE et al. 2010). Hence, self-esteem, as an antecedent, likely accounts for arrogant behaviour, but to date, studies that have supported this idea, or investigated how self-esteem theory might explain its consequences, are scarce.

Values theory is often discussed in the academic literature using the theory of basic individual values proposed by Schwartz et al. (2012). This theory has 10 individual values organised into two orthogonal dimensions: self-transcendence versus self-enhancement, and openness to change versus conservation. This theory helps explain individual decision-making, attitudes and behaviour, in the experience of people interacting in everyday life. However, it does not advise how this happens.

Self-efficacy theory refers to an individual's belief to produce desired results. It is based on Bandura's article, 'Self-Efficacy: Toward a Unifying Theory of Behavior Change' (1978), which proposed a theory of self-efficacy as perceived competence and explained its influence on human behaviour. The principle of the theory is that people will engage in activities in which they are highly competent and avoid those in which they are not. However, there is little research explaining the link between self-efficacy and specific behaviours, such as arrogance.

Social information processing theory (Salancik & Pfeffer 1978) is based on learning about behaviour by observing the informational and social environment in which people operate. Individuals use cues in the social environment to interpret events, which also informs them about the attitudes and opinions that may be appropriate to a particular situation. This theory appears to have been used as a predictive model to provide insights for future interactions and not necessarily a review of past actions.

2.12 Conceptual Framework

The purpose of a conceptual framework is to situate a study by drawing on current knowledge and theories, and it must outline the main ideas and relationships under study

(Green 2014; Rocco & Plakhotnik 2009). It ‘describes the state of known knowledge, usually through a literature review; (2) identifies gaps in our understanding of a phenomenon or problem; and (3) outlines the methodological underpinnings of the research project’ (Varpio et al. 2020, p. 990).

This study’s conceptual framework rests on the findings from the systematic literature reviews of LA and IWB. For LA, there was a demonstrated relationship, beginning with antecedents to behaviours and then outcomes. Significantly, while numerous IWB studies have tested a range of antecedents, few have examined the behaviours and outcomes from them.

Leader behaviour is preceded and triggered by factors that may be context (organisational) or individually (personality) driven and reflect a particular style of leadership. Arrogant behaviour, as with empathic behaviour, by a leader is one of many acts that form part of their actions and type of leadership. The conceptual framework captures this view and provides the important observation that leaders’ actions and the resulting outcomes contribute to the perception of their leadership. Further, their leadership also contributes to creating—if not creates—the climate and culture of a workplace and the way a business is organised to achieve its goals (Macdonald, Burke & Stewart 2018).

Figure 6 demonstrates this finding by showing a direct connection between LA antecedents and behaviours that contribute directly to perceived leadership, as do outcomes from those behaviours. This implies that LA is an aspect of leader behaviour and is reflected in the leadership style and the leader’s characteristics. The connection from leadership to IWB antecedents is through the literature that demonstrates leadership style influences the organisational environment and other IWB antecedents (Alblooshi, Shamsuzzaman & Haridy 2020; Knezovic & Drkic 2021; Lakshman & Rai 2019; Muchiri et al. 2020; Scott, D & McMurray 2021; Scott, SG & Bruce 1994; Strobl et al. 2019; Zhong, J, Li & Luo 2021). The framework proposes that the LA–IWB relationship (displayed within the red boundary), in turn, affects IWB behaviours and then outcomes. There is currently little, if any, evidence to explain this relationship.

The underlying issue revealed through the literature is that arrogant leader behaviour is presumed to have a harmful effect on people and businesses, and it constrains, rather than engenders, innovative behaviour. This framework will provide the foundation for testing

that assumption and add to the literature by its extrapolation. Of particular interest is whether LA has a positive relationship with IWB, and if so, how that occurs, which is a relationship not yet addressed in the literature.

In sum, the gaps in the literature are that it has not identified the relationships between LA and IWB antecedents, such as leadership style, leader characteristics, organisation factors, and IWB behaviours and outcomes.

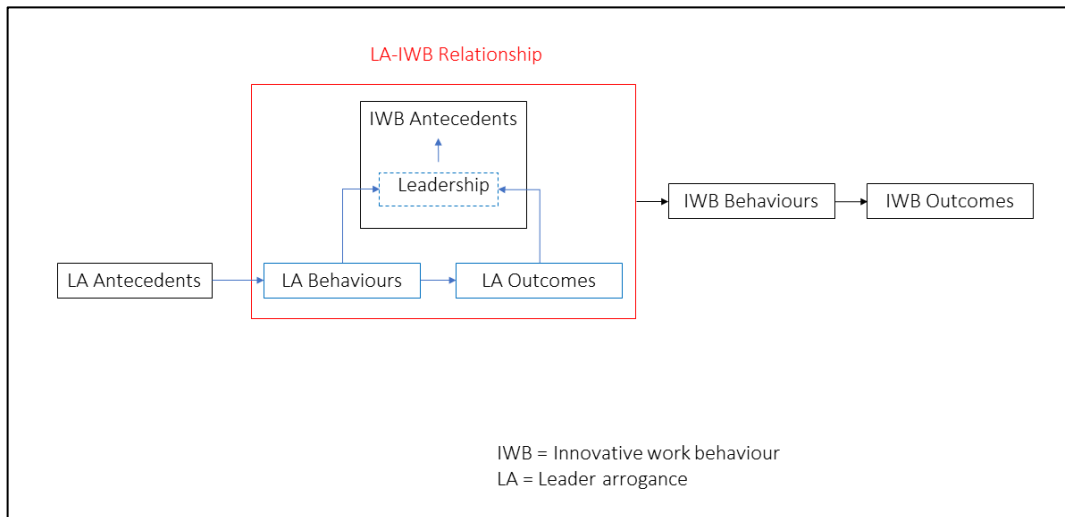


Figure 6. Conceptual Framework

Attribution theory, as suggested in Section 2.11, is able to explain arrogant behaviour in different ways—first, through conveying achievement and thus superiority (Hareli & Weiner 2000), second through assigning positive outcomes to the actor and negative ones to others, that is, blame (Harvey & Martinko 2009), and third, through correspondence between the arrogant act and the actor, indicating intentionality (Jones, EE & Davis 1965). Of these different theories, those regarding conveying achievement and assigning negative outcomes to external factors are consistent with the findings in the LA literature about antecedents and behaviour. Thus, it may be possible to discern intentionality, depending on the research design.

2.13 Research Question

The conceptual framework encapsulates a potential explanation for the impact of LA on employees and, in particular, on their engagement in IWB. The research question derived

from this is as follows: *‘In what way, if any, does leader arrogance have a relationship with innovative work behaviour in times of discontinuity?’* The purpose of framing the question in ‘times of discontinuity’ is to recognise the context in which business has functioned in the past 25 years, but more so during the pandemic years of 2020-2023.

To answer the research question accurately, there first needs to be clarity about the meaning of ‘relationship’. The *APA Dictionary of Psychology* (2020) defines a relationship as ‘an association or connection between objects, events, variables, or other phenomena’. This study considers two factors, LA and IWB, but there are numerous sub-elements to both factors, and these will be considered during the data extraction and collection phases.

2.14 Conclusion

This chapter examined the theories on arrogance, LA, leadership, work, IWB and discontinuity in the literature to provide a foundation for investigating potential relationships and for informing the research question. It reviewed attribution theory to explain relationships and proposed a conceptual framework that guides the following chapters on the methodology and analyses employed in this study.

The next chapter details the study research methodology and use of the systematic literature review as a method to inform construction of the study’s measuring instrument, the data analysis frameworks. The pilot study is reviewed, and the final form of the data analysis frameworks detailed.

Chapter 3: Research Methodology

3.1 Introduction

This chapter introduces the research paradigm in Section 3.2; Section 2.3 reviews the research approach; Section 3.4 introduces the research design; Section 3.5 discusses methods used; Section 3.6 outlines the data extraction process that informs the preliminary data analysis frameworks; Section 3.7 encompasses the pilot study and Section 3.8 explains the final version of the data analysis frameworks. Section 3.9 summarises the methodology and methods.

3.2 Research Paradigm

The philosophical paradigm proposed for this study is constructivism (Creswell 2018) as it relies on understanding the individual and subjective experience of human behaviour to answer the research question. It will be argued that this approach is the only one that can effectively capture the truthfulness of a potential relationship between LA and IWB. It is in the interaction between people and the nuances of their engagement that relevant data are revealed. Furthermore, given the limited nature of research into arrogance, workplace arrogance and LA, an in-depth investigation using qualitative techniques is best placed to answer the research question.

The constructivist paradigm proposes that human beings try to make sense of the situation they are in and that social phenomena are the result of their interpretation or meaning making. Studies using a postpositivist view (Creswell 2018) would seek explanations through verifying hypotheses via empirical observation and measurement, whereas those using a constructivist approach would seek understanding and participant meaning through individual perception and reconstruction. Understanding and meaning cannot be 'measured' via quantitative research methods, and here is where the qualitative research has its place. These more or less contrasting paradigms have major implications for this study's research approach.

3.3 Research Approach

To begin, the research question is aimed at determining whether there is a relationship between LA and IWB, in order to make informed decisions about LA that may, or may not, inhibit or facilitate behaviour contributing to organisational sustainability and growth.

Nevertheless, first, a review of arrogance and innovation work behaviour is necessary to provide context. The related literature has revealed that arrogance has multiple dimensions. Anecdotally, arrogance is an ordinary and common word frequently used in day-to-day life to describe behaviour that many people find unacceptable (Silverman et al. 2012). Yet, when trying to clarify its precise meaning, a range of terms are used, such as superior, self-important, self-focused, entitled, better than others, belittle, disparage, pride, hubris, overconfidence and narcissism (Emmons 1984; Johnson, RE et al. 2010; Silverman et al. 2012; Tiberius & Walker 1998; Tracy & Prehn 2012). This wide range reflects a further issue with studying arrogance, namely, that it can be confused with similar constructs as a factor, outcome and/or correlate of, and with, them. It can be both episodic (state) and/or a feature of a person's character (trait), that is, it can be triggered by the context or by an aspect of personality. There are different types of arrogance, such as primary arrogance, intellectual arrogance, institutional arrogance and interpersonal arrogance (Dillon 2003; Fetterman, Robinson & Gilbertson 2014; Haan, Britt & Weinstein 2007; Meagher et al. 2015). Although it is usually accepted as being a negative term (Cowan et al. 2019; Silverman et al. 2012; Tanesini 2018), in certain circumstances, it may have a positive impact (Senyuz & Hasford 2022; Tanesini 2018; Zibarras, Port & Woods 2008). This discussion demonstrates the various factors involved in understanding arrogance—its breadth of meaning; its likeness, yet confusion, with correlates; its different types and effects; and its triggers.

Regarding IWB, there appears to be some consistency in the literature (Muchiri et al. 2020) that it comprises the stages in which ideas are generated, promoted and realised, and that the aspects that have the greatest impact on it are the organisation's leadership, culture, environment and systems (Scott, D & McMurray 2021).

Few studies have considered LA from a quantitative perspective. One such seminal study on workplace arrogance is that by RE Johnson et al. (2010), who developed a 26-item measure of workplace arrogance, namely, the Workplace Arrogance Scale. The first 10

items of their scale require the respondent (the arrogant person) to agree that they engage in behaviours such as belittlement, criticism, power grabbing, making unrealistic demands and not listening. This reveals an inherent problem with the quantitative approach to arrogance: From whom is data to be collected? If from those in leadership roles, then it requires leaders to self-identify/rate their arrogant behaviour, which requires a level of self-awareness that an arrogant person does not necessarily have; that is, they would not necessarily perceive or interpret their actions as disparaging or denigrating another (Cowan et al. 2019; Johnson, RE et al. 2010). Second, even if they are self-aware, would an arrogant leader admit to engaging in behaviours that could undermine their leadership and create negative self-esteem? This raises the potential for social desirability bias (Grimm 2011)—in this case, the respondent preferring to mask their true thoughts or feelings with responses that create an impression of not being arrogant.

To take Grimm's (2011) social desirability bias point further, in their study RE Johnson et al. (2010) reported correlations of $r = -0.31$ and -0.24 (drawn from two discrete populations) between arrogance and social desirability, which they viewed as small or reflecting minor relationships. This view is arguable as there would appear to be at least a moderate negative relationship, which implies that respondents may have perceived arrogance as an undesirable trait and responded accordingly. The authors concluded that arrogance is weakly related to social desirability, which provided 'encouragement for the usefulness of collecting self-ratings' (Johnson, RE et al. 2010, p. 422), although, 'usefulness' in this context may suggest a degree of uncertainty. It was also argued that these correlations were not too different from that of other personality constructs, such as dominance and anger, but this is not an argument for there being no social desirability impact.

In contrast, the people who may be best placed to judge arrogance are those on the receiving end of it as recipients or observers. RE Johnson et al. (2010) also used dyadic sources in their study ('team members – leaders' and 'leaders – peers'), and the correlations ranged from $r = 0.23$ to 0.45 between non-self-sources, which was only slightly better than that for 'self-report/other report' measures ($r = 0.13$ to 0.35), indicating the difficulty in capturing data that truly reflect reality. The last point to be made is that although non-self-sources showed a low level of social desirability bias in student and employee sample populations ($r = -.31$ and $-.24$), the problem remains that when testing the views of

populations about known leaders, data will be compromised owing to the relationship between leader and peer or team member. Although RE Johnson et al. (2010) did not address this issue, Cowan et al. (2019) identified the difficulty of having an arrogant person faithfully report on their arrogance, and the problem of bringing ‘real-world issues into the laboratory’ (p. 438). Moreover, Kumar, Kang and Chand (2022) observed in their study on LA and knowledge-hiding behaviour that future research should use qualitative techniques such as face-to-face interviews or observational studies.

Similarly, Milyavsky et al. (2017) also remarked on the limitations of quantitative techniques in their study on the relationship of arrogance with expertise, outcome and manner. In their systematic review of leadership styles and organisational innovation, Alblooshi, Shamsuzzaman and Haridy (2020) raised the need for future leadership and innovation research to use a qualitative approach because most research to that point was quantitatively based. Notably, studies on workplace arrogance since 2000 have predominantly been quantitative, and apart from RE Johnson et al.’s (2010) study and Cowan et al.’s (2019) conceptual article, little has been added to the knowledge about the construct. Thus, a qualitative review of LA is yet to be undertaken, a gap this research will fill.

Further, RE Johnson et al. (2010) did not address whether the behaviours in their scale occur only in a given context or are an aspect of an individual’s character. This differentiation is important for knowing what may need to be addressed. For instance, an organisation’s response to disparaging behaviour by a leader to a team member may differ when the behaviour is triggered by something in the workplace, from its response when it is an issue of character. Thus, the question that remains is whether survey responses provide a truthful reflection of arrogant behaviour in its entirety and multiplicity, which, in turn, raises questions about the ability of a quantitative approach to capture the quantum and quality of data necessary to answer the research question and to be able to do this without bias. In essence, arrogant behaviour is not a narrow construct that can be adequately captured by the completion of a questionnaire or survey.

A qualitative approach would seek evidence for a relationship by using both past and present data, which would reflect the breadth and depth of human behaviours and events (Sandelowski 1999). It should discern themes from human interaction that explain how one behaviour influences another and would be expected to embrace a greater volume of data

that are more diverse, drawn from a period of time rather than single data point and connected to real-world and life events rather than being revealed through a construction. In other words, this approach is designed to reveal the complexity of human interaction, the meaning people ascribe to it, in this case arrogance, and the depth of behaviour especially when that behaviour reflects character. For the person on the receiving end of ‘arrogant behaviour’, this experience is deeply personal and their feelings about it may differ from those of others, such as whether they feel offended or not. Arrogance is a social process occurring through the eyes of the recipient/observer despite originating from an actor and may be best viewed through that lens.

Thus, a truthful reflection (Cutcliffe & McKenna 2002, p. 617) of arrogant behaviour that can provide new insights and conclusions is through a qualitative approach, and multi-methods are suggested as the most effective way to access the necessary data, in this case, documentary analysis involving the use of systematic literature reviews and document analysis. Data will be drawn from cases that provide real-life evidence of both LA and IWBs, as in the example presented in Section 1.1 about Steve Jobs and the people who followed him to NeXT because he was considered to bring the best out of them. A quantitative approach is less likely to reveal these data or a positive LA–IWB relationship.

The systematic literature review has the advantages of investigating LA and IWB from a theoretical perspective and of potentially demonstrating findings from similar constructs, such as Norouzinik et al.’s (2021) investigation into narcissistic leadership and employee innovative behaviours. This review will also draw on multiple studies and papers, thereby accessing more data for analysis purposes.

A third approach is to combine both the qualitative and quantitative, reflecting a pragmatist perspective, but there must be a purpose for doing so. In simple terms, the qualitative approach reflects ‘the how’ and the quantitative ‘the what’, yet the intended consequence for this study is to understand the nature of a potential relationship and how that may have application in, and contribution to, the workplace and to extant knowledge about that relationship from a scholarly perspective.

Thus, a qualitative approach remains the optimal way to answer the research question and achieve truthfulness.

3.4 Research Design

Figure 7 illustrates the research processes underpinning the thesis.

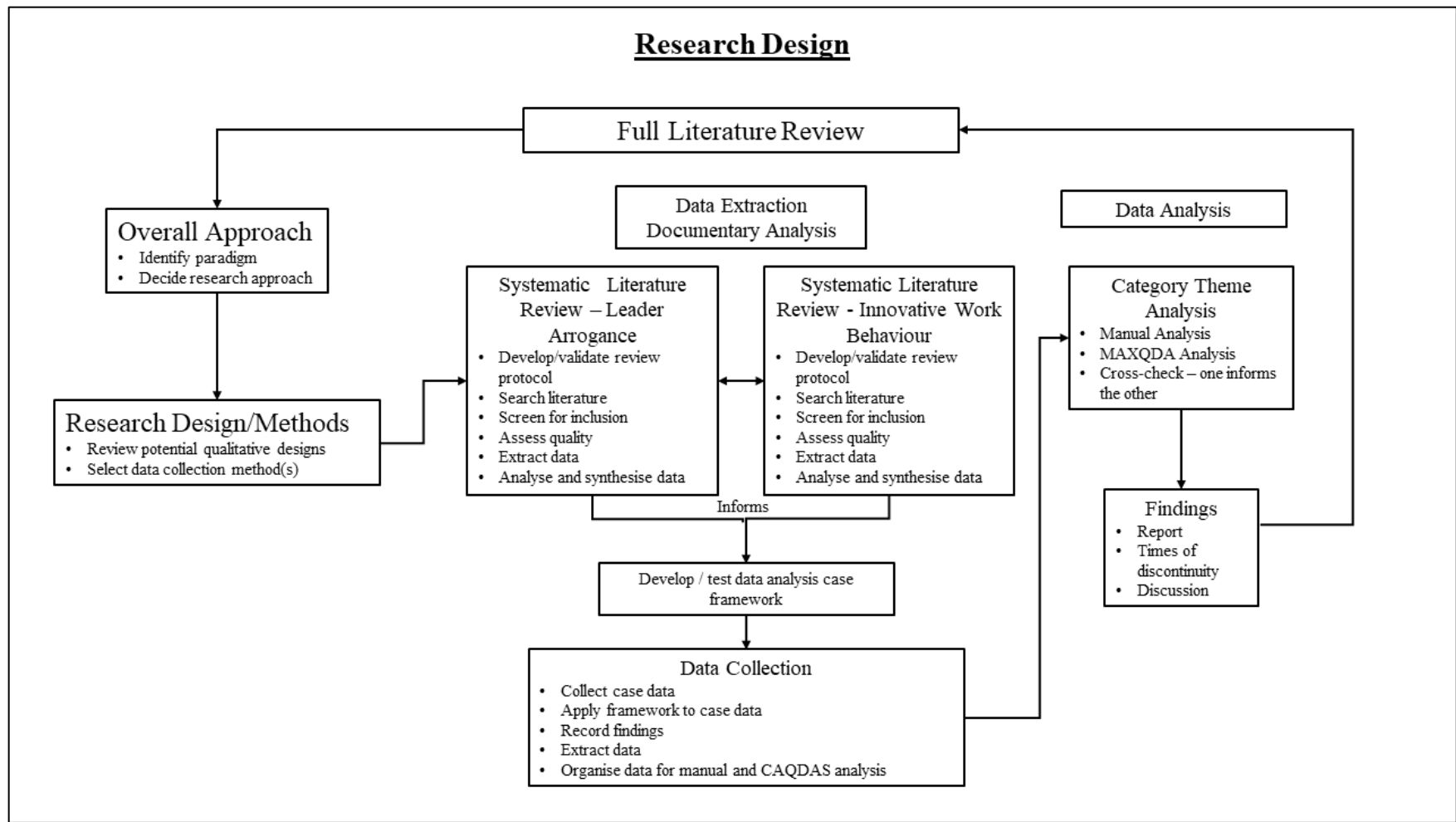


Figure 7. Research Design (Bowen 2009; Xiao & Watson 2019)

3.5 Research Methods

The constructivist research paradigm and the qualitative research design drove the selection of the appropriate research method(s). Documentary analysis, as a research design, requires the researcher to systematically locate, interpret, understand, analyse and draw conclusions about evidence presented in the written and visual forms (Fitzgerald 2007; Gorsky & Mold 2020; Mogalakwe 2009; Omer et al. 2021; Payne & Payne 2004; Library & Learning Services 2018). In this study, it refers to the overarching approach adopted for the data collection methods that include the systematic literature review and document analysis. In the literature, documentary analysis is often confused with document analysis—the latter is the activity of collecting actual documents, such as ‘advertisements; agendas; attendance registers; minutes of meetings; manuals; background papers; books and brochures; diaries and journals ... letters and memoranda; maps and charts; newspapers ... program proposals; application forms and summaries ... organisational or institutional reports; survey data and various public records’ (Bowen 2009 p.27).

One of the issues with collecting data on arrogance, and in particular LA, is that (as has been argued earlier) self-reporting a negative behaviour inherently compromises the data, not to mention the ability of the actor to be aware of that behaviour and then attribute it to themselves (Cowan et al. 2019). Moreover, collecting data firsthand, such as through an ethnographic approach via interviews or observation, is not practical either as it would be difficult to rationalise one’s presence to those being observed and still expect arrogant behaviours to surface. It would also require a significant and impractical time commitment, given this study’s time constraints. This raises a question regarding the form of, or location where, evidence of LA and IWB might be found. A potential avenue is the records of past events, namely, documents.

Times of Discontinuity

Preliminary searches did not return results for LA, IWB and times of discontinuity. Hence, it was decided to seek documents and data relevant to LA and IWB, and after analysis, determine how ‘times of discontinuity’ would relate to the findings. This approach is discussed in Chapter 6.

3.6 Data Extraction

3.6.1 Systematic Literature Review

Systematic literature reviews are designed to synthesise and classify the literature, in order to reveal the breadth and depth of an existing body of work, disclose gaps in the literature, and identify literature supporting propositions in a study, key findings, advances in the field, different methodologies and methods, and opportunities for future research (Xiao & Watson 2019). In the current research, the purpose is that the synthesised data will form the framework (foundation) for application to case data (documents). The virtue of the systematic literature review is that it is an organised, contained and replicable literature search method that, when undertaken rigorously, can be relied on to find relevant content, but can be easily adjusted if required. Given the ever-expanding nature of literature, theories and constructs, it is a very useful way of synthesising a vast array of information (Siddaway, Wood & Hedges 2019), providing a foundation for theory construction and informing practice.

3.6.1.1 Review Protocol

The systematic literature review method used in this study is from Soni and Kodali's (2011) six-step process that was later adapted by Manoharan and Singal (2017, p. 79). The six steps utilised in the current review include setting a time horizon, selecting appropriate databases, developing the search strategy, defining inclusion/exclusion criteria, performing the search process, and extracting and analysing data.

The aforementioned literature review (see Chapter 2) investigated arrogance and LA across a range of disciplines and publications, and indicated that the study of both was sporadic over the review period, 2000–2024, whereas IWB appears to have been well researched over a similar period (Hughes et al. 2018; Muchiri et al. 2020; Scott, D & McMurray 2021; Scott, SG & Bruce 1994; Zibarras, Port & Woods 2008).

3.6.1.2 Time Horizon

The timeframe for the context of this study is 2000–2024, which was selected because of the increase in the literature on arrogance, workplace arrogance and IWB from the beginning of the 21st century. Notably, Hareli and Weiner's (2000) study, which according

to Google Scholar has been cited 166 times (accessed 20 April 2024) has been used to inform research into arrogance, workplace arrogance and LA (Aksoy & Çikmaz 2022; Cleary et al. 2015; Cowan et al. 2019; Demirbilek, Keser & Akpolat 2022; Haan, Britt & Weinstein 2007; Johnson, RE et al. 2010; Ruvio et al. 2020; Ruvio & Shoham 2016; Tracy & Prehn 2012). In addition, two studies by Janssen (2000, 2005), the first cited 4,160 times and the second 828 times (Google Scholar accessed 20 April 24), have been used to inform numerous studies that have developed the theory of IWB (Bos-Nehles, Renkema & Janssen 2017; de Jong & den Hartog 2010; De Spiegelaere & Van Gyes 2012; Ramamoorthy et al. 2005; Strobl et al. 2019; Tuominen & Toivonen 2011). Last, the selection of 2000 as the first year of the sample period seems apt in relation to discontinuity because of the term VUCA (volatile, uncertain, complex, and ambiguous) coined in the late 1990s (Lawrence 2013), and its introduction to describe an increasingly turbulent business environment.

3.6.1.3 Database Selection

Although scholars have recommended that searches be performed on at least two electronic databases (Siddaway, Wood & Hedges 2019) for conducting a systematic literature review, it was decided to access four databases because preliminary searches indicated minimal literature in the arrogance field. Hence, the PsycINFO, Scopus, ProQuest (Psychological Database) and EBSCOhost's Business Sources Complete databases were used.

3.6.1.4 Search Strategy

To ensure the quality and validity of a systematic literature review, the search strategy should meet two criteria: recall and precision (Salvador-Oliván, Marco-Cuenca & Arquero-Avilés 2019). It needs to incorporate appropriate terms, synonyms and descriptors, and combine search techniques in the 'free-text and controlled-language fields, truncating the terms appropriately to retrieve all their variants' (Salvador-Oliván, Marco-Cuenca & Arquero-Avilés 2019, p. 210). The strategy must also account for the different search procedures, requirements and functions of each database; for example, PsycINFO uses subject headings, whereas ProQuest does not. The search strategy was developed for testing in PsycINFO and was adapted to the requirements of each of the different databases, including the use of appropriate syntax.

3.6.1.5 *Leader Arrogance*

The search strategy concepts and terms were derived from an initial review of key articles on workplace arrogance and workplace LA (Borden, Levy & Silverman 2018; Cowan et al. 2019; Johnson, RE et al. 2010; Kumar, Kang & Chand 2022; Milyavsky et al. 2017; Silverman et al. 2012; Toscano, Price & Scheepers 2018). As discussed in Section 2.6, the reason for broadening the search terms to include workplace arrogance is that LA occurs in the context of a physical location, which implies it is inherent to, and not isolated from, the work of leadership and is hence included in the search terms. Four concept groups were created, and words were selected based on those articles including article keywords and relevant subject headings identified from PsycINFO.

3.6.1.5.1 Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

Inclusion criteria comprised peer-reviewed academic journal articles, literature reviews (systematic reviews and meta-analyses), empirical research (qualitative and quantitative), theoretical and conceptual articles, case studies and essays that examined or discussed LA as their purpose, outcome or application. Only English-language articles published between 2000 and 2024 were included. Grey literature, commentaries, blogs, newspaper and magazine articles, websites and social media content were excluded.

In essence, for inclusion, the answer to the following question had to be positive: ‘Does this paper discuss leader arrogance?’ Moreover, all such literature had to contribute to answering the research question and fit into the theoretical framework for the current study.

3.6.1.5.2 Search Process

Concept Group 1 – Leadership

(leader* or supervisor* or manag* or CEO or executive* or COO or CFO or ‘chief operating officer’ or ‘chief financial officer’ or foreman or boss*).

Concept Group 2 – Employee

(personnel* or worker* or employee* or labor* or labour* or job* or profession* or staff* or employe*).

Concept Group 3 – Place of Work

(organ[?]ation* or workplace* or business or ‘work environment’).

Concept Group 4 – Arrogance

(arrogant or overbearing or egocentri* or arrogance or domineering or disparag* or belittle* or denigrat* or haught* or ‘emotional superior*’); ((high or overblown or inflated) NEAR/1 (entitlement or ego or abilit* or worth or self-esteem)).

3.6.1.5.3 Search Process Results

As shown in Figure 8, the search process comprised four stages: (i) an initial database search, including the removal of duplicates (ii) a review of retrieved records for the terms ‘arrogance’ or ‘arrogant’, (iii) a scan of abstracts and articles of selected records for their use of the terms ‘arrogance’ and ‘arrogant’ and their relevance to this study and (iv) a full review of selected articles to determine whether they ‘talked’ to workplace arrogance and workplace LA. Through this process, 28 articles were identified. Forward and backward snowballing identified an additional 14 articles, leading to the selection of 42 articles in total for the review.

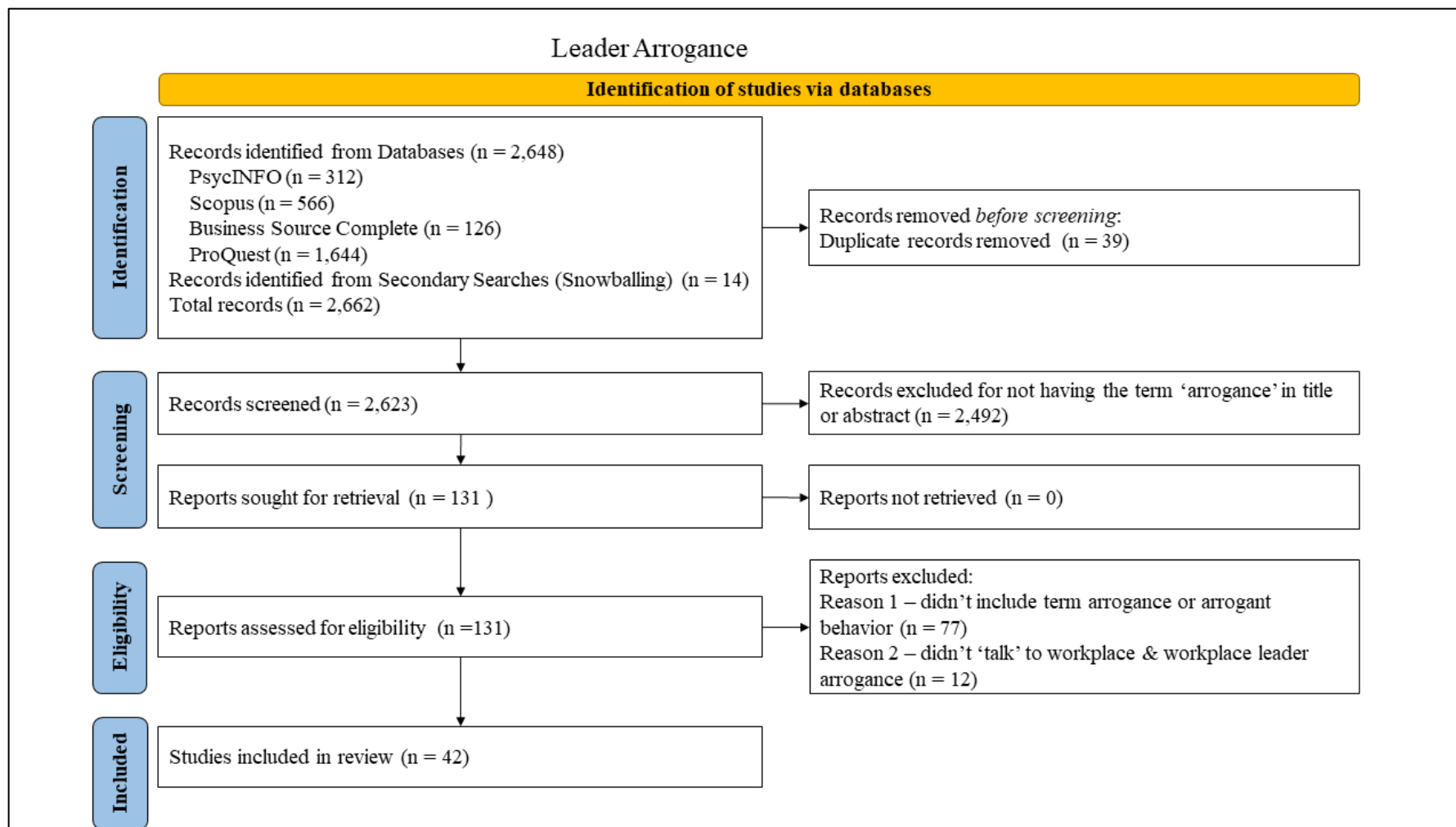


Figure 8. PRISMA: Leader Arrogance Search Process Results (Adapted from Page et al. 2021)

3.6.1.6 Innovative Work Behaviour

The concepts and terms for this search were confined to ‘innovative work behaviour’, the workplace and the employee, which reflected the requirements of the research question: innovative behaviour by employees in a place of work. By definition, this approach excludes the broader concept of innovation, which was not included in the search. This resulted in creating three concept groups representing IWB, the workplace and the employee.

3.6.1.6.1 Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

Only peer-reviewed academic journal articles were considered for the review, and thus, the inclusion criteria comprised scholarly articles, literature reviews (systematic reviews and meta-analyses), empirical research (qualitative and quantitative), theoretical and conceptual papers, case studies and essays that examined or discussed IWB as the purpose, outcome or application of the relevant research. Only articles in the English language published between 2000 and 2024 were included. As before, grey literature, commentaries, blogs, newspaper and magazine articles, websites and social media content were excluded.

As the study is about leadership behaviour, the IWB systematic literature review is contained to leadership and IWB, and hence, literature that did not examine leadership in terms of IWB was excluded.

3.6.1.6.2 Search Process

Concept Group 1 – IWB

(‘innovative work behavior’ or ‘innovative work behaviour’)

Concept Group 2 – Place of Work

(organi?ation* or workplace* or business or ‘work environment’)

Concept Group 3 – Employee

(personnel* or worker* or employee* or labor* or labour* or job* or profession* or staff* or employe*)

Concept Group 4 – Leadership

(leader* or supervisor* or manag* or CEO or executive* or COO or CFO or ‘chief operating officer’ or ‘chief financial officer’ or foreman or boss*).

3.6.1.6.3 Search Results

As shown in Figure 9, the search process comprised six stages: (i) an initial database search, (ii) a review of retrieved records for the terms ‘innovative work behaviour’, ‘employees’ and ‘workplace’, (iii) the removal of duplicates (iv) a scan of titles of selected records to identify relevance to the current study (v) the retrieval of relevant studies and (vi) the assessment of studies for eligibility on the basis of there being identifiable antecedents, behaviours or outcomes of/with ‘innovative work behaviour’; antecedents, behaviours or outcomes having a demonstrated, direct relationship with ‘innovative work behaviour’; submission for publication within the nominated COVID-19 pandemic period (11 March 2020 to 5 May 2023); and whether related to leadership. Through this process, 53 articles were identified.

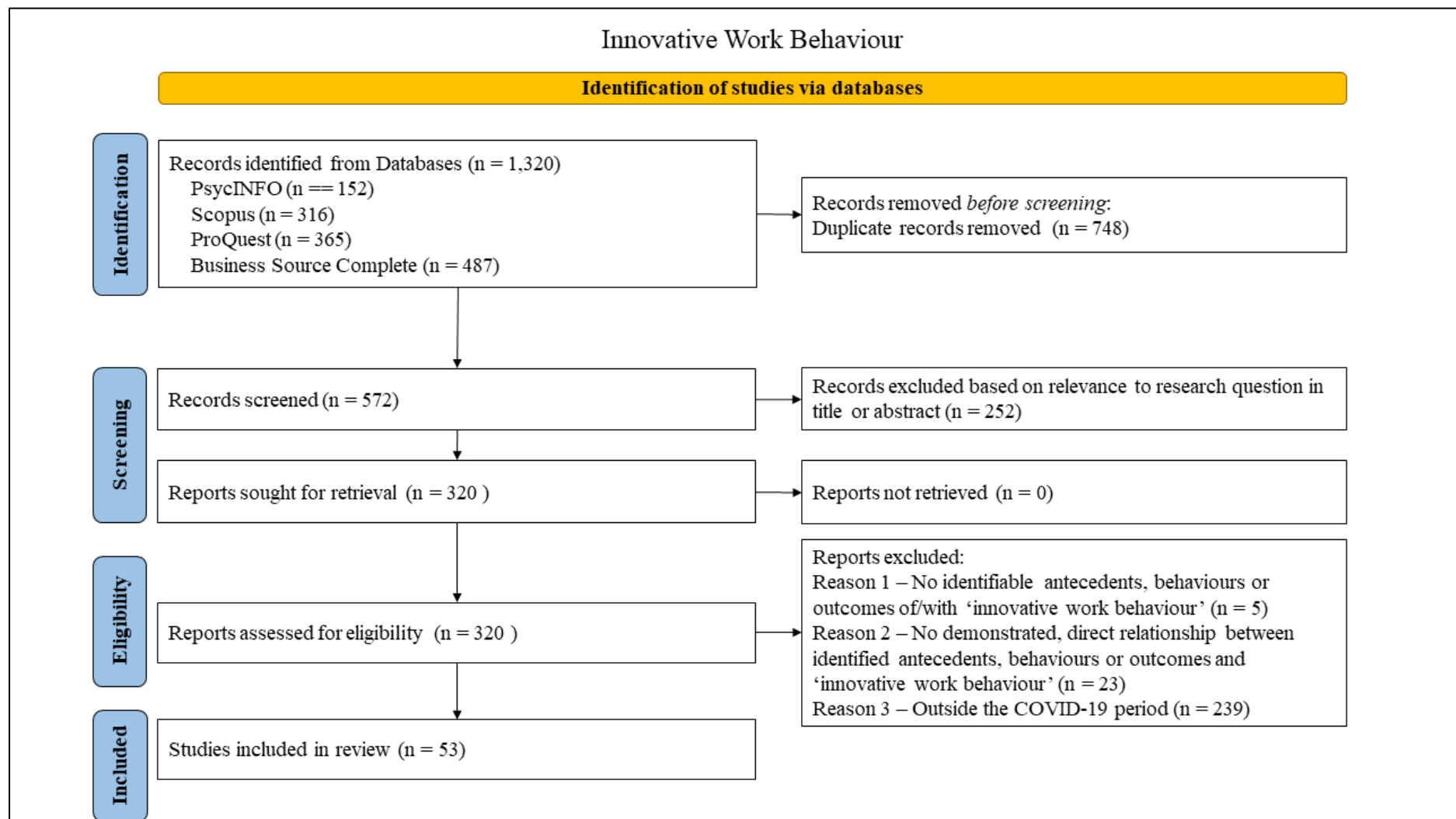


Figure 9. PRISMA: Innovative Work Behaviour Search Process Results (Adapted from Page et al. 2021)

3.6.2 Systematic Literature Review Findings

3.6.2.1 Leader Arrogance Findings

Of the 42 papers selected for this systematic review, only two were published in the same journal (*Organizational Dynamics*) and the remaining 38 were published in different academic journals. Twenty-seven studies were conducted in the US, three in the UK, two each in Australia, Malaysia and Pakistan, and one each in China, Fiji, Nigeria, Philippines, South Africa and Türkiye. The articles were drawn from the fields of business and management, education, health, human resources, medicine, organisation, philosophy, and psychology.

To understand how antecedents and outcomes were identified, the methods used in the articles were analysed. Of the articles, 24 were empirical (21 quantitative and three qualitative), eight were conceptual, seven were essays and three were case studies. From these, 52 antecedents were identified, 160 behaviours and 63 outcomes. The articles examined arrogance in general as well as cognitive, consumer, interpersonal, epistemic, intellectual, interpersonal, leader, leader-workplace, and workplace arrogance.

The research samples in the empirical literature were drawn from five countries and from the higher education (lecturers, undergraduates and business students), retail, banking, medicine, manufacturing, professional services, and government sectors and Amazon Mechanical Turk (an online source of research participants). The sample size in the 23 empirical studies varied between 13 and 10,305, averaging 435.6; the response rates were provided in only seven studies and varied between 57% and 100%. Of the 17 antecedents found, 11 were related to superiority, which is unsurprising and consistent with earlier findings. Others included the negative aspects of the self and the work environment. As for the outcomes, the focus was on leadership, workplace engagement, work environment, individual effects, and individual and business performance. Moderators and mediators were observed in five studies.

The conceptual research revealed antecedents mostly related to aspects of the self, including self-belief, whereas the outcomes, as in the empirical studies, were related to people; the actor and victim; culture in terms of relationships, engagement and climate; and individual, team and organisational performance.

The underlying theories used in the papers included the conservation of resources theory, attribution theory, social contract theory, social identity theory, theory of positive illusions, trait theory, social cognition theory and upper echelons theory. The frameworks included self-concept, management incompetence, personality variables and work performance, metacognition and individual differences, personality disorders, illusory superiority, emotions, agentic competence and interpersonal behaviour, implicit/explicit attitudes, and Horney's (1950) model of flawed interpersonal characteristics.

3.6.2.2 Innovative Work Behaviour Findings

The extracted data included the citation details, research objectives or purpose, theories used and definitions of the term 'innovative work behaviour', relevant constructs, trait behaviours, antecedents, outcomes, methods used, sample size, and country. The articles were examined for both named and unnamed antecedents and outcomes, which were recorded as written (or as close as possible).

The 53 papers selected were published in 36 different journals: six articles were published in the same journal (*Sustainability*), 20 were published in eight journals and the remaining 27 were published across individual academic journals. Nineteen studies were conducted in Pakistan, six in China, three in Indonesia, two each in India, Iraq and Jordan, and one each in Australia, France, Greece, Italy, Latin America, Latvia, Lesotho, Malaysia, Northern Cyprus, Russia, Saudi Arabia, Singapore, South Korea, Spain, Turkey, Uganda, the US, Vietnam and the UK. All 53 articles were quantitative, and from these, 56 antecedents, 40 behaviours and 12 outcomes were identified.

Of the 56 antecedents found, 19 were organisation factors, 19 related to leadership style and 18 were to do with leader characteristics. Of the 40 behaviours, 10 were in idea generation, four were in idea promotion and 26 in idea generation. There were 12 outcomes in the business and work categories.

The sample size in the 53 studies varied between 110 and 7,225, averaging 430.6; response rates were provided in only 10 studies and varied between 27% and 98%.

3.6.3 Informing the Data Analysis Frameworks

The selected articles were examined for antecedents, behaviours and outcomes, which were recorded as exactly or as close as possible to what was written. For the purpose of clarity the online *APA Dictionary of Psychology* (2020) defines antecedent as ‘an event or stimulus that precedes some other event or stimulus and often elicits, signals, or sets the occasion for a particular behavior or response’. Behaviour is defined (*APA Dictionary of Psychology* 2020) as ‘an organism’s activities in response to external or internal stimuli, including objectively observable activities, introspectively observable activities and outcome as the result of an experiment, treatment, intervention, or other event’.

A greater level of scrutiny was required to identify unnamed antecedents and outcomes, especially in nonempirical papers, because these were found to be ancillary to the research aim of the papers in which they were observed, and thus were not explicit. Other extracted data included citation details, research objectives or purpose, theories used, definitions of the terms ‘arrogance’ and IWB, relevant constructs, trait behaviours, data collection methods and measures, sample size, industry and country, the key variables, moderators and mediators, findings, future research directions and practical and theoretical implications.

Steps to Extract and Refine Data

1. The 95 articles were reviewed in order to elicit the above information, which was recorded as an Annotated Bibliography, separately for both LA and IWB.
2. The articles were reviewed a minimum of three times each to identify and interpret antecedents, behaviours and outcomes accurately.
3. An analysis of the recorded antecedents, behaviours and outcomes was undertaken and recorded in a Word document in the Table format with the author citation, method and extracted data as written in the article.
4. The purpose of the analysis was to create a concise list of all potential antecedents, behaviours and outcomes, which was achieved by continually revising and refining the content to remove duplicated, redundant and irrelevant items.
5. A final list of antecedents, behaviours and outcomes was constructed to inform the data analysis frameworks (see Tables A1 and A2 in the Appendices). The list

changed as new information emerged through the data collection phase (see Section 4.8.2 for details about the data informing the frameworks).

6. The antecedents, behaviours and outcomes were grouped according to the similarity of meaning, which was also guided by the *Oxford English Dictionary* (2022).

The data analysis frameworks were completed using the outcomes from these analyses. During this process, a preliminary list of antecedents, behaviours and outcomes was compiled to conduct a pilot study but was not based on the full set of 95 articles. Next, the frameworks for that study are shown in Tables 4 and 5.

Table 4. Pilot Study Data Analysis Framework: Leader Arrogance

Antecedents (11)	Behaviour (38)	Outcomes (10)
Demographics ⁴	Annoying	Adverse actor impact ^{2/3/5/7/26/12/15/17}
Environment ^{25/27/29}	Act superior ^{2/3/5/6/12/13/15/16/20/21}	Adverse ‘others’ impact ^{4/7/11/15/25}
Self-protection ^{7/19}	Aloof ²	Eroded relationships ^{5/7/13/33}
Self-esteem ^{3/4/6/15/23/30}	Adamant ⁶	Compromised engagement ^{15/26/29/32/33}
Self-doubt ^{3/13/15/19}	Avoid ^{4/6/15}	Toxic work environment ^{4/10/28}
Distortion ^{3/4/10/19/31}	Confront ³	Poor individual performance ^{15/31}
Self-enhancement ^{12/16/18}	Demanding ¹³	Poor business performance ^{3/7/16/19/29}
Dogmatism ¹⁶	Dogmatic ^{11/16}	Business damage ^{9/11/17/22/30}
Superiority/Elitism ^{1/3/4/10/11/12/16/18/20/27}	Inconsiderate ^{5/15}	Detriment to brand ^{21/24}
Entitlement ^{3/7/13}	Initiate ¹³	Potential benefits ^{20/21/34}
Self-importance ⁴	Obdurate ²	
	Self-enhance ^{2/3/4/6/16/20/23}	
	Self-important ¹⁵	
	Negative*	
	Arrogate ^{10/14/23/6/7/23}	
	Criticise ^{11/15}	
	Discount ¹⁵	
	Dismiss ^{3/18}	
	Disrespect ^{2/6}	
	Distort ^{4/6/13/19/23}	
	Dominate ^{6/15}	
	Ignore ^{1/4/6/9/15}	
	Knowledge-hiding ²⁰	
	Overbearing manner ¹³	
	Uncivil*	
	Blame ⁶	
	Condescend ^{1/3/5}	
	Deceive ^{5/8/13/15/19}	
	Diminish ^{6/11/21/23}	
	Disdain ⁷	
	Offend ²⁴	
	Shun ^{2/3/6/8/10/15}	
	Aggressive*	
	Belittle ^{2/6/11/15/17/22}	
	Bully ³	
	Denigrate ⁴	
	Disparage ^{1/6/11/21}	
	Hostile ^{6/15}	
	Humiliate ²³	
	Oppress ¹⁹	
	Punish ⁶	
	Sadistic behaviour ¹¹	

Note: * denotes the categories from the Burns and Pope (2007) model of negative workplace behaviour

Legend

1 AS Berger (2002)	10 Ford (2009)	19 Padua et al. (2010)	28 Zohaib Khan & Batool (2022)
2 Burke (2006)	11 Friedman & Friedman (2019)	20 Ruvio et al. (2020)	29 Kumar, Kang & Chand (2022)
3 Cleary et al. (2015)	12 Hareli & Weiner (2000)	21 Senyuz & Hasford (2022)	30 Levine (2005)
4 Cowan et al. (2019)	13 Hogan & Hogan (2001)	22 Spector (2003)	31 Randolph-Seng & Norris (2011)
5 De Clercq, Fatima & Jahanzeb (2021)	14 Jenkins (2015)	23 Tanesini (2018)	32 Sim & Ling (2020)
6 Demirbilek, Keser & Akpolat (2022)	15 RE Johnson et al. (2010)	24 X Wang, Chow & Luk (2013)	33 Toscano, Price and Scheepers (2018)
7 Dillon (2007)	16 Kleitman, Hui & Jiang (2019)	25 Borden, Levy & Silverman (2018)	34 Zibarras, Port & Woods (2008)
8 Duarte (2006)	17 Ma & Karri (2005)	26 Godkin & Allcorn (2009)	
9 Eckhaus & Sheaffer (2018)	18 Milyavsky et al. (2017)	27 Haan, Britt & Weinstein (2007)	

Table 5. Pilot Study Data Analysis Case Study Framework: Innovative Work Behaviour

Antecedents (37)	Behaviour (9)	Outcomes (8)
Climate	Works together (relationships and role relationships) ²	Acquires new knowledge ²
Psychological safety ^{7/13}	Wonders how things can be improved ²	Actively contributes to development of new products/services ²
Inclusive climate encourages/supports innovation ^{3/6/12/16}	Puts effort into development of new things ²	Acquires new groups of customers ²
Trust, i.e. recognition & employment safety; climate ^{5/12/9}	Pays attention to issues not part of daily work ²	Visits/maintains contact with external clients ²
Image (reputation) ¹²	Recognises problems ²	Offers suggestions to improve current products or services ²
Culture	Generates original ideas ^{2/6}	Produces ideas to improve work practices ²
Culture ¹⁷	Engages in coalition building ^{2/6}	Optimises the organisation of work ²
Fairness ¹²	Implements ideas ⁶	
Leadership	Employee initiates an innovation beyond the expected ⁶	
Leadership: transformational, participative, inclusive, humble ^{2/11/12/14/17}		
Contributions are valued ⁷		
Feedback from leaders/colleagues ^{8/10}		
Engagement/connectivity ^{7/12}		
Quality employee-supervisor/work group relationships ^{3/12/13}		
Capability & Capacity		
Individual/group capabilities-team characteristics ^{12/17}		
Employee reputation as innovative ³		
Individual motivation (intrinsic) – felt competence ^{7/14}		
Individual personality traits ¹²		

Problem-solving style ¹²

Risk propensity ⁷

Self-enhancement values ¹⁰

Organisational commitment ¹³

Vicarious learning ¹⁶

Ability to influence outcomes ⁷

Employee dissatisfaction with the status quo ³

Job satisfaction ¹³

Structure, Roles & Work

Organisational structure/strategy ^{12/17}

Role clarity ⁷

Positional authority to act ^{5/8/14}

Job autonomy: freedom to change task/job boundaries ^{8/9}

Job/task composition:
design/complexity/demands ^{8/12}

Authority that matches accountability ^{7/8}

Innovativeness as a job requirement ³

Control over one's environment ⁷

Systems & Policies

Training and development
including competency ^{5/8}

Organisational justice ¹⁴

Job security ⁸

Reward system encourages IWB ^{1/5/8}

Resources

Access to technology/resources ¹²

Information- and knowledge-related factors ¹⁷

Legend

1	Janssen (2000)	7	Craig (2015)	13	Gao & Liu (2021)
2	de Jong & den Hartog (2010)	8	Bos-Nehles, Renkema & Janssen (2017)	14	Knezovic & Drkic (2021)
3	Yuan & Woodman (2010)	9	Hughes, Rigtering et al. (2018)	15	Ullah, Mirza & Jamil (2021)
4	Leong & Rasli (2013)	10	Purc & Laguna (2019)	16	J Zhong, Li & Luo (2021)
5	Bysted & Jespersen (2014)	11	Strobl et al. (2019)	17	Middleton (2022)
6	De Spiegelaere, Van Gyes & Van Hootegem (2014)	12	Muchiri et al. (2020)		

3.7 Pilot Study

A pilot study was undertaken to test the data collection protocol and analysis, which informed the full study including its content sources, the nature of the content being a word, phrase or paragraph, and the operation of the MAXQDA (i.e. MAX Qualitative Data Analysis) software as an analysis tool. More specifically, the purpose of the Pilot study is to enhance the main study, to create reliability and validity thereby improving integrity, and to ensure the research design is solid.”

3.7.1 Cases

Data were collected through documented accounts of LA and IWB across a spectrum of occupations and industries, as articulated by the Australian Trade and Investment Commission (2023) and ‘Indeed’, a commercial recruitment firm (Indeed Editorial Team 2023).

This approach is compatible with attribution theory in that it seeks to explain events, interactions and interrelationships through the attributions people make about others within specific contexts. Fors Brandebo (2021) took this approach in explaining the attributions by subordinates of their leaders in times of crises. Similarly, this study focuses on the explanations followers (leaders) make for leader (follower) behaviour and its relationship with their IWB in the context of a disrupted business environment.

3.7.2 Method

This process resulted in descriptors for 11 antecedents, 38 behaviours and 10 outcomes in the LA framework, namely, 59 items (see Table 4), and for 37 antecedents, nine behaviours and eight outcomes in the IWB framework, that is, 54 items (see Table 5). The total number of items in both templates was 114, which were entered into MAXQDA as codes for analysis purposes. Each descriptor was assigned a superscript linked to the articles from which the items originated. Those articles have been identified in the legend below each table. The following process was implemented:

1. Using MAXQDA as the analysis tool, codes reflecting the content of the LA and IWB frameworks were created.

2. The coding hierarchical structure reflected that of the two frameworks, namely, LA and IWB as the 'parent' codes at the first level, followed by the antecedents, behaviour and outcomes at the next level, then the 'subcategories' of these at the third level, and last, the actual entries or items at the fourth level.
3. The 'memo' tool was used for each code, which allowed an explanation or definition of each code to be recorded.
4. At the end of this process, 267 segments were coded, although many were replicated across multiple codes, given the nature of the content. For instance, a segment from Valentine (2014) was entered into six different codes for LA behaviours and consequences. In all, 114 data segments were identified and recorded.
5. Further, 18 case documents representing business, politics and sports categories were uploaded into the software.
6. The cases used in the pilot study were drawn from the list of potential cases (see Table A6 in the Appendices) and were selected based on available data, to ensure that each met a test of integrity and potentially had LA and IWB content.
7. The documents comprised media articles (11), a book review (1), a book excerpt (1), a thesis (1), a business report (1), a case study (1) and academic journal articles (2).
8. All documents were reviewed for integrity, which involved examining the source for potential bias. Thus, one document was rejected as it was considered an 'opinion piece' and it could not be verified that the source did not have inherent bias.
9. Each document was reviewed for relevant LA and IWB content, that is, an antecedent, behaviour or outcome as per the LA and IWB frameworks. When a part of the document was identified, it was highlighted, a comment made in a tool called 'paraphrase' and the segment added to the relevant code.
10. Coding was carried out by reviewing each document (twice) to identify any text that referred to any of the 114 codes. When found, the text segment was highlighted, and a code assigned. In addition, the 'paraphrase' function was used to record insights about the segment and its context.

Table 6. Pilot Study Cases

Document Type	Document Title	Author	Source	Integrity Decision/Bias*
Case: Steve Jobs; Case Domain: Business				
Media article	Steve Jobs – The beginning	Aley (2011)	<i>Bloomberg Businessweek</i>	Magazine identifies as ‘progressive’
Media article	16 Examples of Steve Jobs Being a Huge Jerk	Love (2011)	<i>Business Insider</i>	Magazine has a liberal slant
Book	Steve Jobs: The Exclusive Biography	Isaacson (2011)	Little Brown Book Group	Jobs requested Isaacson to write his biography
Media article	Steve Jobs, 1955–2011: Mourning Technology’s Great Reinventor	McCracken (2011)	<i>Time</i>	Magazine has a liberal slant
Media article	Steve Jobs May Have Been an Arrogant Jerk, but He Wasn’t a Narcissist	Groth (2012)	<i>Business Insider</i>	Magazine has a liberal slant
Thesis	iLeadership: The Leadership Style of Steve Jobs	Valentine (2014)	Pepperdine University	A PhD thesis
Academic journal article	Steve Jobs, Romantic Individualism, and the Desire for Good Capitalism	Streeter (2015)	<i>International Journal of Communication</i>	Peer-reviewed
Media article	The Single Biggest Reason People Wanted to Work with Steve Jobs	Bariso (2016)	<i>Inc.</i>	Magazine has a liberal slant
Case: Hillary Clinton; Case Domain: Politics				
Media article	Hillary Gets It Wrong	Coles (2000)	<i>The Times</i>	The author is considered apolitical
Media article	16 Things Hillary Clinton Blames for Her Election Loss	Britzky (2017)	Axios	Author works for CNN who supported Clinton in 2016
Academic journal article	The Return of the Ghost of Thomas Dewey in 1948: Hillary Clinton and the 2016 Election	Fuchsman (2017)	<i>The Journal of Psychohistory</i>	Peer-reviewed

Media article	How She Lost	Greenberg (2017)	The American Prospect	Author worked with the Clinton campaign
Media article	The Clinton Campaign Was Undone by Its Own Neglect and a Touch of Arrogance, Staffers Say	Stein (2016)	Huffington Post	Known supporter of the Clinton campaign
Case: Lance Armstrong; Case Domain: Sport				
Case study	Armstrong's Doping Downfall	Ethics Unwrapped	McCombs School of Business. University of Texas	Prepared as a case study for ethics; author unknown but significant references
Media article	I Won't Let Go, Lance	Walsh (2013)	<i>Sunday Times</i> (UK)	Author was the original journalist to question Armstrong's doping
Case: Cricket Australia; Case Domain: Sport				
Business report	Balance Matters	The Ethics Centre (2018)	The Ethics Centre (2018)	A business report considered impartial due to authors and purpose
Case: Anthony Albanese; Case Domain: Politics				
Media article	Premier Peter Malinauskas' Energy Push	Clarke (2022)	SkyNews	Originally recorded live on TV network
Case: Daniel Andrews; Case Domain: Politics				
Book review	What Drives Daniel Andrews?	Colebatch (2022)	Inside Story	Author & source not considered politically biased

*Bias: in terms of having a specific political or other bias.

3.7.3 Initial Findings

The findings from the pilot study were as follows:

1. The most populated codes were the LA antecedent 'environment' (38 segments), the IWB 'climate' antecedent (30 segments), the IWB 'culture' antecedent (33 segments) and the IWB 'leadership' antecedent (20 segments). All of these shared many segments.
2. In particular, the 'environment' LA antecedent and the 'inclusive climate' IWB antecedent shared many text segments, which suggests that they may represent the same factor.
3. The LA antecedent that reflected felt-superiority was found in 22 segments.
4. In all, 65 segments were assigned to LA behaviour codes, notably, 'acting superior', 'disrespect', 'deception' and 'bullying'.
5. LA consequences focused on the actor (4 segments) and target (8 segments)
6. The proximity of certain codes for LA behaviours and IWB antecedents on a code map (see Figure 10) indicates a potential relationship such that LA may influence the conditions leading to IWB. The code maps are interpreted through the proximity of codes across documents, namely, 'the more two codes co-occur, the more similar they are in terms of their use in the data, the closer they are placed together on the map' (VERBISoftware 2024).

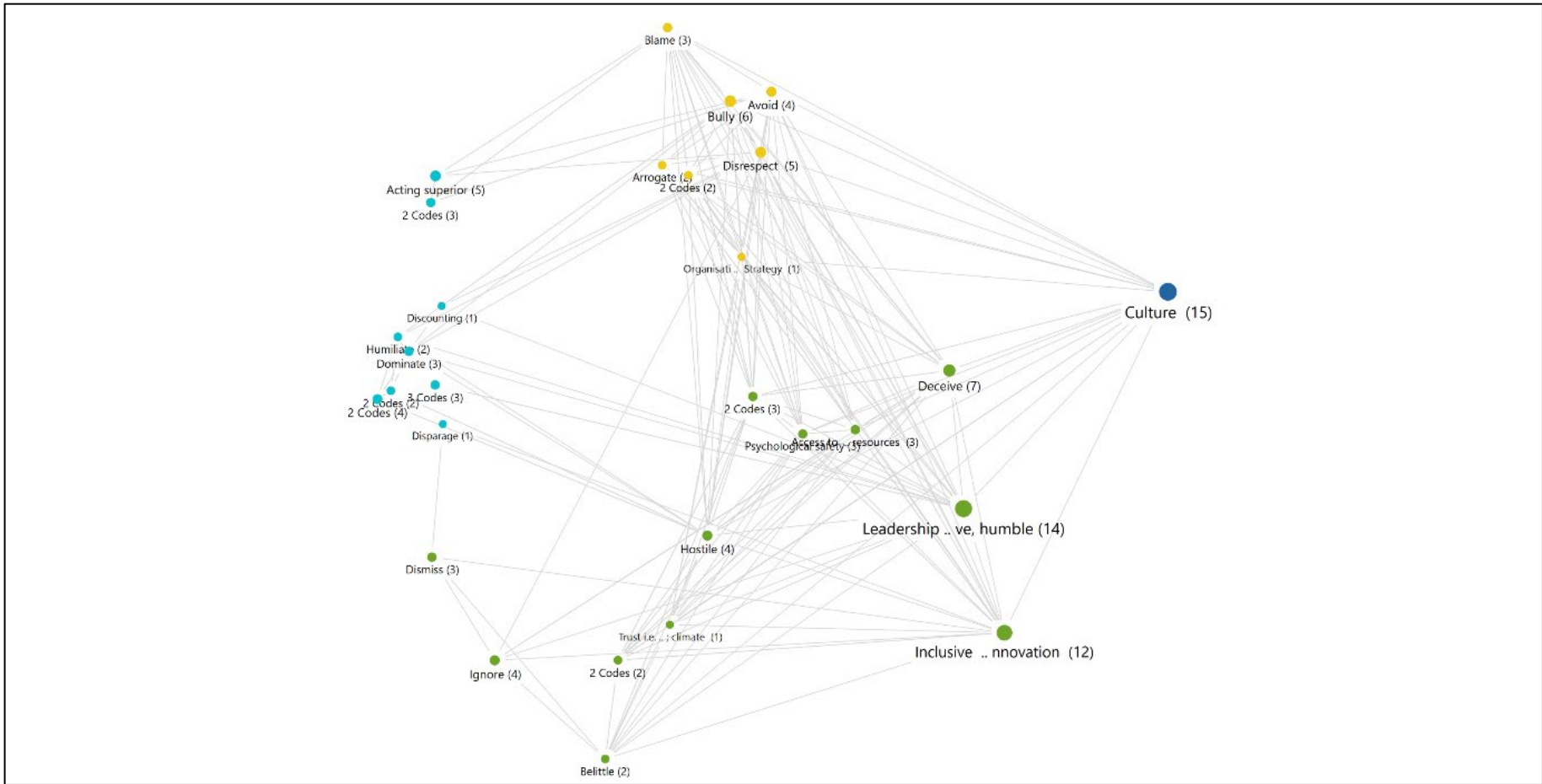


Figure 10. Code Map of Leader Arrogance Behaviours and Innovative Work Behaviour Antecedents

3.7.4 Other Observations

In addition to the findings presented in the previous section, the following observations were made:

1. In reviewing certain documents, it became apparent that IWB antecedents, such as statements about culture, climate, principles and values, might be articulated and provide organisational insight but were devoid of connection to behaviours or outcomes.
2. The context in which a document has been written is important in determining its relevance and value for this study. For instance, the recent cultural and governance review of Cricket Australia by the Ethics Centre (2018) was designed to identify issues within a business. It happened to reveal behaviours considered relevant for analysis here, but this was not the primary purpose of the review, which was to focus on antecedent conditions that contribute to the current state of the business. This required careful consideration of ‘content’ to avoid misrepresenting it (e.g. Cricket Australia’s staff reward systems were discussed but not in relation to IWB).

3.7.4.1 Category Theme Analysis

Aronson (1995) identified four key steps in undertaking a category theme analysis (CTA). These are collecting data from which patterns of experiences can be listed (the data can come from direct quotations or paraphrasing common ideas), identifying all data that relate to the already classified patterns, combining and cataloguing related patterns into sub-themes and last is to build an argument to choose relevant themes. Themes are defined as units derived from patterns such as ‘conversation topics, vocabulary, recurring activities, meanings, feelings, or folk sayings and proverbs’ (Taylor & Bogdan 1984, p. 131) and are identified by drawing fragmented ideas and experiences together, that by themselves are meaningless.

The 18 documents represented cases involving the leadership behaviour of Steve Jobs, Hillary Clinton, Lance Armstrong and Cricket Australia (the Board and the CEO). The primary theme that emerged was that LA was detected and related to detrimental outcomes for the actor, others and the organisation. For organisations, this occurred through the climate created by leaders and evidenced in others’ perceptions of their behaviour, namely

that arrogant messaging by the leadership created a climate of hesitation or fear that affected psychological safety, which, in turn, constrained innovative behaviour; for instance, people preferred not to risk being wrong for fear of the outcomes, as occurred in the Cricket Australia report.

In other cases, leader behaviour although perceived by others as arrogant, did not necessarily have the same impact. For example, although Steve Jobs's behaviour was perceived as arrogant in numerous situations, some people ignored it owing to his vision and ability to bring out greatness in others (professional will). In the remaining three cases, a similar effect was not detected, and perceptions of arrogance were associated with detriment. Although Steve Jobs behaved badly, he still inspired people through his vision and his ability to bring out their greatness, whereas the same may not be said about Lance Armstrong, Hillary Clinton or Cricket Australia (based on the articles). The difference between these two outcomes raises the question 'why this difference?'

Specific themes include:

1. LA leads to detrimental outcomes to people, the organisation and those around it.
2. LA may lead to IWB but only if there is a benefit to the target.
3. There may be a bidirectional impact of the LA and IWB relationship, namely, positive or negative.
4. Inspiring innovation and greatness in others may be triggered by both transformational and authoritarian leadership—mixed messaging undermines this effect.
5. LA is typified by deceit, risk, demonising, avoidance, poor judgement, believing one is better than others and deserving of more, being in control, minimising others, and 'cohesive at the top but not below'.
6. Ignoring naysayers and believing one is always right may be a trigger for creating new ideas.

3.7.4.2 Method

The observations regarding the method adopted for the pilot study are as follows:

1. It became apparent that the process to categorise antecedents, behaviours and outcomes and to assign descriptors to these needed review as the initial attempt

resulted in incorrectly grouping items considered to have a common meaning, such as listing listening issues under the ‘avoid’ descriptor.

2. There were 267 text segments distributed across 114 codes. As shown in Table 7, 93 text segments were allocated across 103 codes (54 codes were unused, i.e. had no text segments allocated to them). The majority of segments (101) were allocated across three codes, namely, the LA antecedent ‘environment’ and the IWB antecedents ‘inclusive climate’ and ‘culture’. This allocation largely reflected content from one document *Balance Matters*, the Ethics Centre (2018) report for Cricket Australia.

Table 7. Pilot Study Text Segments × Code

Distribution	No. of Text Segments	Codes
0	0	54
1 to 5	93	49
6 to 10	41	6
11 to 15	12	1
16 to 20	20	1
20 to 35	101	3
Total	267	114

3. A further issue was that key information was ‘lost’ due to the spread of text segments among numerous codes; for instance, 26 text segments were allocated to 12 LA behaviour codes. Given this disparity between codes and text segments, it was decided to restructure the code system to facilitate better understanding of the relationship, if any, between LA and IWB. This was further demonstrated in an attempt to create a co-occurrence code map that would show potential themes arising from codes co-occurring in the same document, that is, the number of codes with no, or too few, text segments attached created ‘noise’ that confounded other information.
4. Two steps were taken to create more meaningful data; the first was reducing the number of codes, and the second was reducing the code levels from four to two. Regarding the former, the main problem was that 81 codes were assigned to ‘LA behaviours’ (38) and ‘innovative work behaviour antecedents’ (43), as reflected in

the two frameworks (see Tables 4 and 5). It was decided to condense these to a more manageable number by categorising ‘like’ entries. To do this, the classification systems for dysfunctional and negative workplace behaviours proposed by Rose et al. (2015) and Burnes and Pope (2007) were adapted to the frameworks and coding structure. Rose et al. (2015) classified dysfunctional behaviours as annoying or traumatic, whereas Burnes and Pope (2007) suggested that negative workplace behaviours could be categorised as negative, uncivil or aggressive. The LA behaviours were assigned on the basis of relevance to the five different categories, resulting in redundancy between the ‘traumatic’ and the ‘uncivil and aggressive’ categories. It was found that the latter more effectively represented the relevant behaviours, as ‘uncivil’ (or incivility) refers to rude or disrespectful behaviour with ambiguous intent and ‘aggressive’ refers to behaviour that is intended to harm the target (Burnes & Pope 2007). Thus, the individual behaviours have been replaced by the annoying, negative, uncivil (incivility) and aggressive categories.

5. A similar process was used for the IWB antecedents and was guided by the studies of Macdonald, Burke and Stewart (2018) and D Scott and McMurray (2021). In this case, seven categories comprising climate, culture, leadership, structure and work, capabilities and capacity, systems and policies, and resources were selected as best representing the 43 antecedents. The codes in MAXQDA were amended to reflect these changes.
6. The second change was to reduce the code levels from four to two (‘parent–child’) to facilitate analysis. Having four levels did not provide any insight or add value to the analysis; rather, it added a level of complexity that was confusing. Hence, six parent categories were created, comprising LA antecedents, LA behaviour, LA consequences, IWB antecedents, IWB behaviour and IWB consequences. These reflect the content of the revised frameworks shown in Tables 9 and 10.

3.7.5 Revised Pilot Study Findings

3.7.5.1 MAXQDA

By simplifying the items (codes) and code levels as described in Section 3.7.4.2, and by including only codes that had more than 10 segments, the representation of the codes and text segments became clearer. In Figure 11, the font size indicates the frequency of text segments occurring in the same document, and the weight of lines, the co-occurrence of

codes. These were used to find patterns; for instance, the codes from the same code groups, such as ‘aggressive’ and ‘negative’, are strongly linked, whereas ‘climate’ and ‘leadership’ are more similar to each other, than to culture. Notably, negative and aggressive behaviours are equivalently linked to climate and leadership. This result suggests that certain LA behaviours may be related to the IWB antecedents, climate and culture. The implication for the research question is that there may be a relationship between LA and IWB through the negative or aggressive behaviour of a leader, an aspect of leadership style, and then, the organisational climate, such that it might inhibit IWBs.

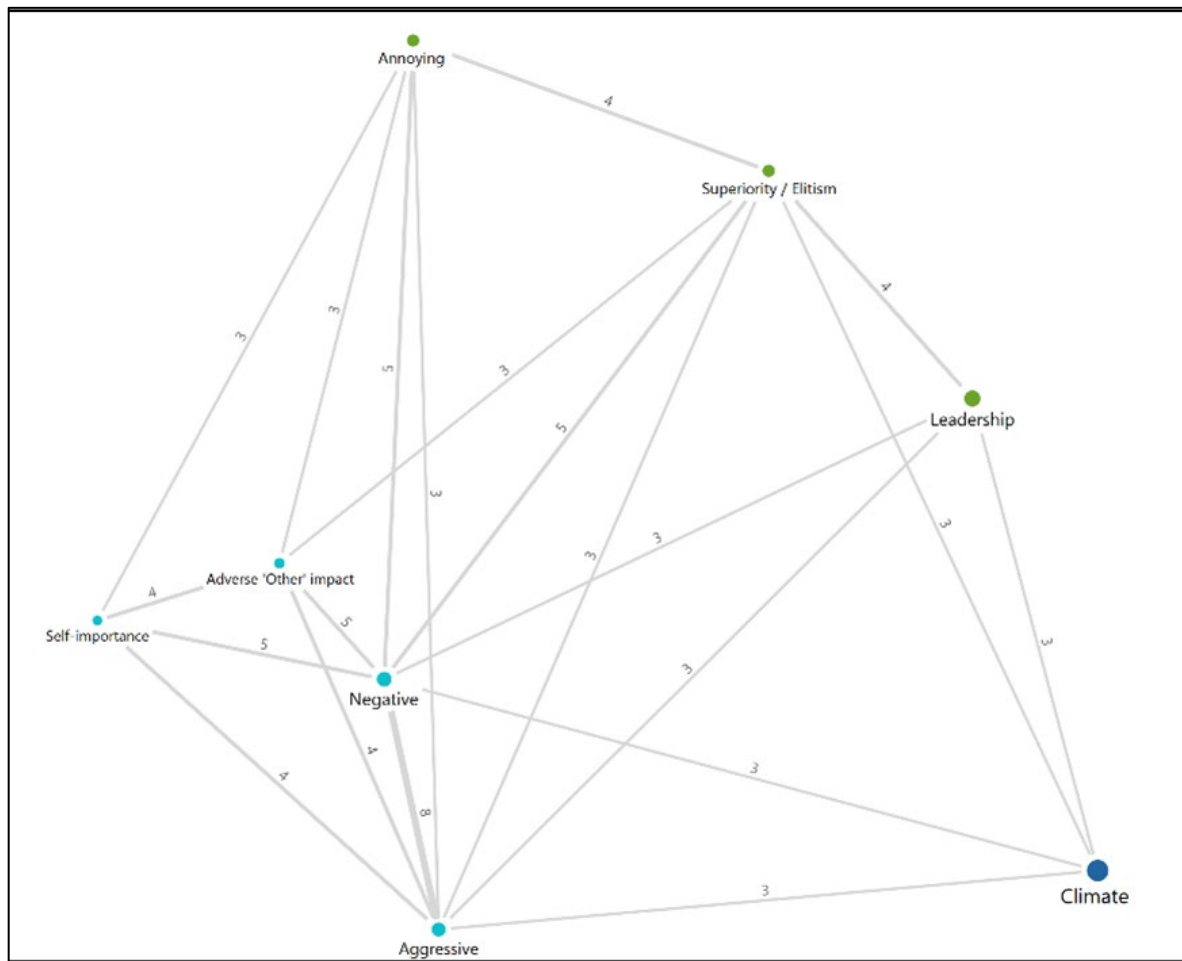


Figure 11. Co-occurrence Model for Codes for Leader Arrogance and Innovative Work Behaviour

The observations from the revised pilot study are as follows:

1. As reported earlier, the proximity of LA behaviour and IWB antecedent codes indicates a potential relationship such that LA may influence the conditions leading to IWB.
2. Figure 11 shows a connection between the LA antecedent of superiority/elitism to leadership and organisational climate, and to negative and aggressive LA behaviours (all these are also connected).
3. The negative and aggressive behaviours shown in Table 4 are equivalently linked to climate and leadership, suggesting that certain LA behaviours may also be related to the IWB antecedents, climate and culture.
4. There may be a relationship between LA and IWB through the negative or aggressive behaviour of a leader, an aspect of leadership style, and then the organisational climate, such that it potentially inhibits IWBs.
5. In particular, the ‘environment’ LA antecedent and the ‘inclusive climate’ IWB antecedent share many text segments, which suggests they may represent the same factor.

3.7.5.2 Preliminary Findings

1. The initial findings point to the bidirectional impact of the LA–IWB relationship that is, positive or negative.
2. Figure 11 shows a connection between the LA antecedent of superiority/elitism to leadership and organisational climate, and to negative and aggressive LA behaviours (interconnected).
3. LA may lead to IWB but only if there is a benefit to the target.
4. Leader behaviour is an aspect of leadership style, but arrogant leader behaviour can be intentional or unintentional, and thus, which style it fits is contentious.
5. Inspiring innovation and greatness in others may be triggered by both transformational and authoritarian leadership: mixed messaging undermines this effect.
6. LA outcomes affect IWB primarily through leadership, and then organisational climate particularly through compromised psychological safety.

3.7.5.3 Pilot Study Review

The cases selected for the study included individuals and an organisation (Cricket Australia), however, as this study is investigating the behaviour of leaders, rather than an organisation, and in the case of Cricket Australia individual leaders were unable to be identified. Consequently, it is decided that only arrogant behaviour attributable to individual leaders should be used for the main study, and thus cases for data collection will be based on individuals.

A key tool in testing data was the development and application of the data analysis frameworks, which were reviewed for effectiveness during the pilot study. The LA framework was developed using the findings from the systematic literature review of 42 articles, and when this framework was applied to the pilot study data, it resulted in the identification of 65 instances of LA. However, the IWB framework used at the time of conducting the pilot study was based on 17 articles, whereas 53 articles were included in the full systematic review of IWB literature. Thus, it was necessary to continue the development of the IWB framework by incorporating the findings from the full systematic literature review. The following process was adopted:

1. Only those articles were reviewed that explicitly stated their purpose was to investigate a direct relationship with IWB as an antecedent, behaviour or outcome and also provided evidence to support that relationship.
2. It was ensured that the factors found were clearly defined and recorded.
3. It was accepted that a direct relationship could be between an independent variable or mediator, and IWB in the case of empirical studies, and as a factor argued and substantiated in conceptual studies.
4. Discrete antecedents, behaviours and outcomes were identified and were then added verbatim in the framework, where possible, to ensure their intended meaning was captured.
5. Once these steps were completed, the remaining items were grouped according to common categories. A summary of these findings is provided in Table A2 in the Appendices.

As reported in Section 3.6.2.2 on studying the 53 articles, 56 discrete antecedents, 40 behaviours and 12 outcomes were identified.

3.8 Data Analysis Framework

3.8.1 Theoretical Background

A key aspect of the research design is the development of frameworks for collecting data to determine whether there is a relationship between LA and IWB. No study has developed such frameworks thus far, and thus, it was necessary to do so for this study. The decision was taken to use a concept-driven (deductive) approach (Kuckartz 2019; Yin 2015) informed by the systematic literature reviews on LA and IWB, as well as allow the data to inform the frameworks via a pilot study that tested the functionality, effectiveness and capacity of the frameworks. Both Yin (2015) and Kuckartz (2019) pointed out that data-driven processes (inductive) may inform a study despite a deductive approach having already been implemented. In practice, this means that the frameworks may be modified if the data reveal factors not found in the literature.

Further, the frameworks were subject to researcher bias both at the design and content stages. This issue was addressed through the pilot study and by relying on the data and literature informing the frameworks. As will be shown in Sections 3.8.2, 3.8.3 and 3.8.4, the data led to a change in the IWB antecedent categories and to changes in the content.

3.8.2 Framework Structure

Two frameworks were constructed, one for LA and the other for IWB, both informed by the literature and both based on the ‘antecedent–behaviour–consequence’ (ABC) model in behavioural analysis (Grant & Evans 1994, cited in Nijhof & Rietdijk 1999). This model originated in the 1960s as a clinical tool (Dyer 2013) and was later used to identify the events preceding a behaviour and the consequences that followed it, namely, as a component of a complete functional behaviour assessment. This model is consistent with this study’s conceptual framework that suggests any relationship between LA and IWB most likely exists through LA behaviours and outcomes with IWB antecedents.

There are two issues that require clarity: the use of the term outcome instead of ‘consequence’, and the meaning intended by framework for ‘data collection’ versus ‘data analysis’ purposes. As for the first issue, this study uses the term ‘outcomes’ instead of ‘consequences’. An outcome is defined as ‘a state of affairs resulting from some process; the way something turns out’, whereas a ‘consequence’ is defined as ‘a thing or

circumstance which follows as an effect or result from something preceding' (*Oxford English Dictionary* 2022). The word outcome has broader implications than the word consequence, which appears to be both linear and immediate. For instance, the consequence of a leader denigrating a team member may be an adverse impact on the team member and eventually on the leader, but the outcome could extend beyond that to reach senior leaders in the organisation and possibly lead to changes in policies and training. As regards the second issue, the term framework in this study refers to the instrument used for data collection. It is also a term used in analysis when employing computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software.

3.8.3 Improving the Categories

Kuckartz and Rädiker (2019a) advocated precision in defining categories and subcategories and the use of a codebook to record category names, descriptions, examples of applications and further applications, and differences between categories. Their advice was followed by using MAXQDA, the analysis software used in this study, to record those definitions (see Tables A1 and A2 in the Appendices). In turn, those definitions served as a reference tool in identifying and interpreting relevant data.

Using the outcomes from the pilot study, changes were made at the category and subcategory level. First, as for the LA antecedents, these were changed with the introduction of three subcategories labelled 'state', 'individual' and 'comparative'. 'State' recognises that context is an important and discrete antecedent to arrogance as it incorporates circumstances beyond an individual that may act as an antecedent. 'Individual' and 'comparative' were adapted from Cowan et al. (2019) whose model of arrogance is based on three types of arrogance and six escalating components, with the first five being similar to antecedents found in the literature (Baselice & Thompson 2018; Battaly 2020; Dillon 2007, 2019; Hogan & Hogan 2001; Kleitman, Hui & Jiang 2019; Sutton 2003; Tanesini & Goldberg 2016). Individual arrogance is distinguished from comparative arrogance through comparing the abilities, traits or accomplishments of a person against objective truths, as against other people (Cowan et al. 2019). This difference accords with non-state antecedents found in the systematic literature review.

Next, attempting to categorise LA behaviours was difficult as there are very few models of arrogant or similar behaviours that apply to the workplace. Indeed, the literature on many

different constructs, including aggression, counterproductive behaviour and bullying, is limited. Therefore, the categories of ‘negative, incivil or aggressive’ in Burnes and Pope’s (2007) study on negative workplace behaviours regarding the National Health Service in the UK were used, and their definitions were found to be relevant to the behaviours found in the systematic literature review. Furthermore, in a more recent study, Verschuren, Tims and de Lange (2021) also examined negative work behaviour and distinguished between the ‘psycho-social’ and ‘material’ effects of such behaviour. The LA systematic literature review identified that most detriment seemed to be to people or business, and hence, relying on these outcome categories was relevant to this study.

In addition, the IWB literature is replete with articles about the behaviours in ‘innovative work behaviour’ but lacking in terms of antecedents and outcomes. As regards behaviours, the literature has revealed that IWB involves either three (De Spiegelaere & Van Gyes 2012) or four processes: idea exploration, generation, championing and implementation (Bos-Nehles, Renkema & Janssen 2017; de Jong & den Hartog 2010; Hughes et al. 2018; Janssen 2000; Knezovic & Drkic 2021; Muchiri et al. 2020; Ullah, Mirza & Jamil 2021; Yang et al. 2021). Bos-Nehles, Renkema and Janssen’s (2017) definition incorporates these processes: ‘all individual actions directed at the generation, processing and application/implementation of new ideas regarding ways of doing things, including new products, ideas, technologies, procedures or work processes with the goal of increasing the organizational effectiveness and success’ (p. 382).

For antecedents and outcomes, the seminal studies by SG Scott and Bruce (1994), Janssen (2000), de Jong and den Hartog (2010) and De Spiegelaere and Van Gyes (2012) were used to inform the antecedent categories of leadership, organisation and individual, whereas behaviours reflected the dimensions of idea generation, championing and implementation (De Spiegelaere & Van Gyes 2012) and outcomes related to organisational function and aspects of work (de Jong & den Hartog 2010).

3.8.4 Populating the Frameworks

To populate both frameworks, the following steps were taken:

1. The LA and IWB antecedents, behaviours and outcomes were identified and transcribed from the systematic literature review articles based on relevant text that explicitly stated words or phrases inferring or implying the presence of an

antecedent, behaviour or outcome. For example, ‘consider themselves superior to others and feel that the rules of civility do not apply to them’ (Friedman & Friedman 2019, p. 9) was not stated as an antecedent, but it was clear that what the authors had described was precisely that.

2. Some articles have explored arrogance in depth, notably, Cowan et al.’s (2019) conceptual study, which examined arrogance from cognitive, motivational and social perspectives, and the philosophical essays by Dillon (2007), Roe (2023) and Tanesini (2018, 2023). That depth requires a higher level of scrutiny to ensure a clear understanding of the arguments, models and proposed frameworks. Accurately interpreting, adapting and then incorporating the content of these studies into the current framework, where appropriate, are challenging as their purposes and context differed greatly from those of this study, requiring careful consideration about where and how these may fit, if at all.

An example is Cowan et al.’s (2019) framework that has six interconnected arrogance components that escalate in intensity and gravity, which the authors designed as a classification system to better understand how arrogance functions. It does identify antecedents and behaviours, but that does not appear to be the study’s specific purpose. Nevertheless, it is possible to identify these factors in the framework, and in the ensuing discourse; for instance, the personal values of illusion of control and high self-esteem, as well as society’s need for leaders, present as antecedents. Within the framework, Components 1 and 2 (‘Distorted information and abilities’ and ‘Overestimation of one’s information and abilities’, respectively) appear to be antecedents, whereas Components 3 and 4 (‘Resistance to new information about one’s own limits’ and ‘Failure to consider the perspectives of other individuals’, respectively) could be antecedents or behaviours. Component 5 (‘Belief or assumption of superiority’) appears to be an antecedent, and Component 6 (‘Denigration or belittling of others’), a behaviour. Thus, decisions had to be made about how the factors fit within the current study by considering the proposed definitions of antecedents, behaviours and outcomes, for all 95 articles.

3. Many antecedents, behaviours and outcomes comprise constructs and factors that have multiple underlying elements. For example, transformational leadership as defined by Bass and Avolio (1994) has four elements—idealised influence (e.g. charismatic role modelling), inspirational motivation (e.g. recognition and praise), intellectual stimulation (e.g. promoting creativity and innovation) and

individualised consideration (e.g. coaching and mentoring). To optimise identification, populated items are defined in Tables A1 and A2 in the Appendices, which are, in effect, the content of the MAXQDA codebook.

4. Following extensive study of the articles, 49 antecedents, 154 behaviours and 50 outcomes were generated for LA and 45 antecedents, 40 behaviours and 12 outcomes were generated for IWB. In all, 350 items were identified after removal of duplicates. As is shown in Section 4.8.2 a further 33 items were identified in the data collection documents and are included in the full list of LA and IWB antecedents, behaviours and outcomes in Tables A1 and A2 in the Appendices.
5. As the IWB articles in the systematic literature reviews did not purposefully examine the activities or practices employees engage in when being innovative, they are assumed through the definitions and measures on which those studies relied. The most cited studies are those of SG Scott and Bruce (1994), Janssen (2005), de Jong and den Hartog (2010), De Spiegelaere and Van Gyes (2012) and De Spiegelaere, Van Gyes and Van Hootegem (2014). Their definitions refer to either three or four dimensions of IWB, namely, idea generation, development, championing and implementation, and these, in turn, are reflected in their IWB measures. Three other studies that specifically examined IWBs are those by Kleysen and Street (2001), who undertook a literature review of individual innovative behaviour and determined there were 14 such behaviours found across five dimensions; Tuominen and Toivonen (2011), whose qualitative study identified five types of innovative behaviour occurring in three different stages of the innovation process; and Messmann and Mulder (2020), who developed a concise 8-item IWB measure.

It should be noted that although the Scott and Bruce (1994) paper is outside the time period for the systematic literature review, it is considered a seminal work having been cited 9,750 times according to Google Scholar (accessed 31 December 2023) and having two key items (13 and 31 in the behaviour section of Appendix A2) not identified in other studies. To be compliant with the IWB time period, the study by Choi, Kang and Choi (2021) on IWB in the workplace that employs the Scott and Bruce (1994) 6-item scale is cited.

In all, these studies identified 62 IWBs, and after grouping these according to keywords and concepts, 12 items remained, which were then assigned to De Spiegelaere, Van Gyes and Van Hootegem's (2014) three dimensions of idea

generation, championing and implementation (see Table A2 in the Appendices). The source for many of these items is Kleysen and Street's (2001) review of the then available literature. They found that innovative work behaviour was not unidimensional, identifying 14 items they were able to categorise into five discrete subscales of opportunity generation, generativity, formative investigation, championing and application.

6. Although four outcomes were identified through the systematic literature review, that is, job performance (Al Wali, Muthuveloo and Teoh 2022; Vuong 2023), adaptive performance (Bataineh et al. 2022), sustainable economic performance (Faulks et al. 2021) and project success (Mubarak, Khan & Osmadi 2022), these are considered inadequate for the purposes of the data analysis framework. Hence, this study relied on the studies by Janssen (2005), de Jong and den Hartog (2010), Messmann and Mulder (2012), De Spiegelaere and Van Gyes (2012), De Spiegelaere, Van Gyes and Van Hootegem (2014) and Choi, Kang and Choi (2021) to populate the outcomes section of the framework and included the four outcomes from the systematic literature review.
7. As a purpose of this study is to examine LA, the antecedents related to 'follower' characteristics were excluded.

The completed frameworks shown in Tables 8 and 9 have been updated following the anomalies observed in the Stage 1 data collection and described in Section 4.8.2.

Table 8. Data Analysis Framework: Leader Arrogance

Antecedents (11) (adapted from Cowan et al. 2019)			Behaviour (38) (Burnes & Pope 2007)			Outcomes (12) (Verschuren, Tims & de Lange 2021)	
State: those conditions and contexts that may facilitate arrogant behaviour	Individual: inflated opinion of abilities, traits and accomplishments compared with objective truths (p. 426)	Comparative: inflated opinion of abilities, traits and accomplishments compared with others (p. 426).	Negative: ‘disrespectful and undermines or violates the value/dignity of an individual. It is behaviour that harms individuals and organisations’ (p. 300)	Incivility: ‘rude or disrespectful/ discourteous behaviour with ambiguous intent which may or may not be defined as bullying by those who experience / witness it’ (p. 300)	Aggressive: ‘behaviour with the clear intention of harming the target. This is seen as being less common than negative behaviour in general or incivility in particular, but it is always classed as bullying’ (p. 300)	Psycho-social: impact experienced at personal level	Material: costs for employees, organisations and society at large
Environment 25/27/29/36/45/46/82	Self-confidence 16/19/73 Self-protection 7/19/35 Self-esteem 3/4/6/15/23/30/35 Self-doubt 3/13/15/19/35 Distortion 3/4/10/19/31/33 Self-enhancement 12/16/18/37 Dogmatism ¹⁶	Superiority/Elitism 1/3/4/10/11/12/16/18/20/27/44/6 2/81/89 Entitlement ^{3/7/13} Self-importance ⁴	Act superior 2/3/5/6/12/13/15/16/20/21/36/67/ 81/89 Aloof ² Adamant ⁶ Arrogate ^{6/7/10/14/23/36} Avoid ^{4/6/15} Confront ³ Criticise ^{11/15} Demanding ¹³ Dogmatic ^{11/16} Knowledge-hiding ²⁸ Not listening ^{2/3/6/15} Initiate ¹³ Self-enhance 2/3/4/6/16/20/23/35 Self-important ¹⁵ Self-regard ³⁵	Blame ⁶ Condescend ^{1/3/5} Deceive ^{5/8/13/15/19/64} Denigrate ⁴ Diminish ^{6/11/21/23/52} Disdain ⁷ Dismiss ^{3/18} Disparage ^{1/6/11/21} Disrespect ^{2/6} Distort ^{4/6/13/19/23} Inconsiderate ^{5/15/36} Ignore ^{1/4/6/9/15/36} Obdurate ² Overbearing manner ¹³ Shun ^{2/3/6/8/10/15}	Belittle ^{2/6/11/15/17/22} Dominate 6/15/38/36/43/56/58/63/65/66/67/68/ 49/70/ 72/80/83/84/85/87 Hostile ^{6/15/35} Humiliate ²³ Offend ^{24/55/83} Oppress ^{19/35} Punish ⁶ Sadistic behaviour ¹¹	Adverse actor impact 2/3/5/7/26/12/15/17/40/41/4 3/47/ 57/59/64/69/86/90 Adverse ‘others’ impact ^{4/7/11/15/25 /35/ 39/46/51 /71/76/82/90} Beneficial actor impact ^{53/60/62/72} Beneficial ‘others’ impact ^{48/53/74}	Eroded relationships 5/7/13/33 Compromised engagement 15/26/29/32/33 Toxic work environment ^{4/10/28} Poor individual performance ^{15/31} Poor business performance 3/7/16/19/29/45/64/88 Business damage 9/11/17/22/30/43/45/52/54/61/63 /69/75/79/88 Detriment to brand 21/24/40/42/43/45/50/75/77/78/8 6/90 Potential benefits 20/21/34

Legend

From Systematic Literature Review					From Data														
1	AS Berger 2002	11	Friedman & Friedman	21	Senyuz & Hasford 2022	31	Randolph-Seng & Norris 2011	38	Aksinaviciute 2014	48	Delaney & Spoelstra 2022	58	Hartung 2014	68	Lopatto 2021	78	PRNews 2011	88	Waters 2007
2	Burke 2006	12	Hareli & Weiner 2000	22	Spector 2003	32	Sim & Ling 2020	39	Aley 2010	49	Dundes, Buitelaar & Streiff 2019	59	Hechl 2015	69	Lewis 2013	79	Roberts & Rogers 2018	89	Watts 2019
3	Cleary et al. 2015	13	Hogan & Hogan 2001	23	Tanesini 2018	33	Toscano, Price & Scheepers 2018	40	Allen 2022	50	Evans 2013	60	Hofman 2015	70	Love 2011	80	Sims & Brinkmann 2003	90	M Williams 2022
4	Cowan et al. 2019	14	Jenkins 2015	24	X Wang, Chow & Luk	34	Zibarras, Port & Woods 2008	41	Bates 2015	51	Folk 2022	61	Humphrys 2011	71	Malone 2021	81	Smith 2013		
5	De Clercq, Fatima & Keser &	15	RE Johnson et al. 2010	25	Borden, Levy & Silverman	35	Coppola 2023	42	Boudreau 2013	52	Forbes & Watson 2010	62	Isaacson 2012	72	Marks 2013	82	Spector 2003		
6	Demirbilek, Keser &	16	Kleitman, Hui & Jiang	26	Godkin & Allcorn 2009	36	Roe 2023	43	Brown & Peterson 2022	53	Gray 2016	63	Jennings 2003	73	McCall 2009	83	Spott 2018		
7	Dillon 2007	17	Ma & Karri 2005	27	Haan, Britt & Weinstein	37	Tanesini 2023	44	J Cook, Patel & O'Rourke 2018	54	Grayson 2018	64	C Johnson 2008	74	McCracken 2011	84	Steinwart & Ziegler 2014		
8	Duarte 2006	18	Milyavsky et al. 2017	28	MM Khan et al. 2022			45	Cooper 2011	55	Groth 2012	65	Kantor & Streitfeld 2015	75	Murdock 2020	85	Stolberg 2015		
9	Eckhaus & Sheaffer 2018	19	Padua et al. 2010	29	Kumar, Kang & Chand 2022			46	Crossan, Seijts & Furlong 2024	56	Hamburger 2002	66	Kawamoto & Yamamoto 2000	76	Myatt 2015	86	Treviño & Brown 2005		
10	Ford 2009	20	Ruvio et al. 2020	30	Levine 2005			47	Cusack 2001	57	Boostrom 2011	67	Krugman 2001	77	Newcomer & Stone 2018	87	Ward 2003		

Table 9. Data Analysis Case Study Framework: Innovative Work Behaviour

Antecedents (56) (Adapted from Muchiri et al. 2020)			Behaviour (40) (De Spiegelaere, Van Gyes & Van Hoote gem 2014)			Outcomes (12) (de Jong & den Hartog 2010)	
Organisation: organisation, work, HR systems, practices; climate/culture	Leadership Style	Leader Characteristics	Idea Generation	Idea Championing	Idea Implementation: development, evaluation, organisation	Business	Work
<p>HR practices & systems ^{17/46/48}</p> <p>Work organisation ^{2/5/12/19/20/83}</p> <p>Organisation practices ^{3/21/22/46}</p> <p>Productive climate & culture ^{73/77/83}</p> <p>Unproductive climate & culture ^{57/58/59/60/62/63/65/66/67/68/ 70/ 79/ 81/85/86/87/88/90/91/97}</p>	<p>Contextual leadership ^{4/35}</p> <p>Control leadership ^{12/39/57/65 71/74/77/81/87/94/97}</p> <p>Collaborative leadership ^{1/2/3/12/14/18/ 21/24/29/30/37/49/52 /53/54/81}</p> <p>Inspirational leadership ^{9/23/32/33/36/38/40/46/47/51}</p> <p>Relational leadership ^{9/13/17/34/43/55}</p> <p>Values leadership ^{6/7/8/9/10/ 22/25/26/27/28}</p> <p>Ineffective leadership ^{62/64/74/75/96}</p>	<p>Leader attributes ^{8/22/40/44/55/82/83/92}</p> <p>Productive leader behaviour ^{1/4/11/23/27/ 31/32 / 42/43/45/47/50/54/55/78/95}</p> <p>Unproductive leader behaviour ^{41/47/61/66/69/73/80/83/88/89/91/93}</p> <p>Leader incivility ³⁹</p>	<p>Senses opportunities for change or improvement ^{15/98/99/100/102/103}</p> <p>Finds potential opportunities ^{99/103}</p> <p>Creates idea/solutions in response to perceived opportunities or problems ^{15/56/99/100}</p> <p>Builds on existing ideas and data ¹⁰³</p>	<p>Takes risk to support new ideas ⁹⁹</p> <p>Mobilises support for innovative ideas ^{15/98/99/100/103}</p> <p>Investigates and secures funds needed to implement new ideas ¹⁰²</p> <p>Obtains approval for innovative ideas ⁹⁸</p>	<p>Develops and prepares an idea or solution for implementation ^{15/99/103}</p> <p>Evaluates the viability of an idea or solution ^{98/99/103}</p> <p>Organises implementation ^{15/99/102/103}</p> <p>Realisation: turns intention into reality ^{15/98/99/100}</p>	<p>Acquires new knowledge ¹⁵</p> <p>Actively contributes to development of new products / services ¹⁵</p> <p>Acquires new groups of customers ¹⁵</p> <p>Visits/maintains contacts with external clients ¹⁵</p> <p>Makes suggestions to improve current products or services ¹⁵</p> <p>Job performance ²⁸</p> <p>Project success ⁴¹</p> <p>Sustainable economic performance ²¹</p>	<p>Produces ideas to improve work practices ¹⁵</p> <p>Acquires new knowledge ¹⁵</p> <p>Optimises the organisation of work ¹⁵</p> <p>Adaptive performance ¹⁸</p>

Legend

From Systematic Literature Review

1 AlMulhim & Mohammed 2023	18 Bataineh et al. 2022	35 Kousina & Voudouris 2023	52 Erhan, Uzunbacak, & Aydin 2022	68 Grover 2007	85 Myatt 2015	Additional
2 Abualoush et al. 2022	19 Bou Reslan, Garanti & Emeagwali 2021	36 Lin 2023	53 Vuong 2023	69 Hamilton 2017	86 Santora 2020	98 Janssen 2000;
3 N. Ahmad et al. 2021	20 Farrukh et al. 2022	37 Mansoor et al. 2021	54 Kundi, Aboramadan, & Abualigah 2023	70 Hartung 2014	87 Sims & Brinkmann 2003	99 Kleysen & Street 2001
4 Akinci et al. 2022	21 Faulks et al. 2021	38 Mayastinasari & Suseno 2023	55 Zuberi & Khattak 2021	71 Hechl 2015	88 Smith 2013	100 Messmann et al 2017
5 Alwali 2023	22 Gao et al. 2021	39 Mehmood et al. 2023	From Data	72 Isaacson 2012	89 Soliere, Felo & Hodowanitz 2008	101 Muchiri et al. 2020
6 Arijanto , Suroso & Indrayanto 2022	23 Garg, Attree & Kumar 2023	40 Mubarak et al. 2021	56 Aley 2010	73 JW Jackson 2005	90 Spector 2003	102 Choi, Kang & Choi 2021
7 Asif et al. 2023	24 Hussain et al. 2023	41 Mubarak, Khan & Osmadi 2022	57 Brown & Peterson 2022	74 C Johnson 2008	91 Stolberg 2015	103 Tuominen & Toivonen 2011
8 Bai et al. 2022	25 Musenze & Mayende 2023	42 Mulligan et al. 2021	58 Colvin 2014	75 Kanter 2010	92 Walsh 2021	104 Messman & Mulder 2012
9 Bracht et al. 2023	26 Zulfiqar et al. 2020	43 G Mustafa et al. 2022	59 Davies & Chun 2009	76 Kantor & Streitfeld 2015	93 Ward 2003	
10 Brunetto , Kominis & Ashton-Sayers 2023	27 Jia et al. 2022	44 MJ Mustafa, Hughes & Ramos 2022	60 Dishman 2015	77 Kawamoto & Yamamoto 2000	94 Weinberger & Leskin 2020	
11 Contreras , Soria-Barreto & Zuniga-Jara 2022	28 Al Wali, Muthuveloo & Teoh 2022	45 Mutmainnah et al. 2022	61 Downes, Russ & Ryan 2007	78 Kennedy 2016	95 Wertlauffer 2000	
12 Coun et al. 2021	29 MM Khan et al. 2021	46 Odugbesan et al. 2023	62 Dundes, Buitelaar & Streiff 2019	79 Lieberman 2005	96 Wohl 2016	
13 Dar, Kundi & Soomro 2023	30 MM Khan et al. 2022	47 Rafique et al. 2022	63 Dvorak 2013	80 MacCormack et al 2013	97 Yeung 2023	
14 Dayanti & Yulianti 2023	31 ud din Khan et al. 2023	48 Saleem et al 2023	64 Epstein-Reeves 2010	81 Malone 2021		
15 de Jong & den Hartog 2010	32 E Khan, Khan & Ahmed 2021	49 Kumari & Singla 2023	65 Flores 2021	82 McAndrew 2021		
16 De Spiegelaere, Van Gyes & Van Hootegem 2014	33 Khaola & Musiwa 2021	50 Haider et al. 2023	66 Fortune Editors 2016	83 Miklaszewicz 2023		
17 Desrumaux et al. 2022	34 K Kim 2022	51 Tan, Van Dun & Wilderom 2021	67 Gershon & Alhassan 2017	84 Mint 2023		

3.8.5 The Frameworks, and Attribution Theory

Weiner's (1986) theory states attributions are made about an event (outcome) that are perceived as negative, unexpected or important, and lead to the 'hypothesising' of a cause based on current and antecedent conditions. That cause may be internal or external to the actor, stable or unstable and controllable or uncontrollable by them. Emotional responses follow, but if the person considers the event to be outside their control, emotions such as anger/pity or shame/guilt may be experienced. If anger, then retaliation, neglect, reprimand or condemnation may ensue.

In their study of psychological entitlement, Harvey and Martinko (2009) provide the example of person (*p*) receiving a poor evaluation at work. The attribution process that follows is *p* receives a poor evaluation > experiences negative emotion > *p* attributes cause to another person's (*o*) incompetence > the cause is external–unstable–uncontrollable > being uncontrollable, anger may be elicited > *p* diminishes *o*. Further, Harvey and Martinko (2009) were able to demonstrate a relationship between the behaviours generated from this model, and workplace outcomes. It is proposed that the two data analysis frameworks show the antecedent conditions existing before attribution, the ensuing behaviour an actor engages in following attribution and the workplace outcomes arising from that behaviour.

3.9 Conclusion

This chapter introduced the study's methodology, including its constructivist paradigm and the use of a qualitative approach to identify the research methods for answering the research question. The systematic literature review examined LA and IWB articles, resulting in content to populate the data analysis frameworks for use in a pilot study. Following the pilot study's results and findings, the data analysis frameworks were further refined in preparation for use in data collection.

Chapter 4 outlines the context and content of the data collection stage based on the data collection protocol, ending with a clean database ready for analysis.

Chapter 4: Data Collection

4.1 Introduction

This chapter encompasses all aspects of the data collection process beginning at Section 4.2 with an overview of qualitative data collection, at 4.3 with an explanation of document analysis, at 4.4 that covers ethical considerations, at 4.5 with a description of the context for data collection, at 4.6 by elucidating on the development of the data collection protocol, at 4.7 through clarifying what constitutes data and at 4.8 detailing the data collection stages and steps. Section 4.9 summarises the key data collection factors.

4.2 Overview

The data collection method is determined by the study's research question, paradigm, design and approach (qualitative v. quantitative v. mixed methods) (Creswell 2018). Options for collecting data are influenced by the tension between the requirements for data integrity (quality) and having sufficient data to answer the research question. Considerations include document analysis, the case study, the interview, observation, ethnography and narrative inquiry, and the key question is 'Which method is best placed to provide usable data?' To date, only three studies (Coppola 2023; Demirbilek, Keser & Akpolat 2022; Jenkins 2015) have employed a qualitative approach in examining workplace arrogance, and these used phenomenological techniques, interviews and ethnography as their data collection methods. This study's research question seeks information about perceived leader behaviour and its impact on the innovating behaviour of employees in workplace settings. Because it was decided that evidence of arrogant leader behaviour and its impact would be best revealed through past, documented events, 'document analysis' was selected as the data collection method.

4.3 Document Analysis

Yin and Campbell (2018) discussed documentation that might be appropriate for document analysis in the form of 'emails, memoranda, letters, and other personal documents, such as diaries, calendars, and notes, agendas, announcements and minutes of meetings, and other reports of events, administrative documents, such as proposals, progress reports, and other internal records' (p. 113). However, it is unlikely these would provide evidence of an

individual's arrogant behaviour, except perhaps in confidential reports, such as performance reviews, appraisals or disciplinary actions. Yin (2018) did include news 'clippings' and other articles appearing in the mass media in his perspective of documentation, while his reference to formal studies and evaluations in relation to the case under study is taken to refer to studies other than academic literature, such as investigations or inquiries by government, educational and professional bodies.

4.4 Ethical Considerations

This study has been performed using the documentary analysis method, that is, data have been drawn from documents and not people. As arrogant behaviour may have negative rather than positive connotations, it is important to highlight the difference between arrogant behaviour and an arrogant person—the former indicates a potentially non-recurring act, and the latter, potentially a person's temperament. If it is non-recurring, the arrogant act was possibly triggered by context (state), but if there is a pattern of the same behaviour, it may indicate the trigger as a trait, or personality. Nevertheless, it is not the purpose of this study to 'label' any leaders as arrogant, but rather, to focus on the behaviours that comprise arrogance and aspects that precede and follow those behaviours. Names have been included as they appear on the documents used in the study, in order to ensure the integrity and perceived integrity of the data and the CEOs selected, and that this study is replicable.

All material reviewed in this study is available in publicly or academically published literature, and thus, participant confidentiality is not of concern. In all, 32 cases (or individual CEOs) have been identified and shown in the thesis and Appendices; comments or data attributed to any individual are only for substantiation purposes and drawn from the documents assembled for this study. The researcher did not seek information that could be considered privately or confidentially related to any individual or include irrelevant information in the analysis. Thus, the private lives of the CEOs were neither relevant nor included in this research.

4.5 Data Collection Context

The context for the research question was 'times of discontinuity', which organisationally refers to gaps and a lack of coherence in an organisation's operations and environment

owing to which the usual actions do not produce the expected results (Watson-Manheim, Chudoba & Crowston 2012). It also refers to sudden and pervasive changes in the course of events in the variables under observation (Deeg 2009).

Applying that context to the data collection process was achieved by limiting the industry sectors from which data were drawn to those operating in a VUCA environment. To achieve this, searches were conducted for cases operating only in innovative sectors (see Section 4.8.1.4 Step 4: Case Search). This was best informed by the Boston Consulting Group's 2021–2023 Most Innovative Companies reports (Ang 2021; Manly et al. 2021, 2022, 2023). It identified the most innovative sectors as technology, consumer goods and services, healthcare, transportation and energy, and media and telecommunications.

The literature has recognised the relationship between discontinuity and innovation through the concepts of 'do-better' and 'do-different' innovations—the former refers to innovation in a stable environment and the latter to a more fluid phase in which the environment is discontinuous (Bessant & Francis 2005; Corso, Martini & Pellegrini 2009). As Bessant and Francis (2005) asserted, the challenge in a time of discontinuity is to predict potential changes, especially technological change, and build the capability to address these with approaches and strategies tailored to the new environment.

It was intended that the context set for data collection, as described, incorporate this perspective of discontinuity such that only businesses working from a 'do-better' approach would be included in the study.

4.6 Data Collection Protocol

A protocol that facilitates the collection of relevant data (see Figure 8) must account for the collection method, the inclusion and exclusion criteria, such as data sources and the timeframe, search terms that will trigger the identification of relevant data, the expressed forms of data, the process of reviewing returned results, and the recording and organising of data for thematic analysis.

<u>Data Collection Protocol</u>							
Step	<u>Stage 1</u>						<u>Stage 2</u>
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Data Integrity	Data Source Criteria	Case Criteria	Case Search	Case Selection	Data Extraction	Data Integrity
Purpose	To identify what is required for data credibility	To determine acceptable sources	To identify criteria for potential cases	To find potential cases	To establish acceptable cases and supporting documents	To code relevant data segments in analysis software	To establish a clean database
Actions	Establish requirements	Determine inclusion & exclusion criteria	Determine selection criteria	Set data search terms Use search terms on each database Compile initial list	Select key search terms Apply search terms to each case Review each returned record for relevance Compile reviewed list of cases Obtain documents supporting selected cases	Load key documents into MAXQDA Review each document Code relevant segments	Determine data inclusion / exclusion criteria Review Stage 1 data for relevance Retain accepted data

Figure 12. Data Collection Protocol

4.7 Information that Constitutes Data

Attribution theory provides the basis for deciding whether data must reflect only firsthand experiences or can include third-party accounts. Weiner (1985), in explaining how people make sense of their own and others' behaviour, proposed that assigning causes to behaviours or events involves perceiving or observing behaviours, making judgements about the actor's intention (deliberate, or not) and attributing cause for a behaviour to the internal characteristics of the actor or to external circumstances. Individuals can perform this process as participants or observers, which also explains how people form judgements or views in which they have no direct involvement (e.g. forming opinions about high-profile people, such as Donald Trump). Thus, acceptable data include not only firsthand accounts where available, but also observations by third parties with the latter requiring confirmation of data through triangulation, as discussed in Section 4.8.1.

Given that LA and IWB comprise antecedents, behaviours and outcomes and these form the basis of the frameworks, two matters required attention. The first was about data collection, that is, whether content from a 'case' can be included if it does not comprise an antecedent, behaviour and outcome, and the second was whether a case can be included if does not have both LA and IWB content.

In response to the first point, which asks what constitutes LA or IWB, a 'test' using data from a commentary about Steve Jobs was performed, specifically the following: '[Jobs] was strongly convinced that he was right most—if not all—of the time' (Bariso 2016, p. 2). The statement was thought to reflect superiority or self-importance, namely, Jobs felt that as he was right, he had nothing to learn from others (antecedent), which also meant he was less inclined to listen to them or would ignore them (behaviour). This meets part of the aforementioned definition of arrogance but does not include the outcome, although the outcome would seem to be implicit or inferred (not directly observed), given the different accounts of Jobs's behaviour (Bariso 2016; Isaacson 2011; Valentine 2014). That is, it is clear that, at times, his actions had damaging impact on others, which originated from his sense that he knew best.

In this instance, it seems reasonable to accept that the outcome is implicit, and together with the antecedent and behaviour being identified in the statement, arrogance would appear to exist. However, what if any of the antecedent, behaviour or consequence is

implicit or inferred rather than being explicit? Would arrogance or IWB exist? To answer this question, all potential combinations of this situation are considered and displayed in Table 10.

Table 10. Potential Combinations for Leader Arrogance and Innovative Work Behaviour

Combination	Antecedent	Behaviour	Outcome	LA/IWB?
1	E	E	I	Y
2	E	I	E	N
3	I	E	E	Y
4	I	I	E	N
5	E	I	I	N
6	I	E	I	Y

Legend: E = Explicit; I = Implicit; LA = Leader Arrogance' IWB = Innovative Work Behaviour.

For LA, an implicit or inferred antecedent would occur when an arrogant act has been experienced with no knowledge of it by the recipient, or others, of the actor having felt-superiority, entitlement or self-importance. An explicit arrogance antecedent would of course be one in which the antecedent was known. However, by definition (Johnson, RE et al. 2010), arrogance requires the existence of an antecedent condition, and whether the antecedent is implied or known becomes superfluous for the current purpose. Furthermore, given that arrogance cannot be present in the absence of the observed or experienced arrogant act, combinations 2, 4 and 5 in Table 10 must be removed. Combination 3 remains as it is explicit for both behaviour and outcome, leaving '6', which mirrors the earlier example of Steve Jobs (Combination 1) and thus meets the criteria for arrogance. In essence, arrogance would be deemed to exist if there is evidence of arrogant behaviour and either an implied or explicit outcome.

Similarly, the IWB literature confirms IWB does not occur in the absence of an antecedent (the literature review revealed 56 antecedents to 40 behaviours). Adopting the same approach as that for LA, IWB would be considered to exist if there is evidence of the behaviour, and the outcome were either explicit or implicit. Significantly, the literature around outcomes is somewhat thin, and of the articles reviewed for this study, only that by

de Jong and den Hartog (2010) identified any, which possibly reflects the focus of IWB research.

Thus, for data collection purposes, behaviours and explicit/implicit outcomes have been considered to constitute LA and IWB.

4.8 Data Collection

4.8.1 Stage 1

4.8.1.1 Step 1: Data Integrity

In defining information that constitutes acceptable data, the proposition that both firsthand accounts and third-party observations of arrogant behaviour are accepted as data has been made. Another issue is whether attributions of organisational (or institutional) arrogance indicate LA and therefore constitute acceptable data. Specifically, should organisational arrogance be attributed to its leader? In 2015, Apple Inc. was engaged in an issue of warranty support for its iPhone in Mainland China (Evans 2013). Apart from the politics involved, Apple was reported as being arrogant in their response to the problem—‘the ever-arrogant Apple’ (The Economist 2013, p. 2)—not Tim Cook, the CEO. Nevertheless, should that arrogance be attributed to Cook even though he apparently did not directly say or do anything that could be perceived as arrogant? An argument supporting this position is that leaders create their organisation’s culture and working environment that provide the context for subordinate leaders’ and employees’ behaviour and decisions (Macdonald, Burke & Stewart 2018; Schein 1990). Further, organisational environments reflect the people who lead them (Haan, Britt & Weinstein 2007). Thus, it can be asserted that the ‘arrogant’ attribution should be made of Cook, not Apple, and in support of that suggestion, it was Cook as CEO who apologised to Chinese customers, not Apple.

If this argument is accepted, then accounts of ‘organisational’ arrogance should be attributed to the CEO. In contrast, and using the Apple example, the background to the iPhone warranty issue was found to be a lack of parity with other countries (Boudreau 2013), which was the ‘arrogant’ act. That is, it could be perceived that the Chinese were being treated as ‘lesser’ than those from other countries potentially based on unfounded assumptions about what they needed (Ford 2009). Thus, it is critical to understand the context of an event before deciding whether it reflects arrogant behaviour. To ensure a

‘clean’ dataset, this example serves to confirm that when arrogance is attributed to an organisation rather than its leader, the circumstances leading to that attribution need to be clarified, and if that is not possible, such data should be excluded.

Triangulation

To establish data credibility, triangulation was employed to validate the data (Carter, N et al. 2014; Flick 2017). Triangulation involves using multiple sources to confirm content, and second, establishing inclusion and exclusion criteria for data sources to ensure they are credible, authentic and reliable. Triangulation is considered effective when saturation (nothing new is added) is achieved (Fusch & Ness 2015).

4.8.1.2 Step 2: Data Source Criteria

The inclusion criteria were as follows. LA and IWB must have occurred since 2000, although pre-2000 behaviour can be referenced if it has continued past 2000. That behaviour of someone in a leadership role could be either observed or experienced and must meet this study’s definition of arrogance¹ and IWB. The behaviour can include a single comment or a set of events that reflect the leader’s known behaviour.²

Preliminary searches demonstrated that although academic sources are preferred, only a few studies have been able to provide evidence of actual LA behaviours. However, where available they were used. Given the dearth of academic papers, non-academic sources have been included but with the understanding that this study is only interested in content that relates to LA behaviour and IWB, as news media and magazines can have political or other agendas.

Documents were screened for bias and to identify whether they originate from established news organisations, guided by Burkhardt’s (2022) study on media legitimacy and the *AllSides Media Bias Chart* (AllSides 2024). The latter was used to understand political leanings where necessary, such as when a source seemed unnecessarily critical of a leader,

¹ The integrity of data is critical, especially when there are no peer-reviewed or similar processes applied to what is reported. For instance, how does one know the alleged conduct occurred?

² Prime Minister Albanese (2022, 5 December) was reported on SkyNews to have said in response to the SA Premier’s support for nuclear energy, ‘I have a great deal of respect for Mali [Peter Malinauskas], but everyone’s entitled to get one or two things wrong’. <https://www.skynews.com.au/australia-news/politics/labor-divided-over-nuclear-as-anthony-albanese-and-tanya-plibersek-reject-sa-premier-peter-malinauskas-energy-push/news-story/92242b0766943a2be8a24a66dd9c4860>

which reflected potential political bias that may disqualify their article for this study's purposes.

4.8.1.2.1 Inclusion

This study included the following data sources:

1. Academic sources:
 - a. peer-reviewed articles
 - b. dissertations
 - c. books and book chapters
 - d. conference proceedings
 - e. reviews and reports
2. Non-academic sources:
 - a. professional and business articles
 - b. news media reports from newspapers and magazines
 - c. website resources
 - d. videos
 - e. reports from industry, educational and government bodies
 - f. interview records

4.8.1.2.2 Exclusion

For the purposes of this study, social media content was not considered acceptable content for it is outside the scope of this thesis, given that it would require a different methodology (data mining). Nevertheless, it would be an area for future research. The following data sources were excluded:

1. Opinion-based content:
 - a. social media
 - b. blogs
 - c. essay and academic coaching materials
2. Single-source documents (may be accepted if peer-reviewed)

3. Unvalidated information, such as an opinion, or information that does not rely on evidence from an observer or victim³
4. Documents discussing mental illness or physical abuse

4.8.1.3 Step 3: Case Criteria

Following the pilot study, the decision was taken to focus on individual leader behaviour and that if data in the organisation or team context emerged, these would be considered if these could be reasonably attributed to the leader (see Section 3.7.5.3). This approach also reflects the focus of arrogance research, which is about individual behaviour, whereas, to date, only two scholarly papers have examined the idea of ‘collective’ arrogance (Roe 2023; Tanesini 2023).

Given that the ‘cases’ are individual business leaders, identifying potential leaders required the establishment of selection criteria, as follows:

Key criteria

1. Only cases from the business domain were considered, given this thesis is undertaken within the College of Business, Government and Law. Second, only CEOs were reviewed, as leaders of their organisations; third, those leaders must have or had a publicly available profile (since it enhances data availability) and fourth, their businesses must be known as innovative workplaces, as referred to in Section 4.5.
2. Cases within the period 2000 to 2024 were included.
3. Evidence may be drawn from academic and non-academic sources, that is, from the white and grey literature, but must be triangulated.
4. At its most basic level, the potential evidence needs to demonstrate the individual (case) being examined was in a leadership role, there were occasions when others perceived that person to behave arrogantly (see the data analysis framework in Section 3.8 for the list of these behaviours) and that behaviour, in turn, affected the IWB of those in the workplace, that is, it needs to originate from an environment in which both LA and IWB could arise.

³ Meaning that a proposition without supporting evidence cannot be accepted. Evidence must be verifiable.

5. Documented accounts of arrogant behaviour and its consequences in preliminary searches and the pilot study indicated that such evidence was limited. It would either be found within organisations (e.g. performance reviews or disciplinary actions) or outside of them. Access to organisational records or employees' personal accounts (interviews) requires a different methodological approach than is used here. That leaves finding the evidence in documents that are publicly, professionally or academically sourced such as academic publications, case studies (academic or business), trade and professional magazines or journals, and media articles (news and magazines).
6. The data would be written or verbal (e.g. public interviews) accounts of perceived LA together with an indication of its outcomes. It would include words, quotations, phrases, sentences, paragraphs and pages.

4.8.1.4 Step 4: Case Search

This step was designed to find potential cases. The initial searches on databases, Google Scholar and Google using phrases such as 'arrogant leaders of the 21st century' returned no records, and on Microsoft Bing, resulted in four generic responses. Further, the pilot study demonstrated that few business leaders who have been perceived to behave arrogantly in the workplace have been publicly named as such (Steve Jobs being an exception). Together, these demonstrate that to find arrogant leader behaviour, it is first necessary to identify a leader and then search for evidence.

To identify such leaders, and using the criteria (see criterion '1' in the previous section: potential leaders with a public profile operating in innovative work sectors), the following search terms were entered into databases and search engines:

1. Prominent and influential business leaders of the 21st century
2. Business leaders of the 21st century with a public profile
3. Business scandals of the 21st century
4. Worst CEOs of the 21st century
5. Innovative CEOs of the 21st century
6. Innovative businesses of the 21st century

By searching for innovative businesses and sectors, IWB may be assumed as an operating requirement of the businesses in which the leaders worked, that is, these organisational leaders would encourage IWB.

The searches resulted in the following 38 cases, which were reduced to 28 after reviewing evidence of LA, as shown in Table 11. Additional cases (marked with an asterisk) were identified when reviewing documents (snowballing). Then, a search was conducted on each individual for information about their leadership and potential arrogant behaviour.

The search criteria were devised to be purposefully broad enough to enhance the representativeness of the leader sample without loading it in one direction (i.e. being so narrow that the same type of leader is selected). Further, the representation of female leaders at 12.1% (see Table 11) approximates the percentage of female CEOs as at 2023 (S&P Global 2023).

Table 11. Selected Cases

Key Person	Organisation	Industry	Period	Role	Focus
Bernie Ebbers ^{7,9}	WorldCom	Telecom	1985–2002	CEO	Fraud
Bill Gates ^{3,4}	Microsoft	Tech	1975–2000	CEO	Leadership
Bob Iger ^{1,3}	Disney	Media	2005–2020; 2022 to present	CEO	Leadership
Carly Fiorina ⁹	Hewlett-Packard	Tech	1999–2005	CEO	Business performance
David Zaslav ¹¹	Warner Bros Discovery	Media	2006 to present	CEO	Merger failure
Dennis Kozlowski ⁷	Tyco	Tech	1992–2002	CEO	Fraud
Donald Blankenship*	Massey	Energy	2000–2010	CEO	Safety violation
Elizabeth Holmes ^{1,2,8,11}	Theranos	Healthcare	2003–2018	CEO	Wire fraud
Elon Musk ^{1,4}	Tesla; Space X	Transport; Tech	2008 to present	Owner	Leadership
Jacques Nasser*	Ford	Transport	1998–2001	CEO	Business performance
Jeff Bezos ³	Amazon	Consumer	1994–2021	CEO	Leadership
Kenneth Lay ^{7,8,9}	Enron	Energy	1985–2001	CEO	Financial collapse

Larry Ellison ³	Oracle	Software	1977–2014	CEO	Leadership
Mark Zuckerberg ^{3,4,6,11}	Facebook (Meta)	Tech	2004 to present	CEO	Leadership
Mary Barra ¹	General Motors	Transport	2014 to present	CEO	Leadership
Marissa Mayer ^{2,6,8}	Yahoo	Tech	2012–2017	CEO	Business performance
Mark Pincus ⁶	Zynga	Tech	2007–2014	CEO	Leadership
Martin Winterkorn ²	Volkswagen	Transport	2007–2015	CEO	Emissions scandal
Meg Whitman ^{1,3,6}	eBay Hewlett-Packard	Consumer/Tech	1998–2008 2011–2015	CEO	Leadership
Michael Eisner*	Disney	Media	1984–2005	CEO	Leadership
Peter Hebblethwaite ¹¹	P&O Ferries	Transport	2021 to present	CEO	3-minute firing
Reed Hastings ^{1,2}	Netflix	Media	1998–2020	CEO	Leadership
Richard Scrushy ⁷	HealthSouth	Healthcare	1984–2003	CEO	Fraud
Robert Nardelli ⁹	Home Depot	Consumer goods	2000–2007	CEO	Business performance
Rupert Murdoch ³	News Limited	Media	1980–2013	CEO	Hacking scandal
Steve Ballmer*	Microsoft	Tech	2000–2014	CEO	Leadership
Steve Jobs ^{1,3}	Apple	Tech	1997–2011	CEO	Leadership
Tim Armstrong ⁶	AOL	Tech	2009–2016	CEO	Leadership
Tim Cook ⁶	Apple	Tech	2011 to present	CEO	Leadership
Thorsten Heins ⁶	Blackberry	Tech	2012–2013	CEO	Leadership
Tony Hayward ⁵	British Petroleum (BP)	Energy	2007–2010	CEO	BP Deepwater Horizon
Travis Kalanick ^{1,8}	Uber	Transport	2010–2017	CEO	Leadership

Legend

1 CMOE n.d.	2 Fortune Editors 2016	3 Groth & Bhasin 2011	4 Martin, Loudenback & Pipia 2016	5 Kavoussi 2013	6 JW Jackson 2013
7 Rodriguez 2013	8 The Human Capital n.d.	9 Toscano 2014	10 Travers 2019	11 Walsh 2023	

Note: Cases marked with an * were added via snowballing.

4.8.1.5 Step 5: Case Selection

Database, Google Scholar, Google and Bing document searches were undertaken initially using the individual CEO's name with the word 'arrogance'. Records returned through this process were screened for relevance; namely, a search for 'arrogance or arrogant' using the abbreviated term 'arrog' was conducted on each record. The article was then scanned to identify the context in which the term arrogance, and its antecedents, behaviours or outcomes were used; if it appeared, it was related to the CEO in question, and the article was accepted for final review. A total of 213 records were identified at this point. The final review involved reading the article, chapter or paper and deciding whether it contained data relevant to the research question. A total of 148 articles remained following this step. Table 12 shows the category into which each document for each case fitted.

Table 12. Case × Data Source

Data Source Category	Academic Journal Peer-Reviewed	Academic/Scholarly Publication / Conference Proceedings	Academic Thesis / Case Study	Professional / Trade Journal or Magazine	Book / Book Chapter /Review	Research Centre	Business / News Magazine	Daily News Media	Total
Case									
Bernie Ebbers	0	1	0	0	2	0	0	0	3
Bill Gates	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	3	4
Bob Iger	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	1	4
Carly Fiorina	0	2	0	1	0	0	0	0	3
David Zaslav	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	3
Dennis Kozlowski	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	3
Donald Blankenship	0	1	0	0	0	0	2	1	4
Elizabeth Holmes	1	2	0	3	1	0	3	3	13
Elon Musk	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	3
Jacques Nasser	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	3
Jeff Bezos	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	4	6
Kenneth Lay	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	4
Larry Ellison	0	2	0	1	0	0	0	0	3
Marissa Mayer	0	1	0	0	0	0	2	1	4
Mark Pincus	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	1	3
Mark Zuckerberg	0	0	0	0	2	1	1	1	5
Mary Barra	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	2	4

Martin Winterkorn	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	2	5
Meg Whitman	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	2	3
Michael Eisner	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	2	6
Peter Hebblethwaite	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	3	4
Reed Hastings	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	3
Richard Scrusby	0	1	0	2	1	0	0	0	0	4
Robert Nardelli	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	3
Rupert Murdoch	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	2	5
Steve Ballmer	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	3
Steve Jobs	1	1	1	2	0	0	0	7	0	12
Tim Cook	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	3
Tim Armstrong	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	2	5
Thorsten Heins	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	3	5
Tony Hayward	0	0	0	1	4	0	0	0	0	5
Travis Kalanick	0	2	1	0	1	0	0	2	3	9
Multiple leaders	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
Total	6	20	4	20	16	2	35	45	148	
Percentage	4	14	2	14	11	1	24	30	100	
Grouped Percentages		20%		25%		1%	54%		100	

Note: Data segment codes from documents labelled 'multiple' are dispersed among leaders.

4.8.1.6 Step 6: Data Extraction

4.8.1.6.1 Criteria

Articles were screened using the definitions of LA and IWB factors, which are presented in Tables 2 and 3.

4.8.1.6.2 Process

1. Documents were imported into the MAXQDA software and reviewed three times, in line with the earlier conclusion that arrogance and IWB exist when relevant behaviour has been observed and outcomes are either implicit or explicit (see Section 4.7 on ‘Information that Constitute Data’). The reviews were conducted at different time intervals to facilitate the identification of data relevant to LA and IWB.
2. Each document was examined using the content of the updated data analysis frameworks, and the explanations and definitions that they were drawn from; there were originally 253 LA and 97 IWB antecedents, behaviours and outcomes, that is, a total of 350 identified in the systematic literature reviews.
3. As the pilot study showed, more than four code levels comprised data clarity, only four code levels were used mirroring the data analysis frameworks, that is, LA or IWB at the parent code level, second the antecedent, behaviour or outcome followed at the third level by the relevant sub-category and fourth the actual items. When a segment was identified and coded, a relevant item descriptor was chosen from Table A1 or A2 and recorded against that code as a comment. This was done so that it could be shown how data segments connected to the systematic literature reviews and documents, and to provide a deeper level of analysis. For instance, the systematic literature review revealed seven different antecedents that comprised the code ‘superiority/elitism’. There were 20 data segments for this code, and each had one of the eight antecedents assigned to it. This information was used in the subsequent analysis.
4. After the final review, there were 862 data segments from 148 documents and 32 cases.

4.8.2 Data Informing the Framework

Although the data analysis frameworks were constructed by using the information from the systematic literature reviews, the data from both LA and IWB cases suggest a number of gaps. In essence, the literature has focused on one aspect of LA and IWB, whereas in practice, the data show that there are other facets to be considered. For example, Elizabeth Holmes's leadership style is described as 'autocratic or authoritarian' (Dundes, Buitelaar & Streiff 2019), yet this style of leadership did not arise in the IWB systematic literature review. Similarly, 'a creative, innovative work environment' did not arise from the literature, but this was very much a part of the environment Steve Jobs was said to have created in Apple (Isaacson 2011).

The decision was made that factors identified in the data, but not in the SL literature, would be incorporated into the data analysis framework if they informed that framework. Given this decision, the following account provides changes made to the frameworks.

In LA outcomes, the category 'Business damage' did not list financial failure or loss, yet this arose 10 times in the documents. As aforementioned, although there were numerous styles of leadership listed in the IWB framework, it did not include autocratic or authoritarian leadership, but there were 11 data segments reflecting this style of leadership. A last example is that there were 22 data segments reflecting toxic or dysfunctional work environments, yet this too was not within the IWB framework. In all, a further 33 antecedents, behaviours and outcomes were added to the two frameworks comprising 22 for LA (three antecedents, six behaviours and 12 outcomes) and 11 antecedents for IWB, resulting in a total of 383 items. (see Section 3.8.4). These are shown in Table A3 (see the Appendices). Tables A1 and A2 in the Appendices were updated to include these additions. The data analysis frameworks on pages 101-102 and 103-104 include the additional elements, which are marked accordingly.

A further issue arose with the IWB framework in the 'Individual' category as it comprised items about follower arrogance, yet this study's focus is on LA. Consequently, the IWB framework was amended to exclude the 'Individual' category and replace it with a 'Leader Characteristics' section comprising 'leader attributes', 'productive leader behaviour', 'unproductive leader behaviour' and 'leader incivility'. The last reflected 'work incivility', which arose in the systematic literature review, and it represented low-level deviant

behaviour by a leader. Following this change, the IWB framework consisted of sections on ‘Organisation’, ‘Leadership Style’ and ‘Leadership Characteristics’—see Table 9 for the updated framework. To complete this change, all antecedents within the previous ‘Individual’ category were reviewed by referral to the original article to confirm they were associated with leaders rather than followers, and if the latter, they were removed from the framework. The remainder were allocated to relevant leader style and characteristics categories, as shown in Table 9.

Both updated data analysis frameworks were applied to the content identified in Step 6, and then synthesised, interpreted, recorded and prepared for the manual CTA and the analysis using the MAXQDA software.

Regarding IWB, very few cases have been reported in scholarly (or other), articles, papers and books that have examples of the actual IWBs people engage in as a result of LA, or arrogant behaviour. The systematic literature review of IWB identified conceptual papers that discussed the types of actions employees might engage in and the impact of those behaviours, but it did not identify empirical studies. This lack is also reflected in data collected about CEOs; that is, in about 90% of the content, arrogance and leadership are discussed, rather than arrogance, leadership and IWB. An exception might be Steve Jobs’s behaviour, labelled as arrogant and toxic, which ended up inspiring employees rather than diminishing them. Nevertheless, this example is rare and suggests that future research into the impact of CEO leadership behaviour on employee IWB examine actual behaviours and their effects on business performance.

4.8.3 Stage 2

Data Integrity

The purpose of Stage 2 is to establish a clean database for analysis, and it included the following actions:

1. The data analysis frameworks were updated, as indicated in Section 4.8.2.
2. The Stage 1 data were reviewed for accuracy, relevance and code duplication; if multiple sources had made the precise same comment with the same intent, only one coded segment representing those comments was retained. The process review steps were:

- i. Code-segment data were downloaded from MAXQDA as an excel spreadsheet labelled 'Coded Segments'. Data were organised by document group (consumer, technology, healthcare, transportation and energy, and media and telecom), document name and code. The code name comprised four factors, namely, either LA or IWB, followed by the term antecedent, behaviour or outcome; the category it belonged to in the data analysis framework; and last, the individual antecedent, behaviour or outcome (e.g. *Leader Arrogance > Behaviour > Aggressive > Belittle*). The codes are structured in MAXQDA in this manner.
- ii. To facilitate the content review, potential duplicate entries (where multiple entries reflected the same point) were identified and grouped, and the codes were checked to ensure they were correctly applied. The data segment entries were then organised by document group and code (in alphabetical order).
- iii. Each entry was reviewed using the updated data analysis frameworks (see Tables 8 and 9) and the Lists of LA and IWB antecedents, behaviours and outcome (in Tables A1 and A2, respectively). Along with identifying and later removing duplicates, this is the critical step that ensures data integrity, and thus required added time, scrutiny and consideration.
- iv. Each entry was highlighted as accepted (green), changed (yellow) or deleted (pink).
- v. Reasons for changes were recorded in the 'actions' column and new or changed antecedents, behaviours or outcomes recorded in the 'comments' column.
- vi. During this review step, the data segment entries were also reviewed to ensure they only represented a single antecedent, behaviour or outcome. When this was not the case, the segment was highlighted (yellow) for change and the corrective action recorded.
- vii. As outlined in Section 4.8.2 (Data Informing the Frameworks), a further change implemented during this process was the creation of new antecedents, behaviours and outcomes based on the content in the relevant data segment if it was clear that they were absent from Tables A1 and A2. When identified, the new antecedent, outcomes and behaviours were added to the LA and IWB data analysis frameworks and recorded in Tables A1 and A2 of the LA and IWB antecedents, behaviours and outcomes, respectively, along with a

definition drawn from the data if available, as well as entered into Table A3. The change was also recorded on the Coded Segments spreadsheet; for example, the code for ‘autocratic/authoritarian leadership’ was *Innovative Work Behaviour > Antecedent > Leadership > Autocratic/Authoritarian Leadership*, and it was added to the spreadsheet. Following this addition, relevant data segments were then assigned this code.

- viii. Duplicates were removed from the spreadsheet and other highlighted code changes made.
- ix. Segment frequencies, that is, the number of times an argument or point was repeated/confirmed (triangulation), were recorded.
- x. The spreadsheet was ordered by case (leader) to facilitate uploading the data segments to MAXQDA, which was then completed. Initially, there were 862 entries, each representing an individual data segment identified from 148 documents. This reduced to 745 data segments following the final review.
- xi. One segment was found during the review to have been allocated to the wrong categories and factors. This was amended in the database within MAXQDA in preparation for the Stage 2 analysis.
- xii. Data segments could apply to single and multiple antecedents, behaviours and outcomes. For example, the following segment was assigned to the ‘sadistic behaviour’, ‘leader incivility’, ‘inconsiderate’ and ‘toxic work environment’ codes:

Those who know Jobs best and worked with him most closely—and I have talked to hundreds of them over the years—were always struck by his abrasive personality, his unapologetic brutality. He cried, he stomped his feet. He had a cruel way of driving employees to the breaking point and tossing them aside; few people ever wanted to work with him twice. (Valentine 2014, p. 107)

- xiii. Although items were added to the frameworks, certain codes (items in MAXQDA) either did not have allocated data segments or had less than six.⁴ For LA, eight antecedents had less than six data segments, including four that had nil; behaviours had 22, including three that were nil; and outcomes had

⁴ This number was selected after scrutinising the output to ensure that the code maps could divulge trends without being obscured by the ‘noise’ of too many low-frequency codes.

five and one nil. For IWB, there were 10 antecedents with less than six data segments, including five nil; eight behaviours including six nil; and six outcomes, four of which were nil. In total, 23 codes—eight from LA and 15 from IWB—did not have data segments attached (see Table A5). For LA, in particular, the individual antecedent category had 12 data segments, and interestingly, self-esteem, which according to the literature (Cowan et al. 2019; Dillon 2007; Johnson, RE et al. 2010; Tanesini 2018) is a predominant antecedent to arrogance, did not have a data segment allocated to it. This issue was a matter for consideration in the following analysis.

4.9 Conclusion

A data collection protocol was established (Figure 12) to guide the data collection process in order to ensure that a clean dataset was available for analysis. There were two stages, comprising processes to ensure data integrity, data source and case selection, case search and data extraction. Once these were completed, further steps were taken to ensure that only data that met specific Stage 2 data inclusion and exclusion criteria, were included.

As the data were being collected, it became apparent that there was content that the data analysis frameworks would not identify (e.g. bullying did not arise from the systematic literature reviews but occurred 11 times in the data). After concluding that it was a behaviour that fits with arrogance behaviours, it was included in the LA framework. In all, 22 items were added to LA and 11 to IWB on this basis.

The key aspect of data collection was ensuring the integrity of the sources and data, which was addressed through triangulation, understanding political bias and establishing relevant inclusion and exclusion criteria for document searches. The case selection criteria targeted CEOs of innovative organisations identified through a Boston Consulting Group annual report on innovative companies and industries, which included the technology, consumer goods and services, healthcare, transportation and energy, and media and telecommunications industries. Only cases from these industries were included, resulting in 38 cases, which was reduced to 28 when it was clear there was no evidence of LA in nine cases. Four cases were added later after searching the documents accumulated from the original 28 cases, that is, through snowballing. A total of 213 documents were initially identified, which was reduced to 148 according to their relevance to the research question.

All documents and cases were loaded into MAXQDA, which served as the database both for the manual and the computer-assisted data analyses.

The next chapter details the manual and digital analysis of data, including outcomes.

Chapter 5: Data Analysis

5.1 Introduction

The purpose of this analysis is to determine how the collected data discussed in Chapter 4 may answer the research question. The data are in dialogue and text form, and hence, category theme analysis (CTA) was identified as the appropriate technique to derive categories, themes and meaning (Daffy & McMurray 2015). Section 5.2 introduces CTA as the method to interpret data; Section 5.3 is the manual analysis of data; Section 5.4 is the analysis of data using MAXQDA software, and Section 5.5 combines both analyses; Section 5.6 summarises the Chapter.

5.2 Category Theme Analysis

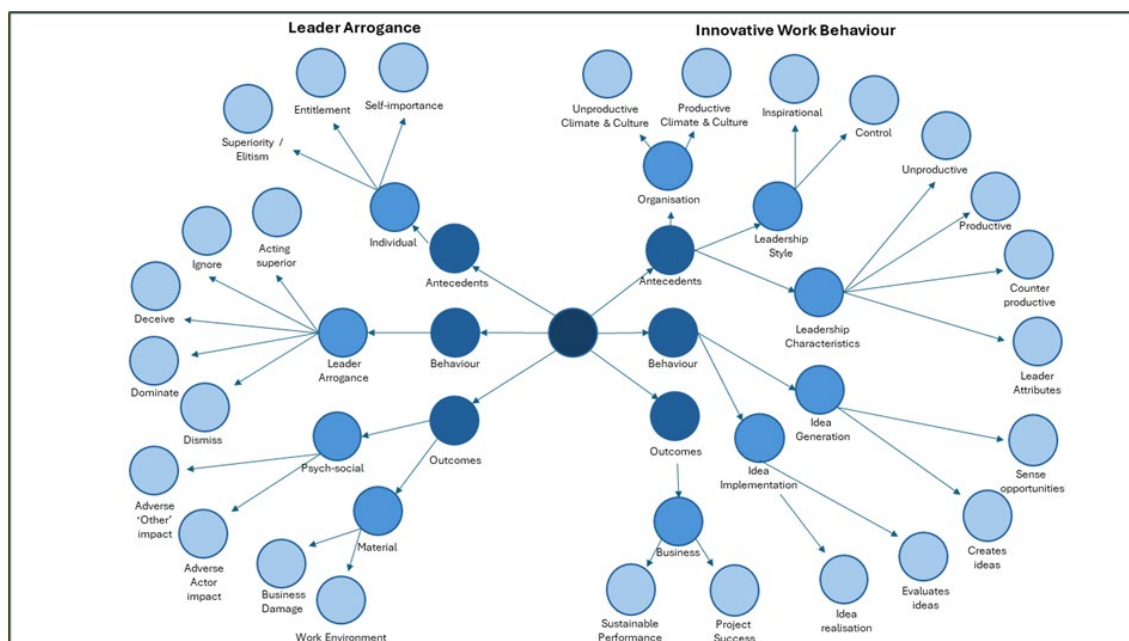
CTA was chosen as the most effective method to identify patterns, relationships and themes in answering the research question, given that this study has used documentation as its source of data. As distinct from thematic analysis, in a CTA, data are first organised into categories and subcategories, according to the characteristics and content considered important to answering the research question (Morse 2008), and then, themes, patterns and relationships are explored. CTA is an ordered approach that allows categories and data to be compared and contrasted at levels significant to the research question.

As would be expected, both the manual analysis and the analysis via MAXQDA were conducted using only the data collected for this study. The reason for reiterating this point is that there is readily available information about the cases/leaders tangential to, but not included, in the data. Any peripheral data were ignored—for instance, although it is known that many CEOs were removed from their roles, if that information was not included in the data, it was not assumed.

A further aspect of this study is that it accounts for 383 different elements related to LA and IWB. The key elements following analysis are shown in Figure 13, organised into the four levels in which they situate and as shown in Tables 8 and 9, and discussed in Section 4.8.1.6.2. The inner dark blue circle represents the connection between LA and IWB, the next layer is designed to differentiate the later elements by antecedent, behaviour and outcomes. The third layer reflects the categories of the data analysis frameworks, and the

last layer, the actual antecedent, behaviour and outcome items that the analyses determined had multiple data segments signalling strong relationships with other elements. The description of each is provided in Tables A1 and A2 in the Appendices.

The elements in the light blue circles (positioned on the outside) are those the study intends to understand in terms of relationships to in order to inform the research question. These were sourced from both systematic literature reviews then by constructing the data analysis frameworks according to those reviews, and last, by testing the data against the frameworks. In sum, if any relationship is found between LA and IWB, it should emerge from the elements and factors in Figure 13.



Source: Author's own creation

Figure 13. Key Elements in the Leader Arrogance – Innovative Work Behaviour Relationship (Adapted from Streuer 2020)

Last, both analyses relied on the content derived from documents in the form of data segments as well as on the wider content of each document. Data segments were created by applying the LA and IWB frameworks to each document, namely, each document was scrutinised to identify any content that might fit within the frameworks, and if found, was assigned a code within the MAXQDA database. Hence, both analyses were conducted by using the same information, but in the manual analysis, the reliance was on identifying

patterns, associations (connection between factors or concepts), meaning and relationships through the data, whereas in the analysis via the MAXQDA software, digital technology was used to do the same.

5.3 Manual Analysis

The LA and IWB frameworks were constructed by using the findings from the systematic review of the selected studies and act as a concise summary of their content and findings. In applying those frameworks to documents that comprise accounts of CEO activities and behaviour, the frameworks act to test the literature against actual events. In so doing, the results provide information about the relationship between theory and practice in this study’s context, as well as information about actual LA and IWB in practice.

The manual analysis relied on frequency data, document content and interpretation of data segments (as identified via MAXQDA). To better understand the nature of the data, the frequencies are provided in Table 13, which indicate whether the data are allocated to antecedents, behaviours or outcomes; Tables 14 and 15 provide more details about the same data.

5.3.1 Frequencies

By themselves, the frequencies confirm most components of LA and IWB from the literature, that is, they show that observations about LA in practice tend to reflect the findings in the literature. However, this is not the case regarding the IWB antecedents because they differ between the data and the literature—there is a greater emphasis on negative accounts in the data, which include accounts about the organisational climate and culture, leadership style and leader behaviour. In addition, the accounts of IWB behaviours and outcomes tend to reflect the literature more in the case of conceptual, rather than empirical, studies, although those data are minimal.

Table 13. Data Segments × Antecedent–Behaviour–Outcome

	Antecedent		Behaviour		Outcome		Total	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Frequencies (F) & Percentages (%)								
Leader arrogance	47	10	325	68	104	22	476	64
Innovative work behaviour	192	71	50	19	27	10	269	36

Total	239	32	375	50	131	18	745	100
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In Table 14, of the 476 LA coded data segments, 325 (68%) are in behaviours, 104 (22%) in outcomes and 47(10%) in antecedents. There are 192 (71%) IWB antecedents, 50 (19%) behaviours and 27 (10%) outcomes. There are significantly more coded data segments (64%) for LA than for IWB, and most of these are in behaviours and outcomes, whereas for IWB, most are in antecedents.

Tables 14 and 15 provide detailed data frequencies by category and code; however, only codes with attributed data segments are included. For LA, the major antecedent is ‘superiority/elitism’, and for behaviours, it is ‘dominate’, but there are four others of significance, namely, ‘acting superior’, ‘deceive’, ‘ignore’ and ‘disdain’, and for outcomes, there are three: ‘adverse actor impact’, ‘adverse “others” impact’ and ‘business damage’.

That most LA antecedents were not frequently found in the data is unsurprising, particularly as individual aspects of the antecedents, such as a person’s inner beliefs and challenges, are usually not on display, and rather, are to be inferred. Further, given the nature of the data, namely, inner beliefs, sources such as journalistic accounts, professional articles and academic papers may not examine these in relation to a named individual. Thus, superiority-elitism, entitlement and self-importance may best be inferred through individuals’ actions.

LA behaviour is of particular interest as the five behaviours with the highest frequency of coded data segments account for 44% of all segments assigned to this category. If behaviours with more than 10 data segments are included (i.e. ‘initiate, dismiss, disrespect and inconsiderate’, totalling 56 data segments), then they account for more than 60% of LA behaviours. This finding is significant in terms of providing a clearer understanding of behaviours that imply arrogance and may be helpful if developing an instrument that more easily identifies arrogance.

The outcomes for LA predominantly indicate its adverse effects for people and businesses. Interestingly, it demonstrates that the major impact is on the actor, which may be established on examining longevity in the CEO role. In all, 18 of the 32 CEOs in this study were removed from this role by their board, and on examining their LA behaviours, it was found that all but two had data segments with two or more of the nine most frequent LA behaviours (dominate and deceive).

For IWB, the significant antecedents include ‘unproductive climate and culture’, ‘unproductive leader behaviour’ and ‘productive leader behaviour’; for behaviours, it is ‘create ideas/solutions’ and ‘realisation: turns intention into reality’; and for outcomes, it is ‘sustainable economic performance’ and ‘project success’.

Table 14. Leader Arrogance Frequencies

Antecedents		Behaviours						Outcomes	
State	F	Negative	F	Incivility	F	Aggressive	F	Psycho-social	F
Environment	4	Acting superior	22	Blame	5	Belittle	13	Adverse actor impact	25
Individual		Aloof	1	Condescend	3	Dominate	51	Adverse 'others' impact	19
Self-confidence	4	Arrogate	7	Deceive	28	Hostile	14	Beneficial actor impact	4
Distortion	1	Avoid	5	Denigrate	1	Humiliate	6	Beneficial 'others' impact	3
Self-enhancement	3	Demanding	3	Diminish	5	Offend	2	Material	
Comparative		Dogmatic	4	Disdain	20	Oppress	4	Eroded relationships	1
Superiority/Elitism	20	Initiate	13	Dismiss	12	Punish	6	Compromised engagement	1
Entitlement	7	Knowledge-hiding	1	Disparage	5	Sadistic	3	Toxic work environment	11
Self-importance	8	Not listening	3	Disrespect	15			Poor business performance	4
		Self-enhance	5	Distort	2			Poor individual performance	1
		Self-important	10	Inconsiderate	16			Business damage	24
		Self-regard	7	Ignore	23			Detriment to brand	11
				Obdurate	3				
				Overbearing manner	4				
				Shun	3				
S/Total	47		81		145		99		104
								Total	476

Note:

1. For readability, 'Behaviours' are presented in three, rather than one, column because of the high number of coded results.
2. 'F' is for frequencies

Table 15. Innovative Work Behaviour Frequencies

Antecedents		Behaviours		Outcomes	
Organisation	F	Idea Generation	F	Business	F
Productive Climate & Culture	15	Senses opportunities for change or improvement	10	Sustainable economic performance	13
Unproductive Climate & culture	28	Creates idea/solutions	12	Project success	10
Organisation practices	1	Builds on existing ideas and data	4	Actively contributes to development	2
Work organisation	5	Realisation: turns intention into reality	14	Makes suggestions to improve	2
HR practices & systems	1	Idea Implementation			
Leadership Style		Evaluates the viability of an idea or solution	10		
Contextual leadership	1				
Control leadership	18				
Inspirational leadership	12				
Values leadership	2				
Ineffective leadership	4				
Leader Characteristics					
Productive leader	18				
Leader attributes	18				
Unproductive leader behaviour	28				
Leader incivility	41				
S/Total	192		50		27
				Total	269

Documents

Six documents had no data allocated from them, meaning the following analysis relied on 96% of the total documents.

5.3.2 The Leader Arrogance – Innovative Work Behaviour Relationship

Examining the data for an LA–IWB relationship was difficult as the documents used in this study did not always provide an account of CEO activity that begins with LA antecedents and ends in IWB outcomes. Of the 32 cases, only two contained content across all LA–IWB antecedents, behaviours and outcomes. These are the cases of Jeff Bezos and Steve Jobs; to a lesser extent the cases of Elon Musk, Michael Eisner and Bob Iger might be added, but the data for these were minimal.

A review of the examples for Bezos and Jobs (see Table 16) reveals commonalities across LA behaviours and antecedents, and IWB antecedents, behaviours and outcomes. Interpretation of the content shows that they both engaged in minor through to significant arrogant behaviour; in particular, five data segments for both reflect the ‘dominate’ behaviour as well as engagement in other behaviours that may be perceived as hurtful. They both have data segments reflecting the creation of a toxic work environment, but importantly, they also created a productive climate and culture, particularly Jobs. Although there was evidence of control leadership, Jobs was particularly strong on inspirational leadership, and although both were perceived as productive leaders, they were also found to engage in leader incivility. There was evidence that Bezos’s employees engaged in higher levels of idea generation and implementation, whereas both Bezos and Jobs apparently built sustained economic performance.

Table 16. Leader Comparison

	Bezos	No. of Segments	Jobs	No. of Segments
LA Antecedent			Superiority/Elitism	2
			Entitlement	1
			Self-importance	1
LA Behaviour				

Negative	Initiate ⁵	1	Initiate ⁴	1
	Demanding	1	Self-important	1
Incivility	Not listening	1	Self-regard	2
	Deceive ⁴	2	Deceive ⁴	1
	Dismiss ⁴	1	Dismiss ⁴	1
	Disrespect ⁴	1	Disrespect ⁴	1
	Inconsiderate ⁴	1	Inconsiderate ⁴	4
	Ignore	1	Disparage	1
			Overbearing manner	2
Aggressive	Dominate ⁴	5	Dominate ⁴	5
	Belittle	1	Offend	1
	Humiliate	1	Sadistic	2
LA Outcome				
	Adverse 'others' impact ⁴	2	Adverse 'others' impact ⁴	2
	Toxic work environment ⁴	4	Toxic work environment ⁴	1
	Beneficial actor impact	1	Beneficial 'others' impact	2
IWB Antecedent				
Organisation	Productive climate & culture ⁴	2	Productive climate & culture ⁴	4
	Unproductive climate/culture	1		
	Organisation practices	1		
Leadership Style	Control leadership ⁴	1	Control leadership ⁴	1
	Inspirational leadership ⁴	1	Inspirational leadership ⁴	6
Leader Characteristics			Contextual leadership	1
	Productive leader ⁴	3	Productive leader ⁴	3
	Leader attributes ⁴	1	Leader attributes ⁴	1
	Leader incivility ⁴	5	Leader incivility ⁴	3
	Unproductive leader	4		
IWB Behaviour				
Idea Generation	Senses opportunities ⁴	7	Senses opportunities ⁴	1

⁴ Antecedents, behaviours and outcomes shared by both leaders.

	Creates idea/solutions ⁴	7	Creates idea/solutions ⁴	3
	Realisation ⁴	10	Realisation ⁴	4
			Builds on existing ideas	3
Idea implementation	Evaluates the viability ⁴	6	Evaluates the viability ⁴	3
IWB Outcome				
Business	Sustainable economic perform ⁴	3	Sustainable economic perform ⁴	7
	Actively contributes to dev ⁴	1	Actively contributes to dev ⁴	1
	Project success	8	Makes suggestions to improve	2
		84		74

The data indicate that arrogant leader and leader incivility behaviours, a toxic work environment and inspirational leadership may be associated with IWBs and outcomes. Another way of stating this is that although a leader's behaviour may be objectionable, if followers perceive their leader as productive and inspirational, IWB may still ensue. The reasons for this outcome are discussed later in this analysis and in Chapter 6. Nevertheless, this current finding relies on limited data, which might indicate a path for future research. A later examination of data sources may add to the understanding of how such research could be undertaken.

In contrast to Bezos and Jobs, the Elizabeth Holmes case contains substantial information about LA antecedents, behaviours and outcomes and IWB antecedents, but not behaviours and outcomes. Thirteen documents (the most among all 32 cases) were used to extract data on Holmes, which provided data segments of someone who had a sense of superiority enacted through dominating, deceiving and superiority behaviours, which resulted in an adverse impact on others. There were 10 'adverse "others" impact' segments found, six under 'control leadership' and five under 'leader incivility'.

Evidence of her controlling leadership behaviour is demonstrated in comments such as 'Clearly that was not the case at Theranos, where teams were not even allowed to

communicate transparently, let alone raise issues that might go against what Holmes hoped to hear' (Flores 2021, p. 1). Further:

her autocratic style included divesting her board of power, as was evident when she 'took offense' at an employee's simple question about the role of her board, leading her to proclaim, 'I make all the decisions here'. This take-charge attitude of independence is a repudiation of interdependence characterised by 'collaboration, sharing, and teamwork ... [associated] with displays of femininity'. (Dundes, Buitelaar & Streiff 2019, p. 4)

Examples of her incivility behaviour include 'For many Theranos employees, their coerced complicity was experienced as unforced consent' (Tourish & Willmott 2023, p. 10) and 'Alex testified that Holmes hired a private investigator to follow his son, and that he "slept with a knife under his pillow" out of fear for his life' (Folk 2022, p. 7). These statements indicate a leader who prized control over collaboration and independent thinking. This approach might not inhibit innovative thinking, but it could be expected to inhibit employee IWB.

The difference between the Holmes case and those of Bezos and Jobs may be explained through the purpose of control. For Holmes, the purpose was apparently to hide criminality, and for Bezos, it was to establish a set of operating principles that would service customers and provide growth, whereas for Jobs, it was to facilitate greatness in employees and products. These different purposes are found in the styles of 'control leadership' comprising autocratic/authoritarian, despotic, directive and transactional leadership styles, and 'inspirational leadership' comprising transformational, entrepreneurial, charismatic and digital leadership.

Despotic leadership is based on personal dominance that serves the leader's self-interest and is a style in which creativity is inhibited, resulting in less IWB (De Hoogh & Den Hartog 2008; Mehmood et al. 2023). This style is reflected in Holmes's leadership. Transactional leadership is goal oriented and emphasises the exchange of rewards for task performance (Valentine 2014). This style is reflected in aspects of Bezos and Jobs' leadership styles, together with the inspirational leadership style.

Thus, 'control' leadership as an antecedent to IWB may inhibit or foster that behaviour, depending on the leader's purpose. Conversely, despotic leadership, which is exploitative of others and benefits the leader (De Hoogh & Den Hartog 2008), might be categorised

differently in a future study as it is a leadership style in which LA may be manifested and may act as a barrier to IWB.

In sum, the data showed that LA may be related to IWB in two ways. First it may point to a pathway in which employees engage in innovative behaviour despite their leader's unacceptable behaviour at times, as that leader is able to articulate a vision that they find attractive. Second, if that vision is not consistent with how they experience their work environment and how their leader behaves (arrogantly), and the degree to which both are perceived as unacceptable, then it is less likely they will willingly engage in innovative behaviour.

5.3.3 Further Themes

Beyond the findings raised in the previous section, other themes that emerged from the data are introduced here and will be addressed in Chapter 6. These are control, unintended consequences and contrasting leadership styles.

5.3.3.1 Control

The most frequent arrogant leader behaviour was 'dominate'. In examining the key data segments identified as dominant behaviour, the underlying theme seems to be that by engaging in dominating behaviour, the leader exercises control over others or the environment. This behaviour may present as bullying, using their position or title to dominate others or manipulation (these are behaviours found in the LA systematic literature review). An example of bullying is that of Jeff Bezos who was quoted as saying the following:

Why are you wasting my life?

I'm sorry, did I take my stupid pills today?

This document was clearly written by the B team. Can someone get me the A team document? I don't want to waste my time with the B team document

Do I need to go down and get the certificate that says I'm CEO of the company to get you to stop challenging me on this? (Marks 2013 p. 1).

An example of using 'position and title' is that of a conversation between Roy E. Disney and Michael Eisner; Disney was heard to say: 'For whatever reason, you have driven a wedge between me and those I work with even to the extent of requiring some of my

associates to report my conversations and activities back to you. I find this intolerable' (Downes, Russ & Ryan 2007 p. 76). An example of 'manipulation' is the following:

As a senior colleague says, 'He had the uncanny capacity to ... make you feel small ... it's a common trait in people who are charismatic and know how to manipulate people. Knowing that he can crush you makes you feel weakened and eager for his approval, so then he can elevate you and put you on a pedestal and own you. (Isaacson 2012)

Control, as distinct from 'control leadership', has two aspects for consideration—there is the way that control is effected, namely, domineering behaviour and its relationship with LA antecedents; and there is the leader's purpose for wanting that control, beyond the desire to be in charge. This aspect is discussed further in Chapter 6.

5.3.3.2 Unintended Consequences

There are multiple examples of the arrogant actor experiencing adverse consequences. Primarily, this is in being removed from their role because of action initiated by their organisation following a criminal prosecution and/or perceived leadership failure due to performance issues. This happened to 18 of the 32 CEOs, although Steve Jobs was later installed in an interim-CEO role on his return to Apple. Other less adverse consequences were lost reputation and poor perception of the leader. The second significant adverse effect was business damage, for instance, through lost reputation such as that of Volkswagen resulting from the diesel emissions scandal (Roberts & Rogers 2018) and of Apple from iPhone warranty issues in China (Boudreau 2013); financial failure or loss as in the cases of Enron (Spector 2003) and Uber (Newcomer & Stone 2018); and from the loss of competitive advantage, as in the case of Microsoft owing to the 2001 US Government anti-trust case against their web browser (Davis 2001).

5.3.3.3 Contrasting Leadership Styles

The data show that 'inspirational' and 'control' leadership styles affect IWBs through idea generating and implementing behaviours and also produce project success and sustainable economic performance. Two quotations about Elon Musk and Steve Jobs demonstrate the former. Regarding Musk: 'And indeed, many of his employees respond well to his incredible demands on them in large part because he is aiming so far above zero. They are inspired and he gives them confidence' (Gray 2016 p. 178). Regarding Jobs:

I spent five years working closely with Steve and it was a most phenomenal experience that touched me emotionally every day with amazement, anger, and satisfaction all at once. It took me way beyond where I ever thought I would go. I wouldn't change it for the world. (Bariso 2016, p. 3)

Yet, the following quotations are about the same two leaders; about Musk: 'Musk describes himself as a nano-manager. He makes most of the decisions and does not give his senior-level managers much autonomy if he does not have to ... he continuously checks his employee's work' (Miklaszewicz 2023, p. 6). About Jobs:

When Apple was about to reveal the 'Bondi Blue' iMac, he berated his good friend and ad partner Lee Clow over the phone. Jobs said Clow's team was getting the color wrong for the print ads. He shouted, 'You guys don't know what you're doing. I'm going to get someone (Miklaszewicz 2023) else to do the ads because this is ...ed up.' Eventually Clow sat Jobs down and made him look at the original photos versus print ads. Clow was right. Jobs backed down. (Love 2011, p. 1)

These examples point to a contrast in how a leader can build an innovative, successful and sustainable business through distinctly different leadership behaviours: controlling and inspirational. Musk admitted to 'nano-managing' (Miklaszewicz 2023), which centralises decision-making and reduces employee autonomy, whereas Jobs admitted to very demanding and driven behaviour (Isaacson 2012) that alienated many people (Delaney & Spoelstra 2022). Part of the answer may be found in examining transformational leadership, specifically, in articulating an evocative vision (Bass & Avolio 1990). For Musk, that is literally reaching for the stars through his Space X business, making humans 'a multi-planetary species' (Musk 2017 p.8) and for Jobs, it started as 'to get a computer in the hands of everyday people' (Huddleston Jnr 2019) and ended up as inventing the future (Isaacson 2011; McCracken 2011).

The data point to 'articulating an evocative vision' as a key aspect of explaining this contrast, namely that confronting behaviour by a leader is not a barrier to IWB. However, a second explanation may lie within the following comment from the Bariso (2016) quotation already presented: '*It took me way beyond where I ever thought I would go*' (p. 2). This finding implies that apart from being in the work presence of Steve Jobs, which employees experienced as inspirational, they gained from the relationship, implying self-interest. This will be explored further in Chapter 6.

5.3.4 Data Sources

The frequencies and percentages of eight data source types are shown against LA and IWB antecedents, behaviour and outcomes in Table 17. Sources are proximally grouped into three categories representing ‘news’, ‘academic’ and ‘professional and media’ (although included ‘research centre had very low frequencies). The news and academic sources mostly provide data on LA behaviours and outcomes and IWB antecedents; in contrast, the professional trade journals and magazines, and book chapters, provide data segments across all antecedents, behaviours and outcomes.

News media, that is, newspapers and daily/weekly/monthly magazines constituted 54% of all documents (see Table 12) yet contributed only 37% of the data segments (see Table 17). Academic sources provided 20% of documents and 25% of data segments, whereas the professional group supplied 25% of documents and 36% of data segments. Hence, it would seem that the most effective sources for this study’s type of data are professional/trade journals and magazines and books.

While the reasons for these segment distributions are open to conjecture, one observation is that many documents in the ‘professional’ category explored the experiences of individual leaders in depth, via interviews with the incumbent leader and/or their family, work colleagues and friends, which were presented as biographical styled accounts. These afford greater breadth and depth in examining the causes and consequences of a leader’s behaviour. In contrast, news media reporting provided concise information in minimal space, and although academic accounts did include case studies, few of these were available in which the experiences of a relevant and named leader were examined.

Accordingly, future research might be able to offer valuable insights by examining sources that have investigated issues and people both in depth and in breadth. This suggestion has implications for how data may be best collected should a study similar to this be undertaken (see Section 7.5 on Future Research).

Table 17. Data Segments × Source Distribution

Category	News				Academic					Professional				Total		
	PN	DN	S/Total	%	PR	AP	TD	S/Total	%	PT	BC	S/Total	%		RC	%
LA Antecedent	6	15	21	44.7	5	5	1	11	23.4	4	11	15	32.0	0	0.0	47
LA Behaviour	46	80	126	38.8	28	45	15	88	27.1	50	57	122	32.9	4	1.2	325
LA Outcome	18	34	52	50.0	6	9	2	17	16.3	14	19	33	31.7	2	1.9	104
LA Totals	70	129	199	41.8	39	59	18	116	24.3	68	87	155	32.6	6	1.3	476
IWB Antecedent	30	34	64	33.3	16	28	20	64	33.3	47	16	63	32.8	1	0.5	192
IWB Behaviour	5	3	8	16.0	0	0	3	3	6.0	29	10	39	78.0	0	0.0	50
IWB Outcome	5	3	8	29.6	0	0	4	4	14.8	11	4	15	55.6	0	0.0	27
IWB Totals	40	40	80	29.7	16	28	27	71	26.4	87	30	117	43.5	1	0.4	269
Total	110	169	279	37.4	55	87	45	187	25.1	155	117	291	36.5	7	0.9	745

News = Periodic (magazines) & daily news; PN = Periodic news (magazines); DN = Daily news; Academic = Peer-reviewed, Academic papers; Thesis/Dissertations; PR = Peer-reviewed; AP = Academic paper; TD = Thesis/Dissertation; Professional = Professional/Trade Journal/Magazine & books PT = Professional/Trade Journal/Magazine; BC = Books & book chapters; RC = Research centre.

5.3.5 Documents, Data Segments and Cases

Next, Table 18 shows the number of data segments by case for the nine major LA behaviours. The average number of segments per document is 5.03 and of documents per case is 4.6. At the individual behaviour level, namely, the cell level, enough data are not available to draw conclusions but the range and frequency of arrogant behaviours a leader engages in confirm the conclusions presented in Section 5.3.2 about Holmes, Bezos and Jobs. It also reveals that Eisner, Hayward and Lay engaged in a similar range of arrogant behaviours.

The value of this data is in finding a discrete range of behaviours that imply arrogance. This finding adds to the perspective that arrogance may not be a single behaviour, and that in isolation, any of these behaviours implies a different meaning. Second, by increasing the quantum of data, that is, the documents and data segments, a clearer idea of arrogant leader behaviour in the business context may be revealed.

Table 18. Cases × Segments × Major Leader Arrogance Behaviours

Case	No. of Documents	No. of Data Segments	No. of Major LA Behaviours × Case									
			Act Superior	Deceive	Disdain	Dismiss	Disrespect	Dominate	Inconsiderate	Initiate	Ignore	Total
Armstrong, Tim	5	11					1		1		1	3
Ballmer, Steve	3	9			2			1				3
Barra, Mary	4	11		1			1				3	5
Bezos, Jeff	6	84		2		1	1	5	1	1	1	12
Blankenship, Donald	4	13			1			2				3
Cook, Tim	3	9					1		1		1	3
Ebbers, Bernie	3	21	1	2	1			4		1		9
Eisner, Michael	6	43	1	2	2			5		1	1	12
Ellison, Larry	3	24		1	2			1		1	2	7
Fiorina, Carly	3	25	1	1		1		1	1	1		6
Gates, Bill	4	20	1					5		1		7
Hastings, Reed	3	19					1	1	1			3
Hayward, Tony	5	24	2	2	3		2		2		1	12
Hebblethwaite, Peter	4	14		1	1						2	4
Heins, Thorsten	5	6										0
Holmes, Elizabeth	13	72	4	3		1		4	2		1	15
Iger, Bob	4	18		1		1		2				4
Jobs, Steve	12	74		1			1	5	4	1		12
Kalanick, Travis	9	39	1		1	2	2	2		1	1	10

Kozlowski, Dennis	3	7		1				2		1		4
Lay, Kenneth	4	33	5	3		2	1	4			1	16
Mayer, Marissa	4	20	3		1	2					1	7
Murdoch, Rupert	5	10			1	1			1		2	5
Musk, Elon	3	21								1		1
Nardelli, Robert	3	14	1		4						1	6
Nasser, Jacques	3	9				1	2	1	1			5
Pincus, Mark	3	18						2				2
Scrushy, Richard	4	22	1					3		1		5
Whitman, Meg	3	10		1	1		1					3
Winterkorn, Martin	5	13		1			1					2
Zaslav, David	3	14		3					1	1	3	8
Zuckerberg, Mark	5	18	1	2				1		1	1	6
	147	745	22	28	20	12	15	51	16	13	23	200
Average Documents/Case & Segments/Document	4.6	5.03										

Note: Although there were 148 documents, one had content for five leaders; the segments and behaviours have been allocated accordingly.

5.3.6 Conceptual Framework

In reviewing how these results fit with the conceptual framework, two issues need to be addressed. The first is that productive and unproductive behaviour, and leader incivility, do not appear to be accounted for, and second, it is unclear where climate and culture fit. Thus, there needs to be a review of the elements incorporated in 'leadership' and IWB antecedents, which will be addressed in Chapter 6.

5.3.7 Theoretical Framework

The data showed negative outcomes for people and business resulting from LA, and the most frequent outcomes were 'adverse actor impact', 'business damage' and 'adverse 'others' impact'. Attribution theory explains this effect as the actor not accepting responsibility for any of those outcomes as, in their view, these would be attributable to factors external to themselves, resulting in the actor maintaining a positive self-image by distorting contrary information.

Examples of such leaders include Travis Kalanick (the former Uber CEO) who, until he saw evidence to the contrary, was reluctant to accept that his behaviour and the culture he created were problematic (Newcomer & Stone 2018; Spott 2018). Another case is that of Tony Hayward, the CEO of British Petroleum (BP) at the time of the Deepwater Horizon disaster, who publicly attributed blame for the disaster to Transocean, the contracted company BP used to drill and recover oil. He deflected the enormity of the oil spill with comments that it was modest, and responded to most questions with comments such as "I was not involved in that decision, so it's impossible for me to answer that question", to 'I'm afraid I can't recall that', or, simply, 'I don't know'" (Chaddock, cited in Robinson 2014, p. 44). Hayward also revealed a sense of entitlement and self-importance with comments about himself when trying to convey empathy to those affected by the disaster: 'We're sorry for the massive disruption it's caused to their lives. And there's no one who wants this thing over more than I do. I'd like my life back' (Robinson 2014, pp. 3–4). This finding mirrors those of Harvey and Martinko's (2009) that self-serving attributions are related to negative outcomes, derived from a sense of entitlement.

5.3.8 Summary

The manual analysis, using frequencies, found that nine LA behaviours accounted for 62% of the recorded data segments, suggesting that, in practice, these behaviours might be those that recipients of LA encounter. Second, the major impact of LA is on the leader, in terms of being removed from their role, and then to the business, in terms of damage and lost reputation. The main finding as regards IWB was that the data segments mostly represented negative antecedents not found in the IWB systematic literature review, apart from workplace incivility. There were few data segments for IWB behaviours and outcomes.

In examining the LA–IWB relationship, it became clear that LA in the cases included in this study negatively affected the leader’s own behaviour and the climate and culture they created, yet there was also evidence that their followers could tolerate that behaviour and work environment if the leader’s vision was evocative enough and they stood to gain from the relationship. From this examination, three themes arose that were initially addressed, namely, dominance, control and unintended consequences, which are examined more closely in Chapter 6. Last, the scrutiny of the data and data sources revealed the value of professional/trade articles, book chapters and academic papers in providing useful examples of LA and IWB.

5.4 Analysis Using MAXQDA Software

MAXQDA was chosen as the digital analysis instrument as its advanced coding abilities and numerous visual tools highlight relationships, patterns and themes via code-based and cluster analyses. For this study, it was used in conjunction with manual analysis, allowing the weaknesses of one to be mitigated by the strengths of the other.

MAXQDA (VERBISoftware 2024) provides a variety of tools that makes selecting the most appropriate one, a key step in interpreting data and creating meaning. As Morse (2008) pointed out, CTA involves organising data proximally, as done in the collection process, which are then ‘coded, explicated and described’ (p. 727). The two MAXQDA tools best suited to this are the Code Map and the Code Relations Browser that provide visual and graphical representations of code co-occurrences, thus making it easier to see connections and patterns.

There are three types of code co-occurrence analysis: intersection, proximity and occurrence analyses. The intersection of codes analysis counts how often two codes occur in the same data

segment; the proximity of codes analysis counts the frequency of these two codes occurring in the same document; and the occurrence of codes analysis counts the number of documents containing both these codes, that is, the occurrence of the two codes in the same document. The output is presented as a map that show the codes as solid circles. The distances between codes demonstrate the similarity between them. The circle size reflects the number of code assignments, and the circle colours reveal clustering and related codes. The lines drawn between codes reveal the codes that co-occur, and the thickness of the line indicates the strength of those co-occurrences.

Of the three types of analysis models, the ‘co-occurrence of codes’ is considered effective for analysing this study’s form of data (documents); moreover, it is able to discern potential relationships and the strength of those relationships. In producing meaningful code maps with discernible patterns, it is necessary to use code frequencies in the code co-occurrence map, which reveal potential associations; depending on the data, these frequencies may vary between three and seven documents.

The analysis output from the MAXQDA (VERBISoftware 2024) software is based on the principle that the co-occurrence of codes suggests a relationship due to semantic association, common themes or contextual significance. The proximity of two codes in the same data segment suggests they may both be relevant to a topic or theme, or when clustering occurs, there may be similar ideas or concepts, or a similar context. Codes that intersect indicate the presence of a relationship as they are both in the same data segment. When codes intersect or co-occur, the connection can be associative (meaning or context), causal (one affects the other), temporal (a specific sequence) or contrastive (opposite).

A number of potential relationships in the conceptual framework (Figure 6) may help answer the research question. The framework proposes a relationship between LA and IWB through LA behaviours and outcomes directly with IWB antecedents, particularly leadership (leadership style and leader characteristics). From this, many connections may be examined, as shown in Table 19 (shown as first and second codes), to ascertain what, if any, relationship exists between LA and IWB.

Table 19. Leader Arrogance – Innovative Work Behaviour Analyses

First Code	Second Code
LA Antecedents–Behaviour–Outcomes	IWB Antecedents–Behaviour–Outcomes
LA Antecedents–Behaviour–Outcomes	IWB Antecedents
LA Behaviour–Outcomes & IWB Antecedents	IWB Behaviour
LA Antecedents	LA Behaviours
LA Behaviour	Leadership (Style and Leader Characteristics)
LA Behaviour	Leadership Style
LA Behaviour	Leader Characteristics
LA Behaviour	Organisation Factors
LA Behaviour	IWB Antecedents
LA Outcomes	IWB Antecedents
LA Outcomes	Leadership (Style and Leader Characteristics)
LA Outcomes	Leadership Style
LA Outcomes	Leader Characteristics
LA Outcomes	Organisation Factors
LA Behaviour	LA Outcomes
IWB Antecedents	IWB Behaviours
IWB Behaviours	IWB Outcomes
Leadership (Style and Characteristics)	Organisation factors

LA = Leader Arrogance; IWB = Innovative Work Behaviour.

Co-occurrence code maps were produced for the 18 code combinations shown in Table 19. It was found that Figure 14 (LA–IWB Relationship) best captures the patterns, relationships, and themes from all combinations, and is discussed later in this section. To check the output from the maps, MAXQDA also has a tool called the Code Relations Browser that provides data on the co-occurrence of codes in a spreadsheet. This information mirrors that in the code maps and is useful in checking specific relationships.

It is important to note that the code maps reflect the number of data segments from case documents. As alluded to earlier, data for IWB behaviours and outcomes were limited, as these were not the primary information in the documents. However, what an analysis using MAXQDA does show is the association, if any, between the codes through clustering, proximity and frequencies.

5.4.1 The Leader Arrogance – Innovative Work Behaviour Relationship

The conceptual framework depicts a relationship between LA and IWB in which LA antecedents precede arrogant behaviours giving rise to certain outcomes, and together, they may reflect in the leader's style of leadership, their broader behaviour in their leader role, and the climate and culture they create in their organisation. These leadership factors influence employees to engage in IWB behaviours, resulting in the desired outcomes for the business.

However, the data (see Figure A1.) demonstrate two different relationships. The first (shown as purple circles) is an association between LA antecedents, behaviours, outcomes and IWB antecedents, articulated as superiority/elitism, which precedes five types of arrogant behaviours that result in adverse outcomes for the actor, others, the business and the work environment. The arrogant behaviours and outcomes are associated with a controlling leadership style and unproductive and leader incivility, which also create an unproductive climate and culture. In contrast, the second relationship is between the more positive IWB antecedents (shown as blue circles), behaviours and outcomes, namely, an inspirational leadership style, positive behaviours and a productive climate and culture that link to employees engaging in IWB behaviours that lead to positive business outcomes. It is noted that 'humiliate' is also in this cluster but that fits with data segments showing that leaders such as Jeff Bezos and Steve Jobs engaged in that behaviour. It is also relevant to a discussion in Section 6.3.2 in this thesis about contrasting leadership styles.

Thus, the data point to two relationships, the first connecting antecedents of arrogance to behaviours and outcomes that relate to a 'negative' leadership style, leader behaviours and climate and culture that do not lead to IWBs and outcomes. The second, where there is little connection to LA and begins with a positive leader style, behaviours and climate and culture, leading to IWBs and outcomes. For study purposes, the end point of LA seems to be with the negative way a leader engages with followers and the outcomes from it that do not lead to IWB, whereas IWB begins with a leader style that does not incorporate LA. If accurate, this view implies that there is no relationship between LA and IWB, but there are cases in the data that provide contrary information.

The following analysis is intended to address this issue and begins with the examination of the two relationships demonstrated in the clustering of the data.

5.4.2 Data Clustering

To reiterate, the co-occurrence model in Figure 14 displays the codes that co-occur within segments of the same document; in turn, this co-occurrence can indicate potential relationships, shared themes and contextual relevance. The distances between codes indicate how similarly the codes have been applied in the data (VERBISoftware 2024). The map also groups codes into clusters according to their position on the code map, which also helps in identifying patterns and relationships.

An initial observation of this map reveals two clusters of specific interest to the research question. The red cluster comprises one LA antecedent, four IWB antecedents, four IWB behaviours and two IWB outcomes, and the blue cluster has one LA antecedent, five LA behaviours and one LA outcome and four IWB antecedents. Both clusters are clearly separated. Interestingly, both point to potential responses to the research question. The red cluster indicates clear associations between inspirational leadership as an antecedent to two behaviours and outcomes, which suggests this style of leadership precedes employees engagement in IWBs.

The second (blue) cluster is characterised by associations between LA antecedents, behaviours and outcomes together with four negative IWB antecedents and does not result in IWBs. This finding suggests that LA does not lead to IWB, for it is inhibited by the leader's negative behaviour.

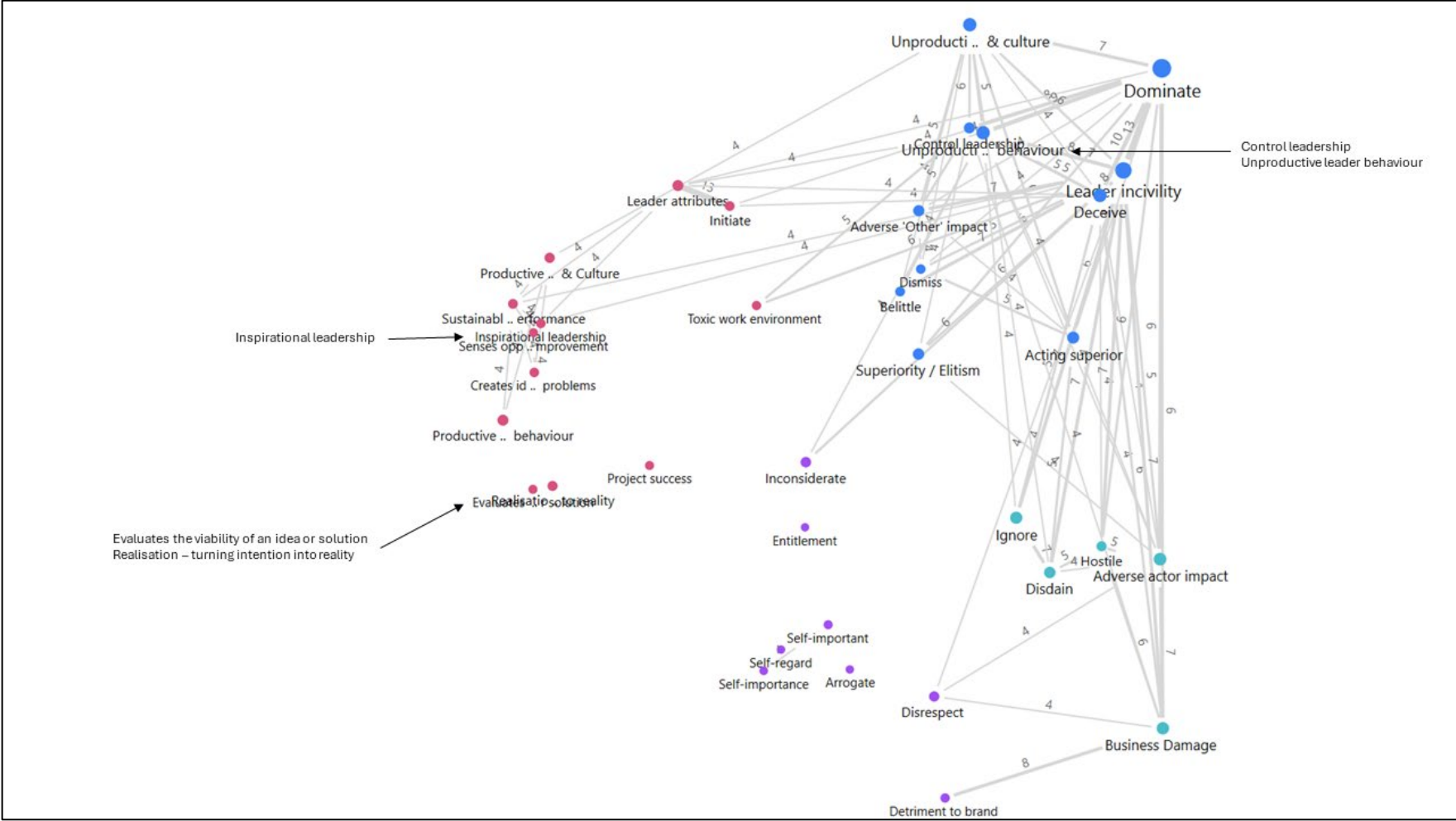


Figure 14. Leadership Arrogance – Innovative Work Behaviour Code Co-occurrence Map

5.4.2.1 The Red Cluster

An examination of the red cluster reveals that the codes of interest to the research question are inspirational leadership, productive leader behaviour and productive climate and culture. On examining relevant data segments, three themes arise that reflect inspirational leaders' actions to influence their followers.

The first theme is that the leaders referred to in these codes created the conditions so that their people could not only succeed but also thrive. For instance:

In interviews, some said they thrived at Amazon precisely because it pushed them past what they thought were their limits. Many employees are motivated by 'thinking big and knowing that we haven't scratched the surface on what's out there to invent. (Kantor & Streitfeld 2015, p. 2)

Hastings has created a culture in which employees feel comfortable going against superiors to act in the company's best interest, and in which convention is willingly overridden. (McAndrew 2021, p. 8)

He infused Apple employees with an abiding passion to create groundbreaking products and a belief that they could accomplish what seemed impossible. (Isaacson 2012, p. 100)

A second theme is that of leaders creating the physical conditions for collaboration. For Steve Jobs, it was ensuring people could 'run into each other' through unplanned encounters: 'Creativity comes from spontaneous meetings, from random discussions. You run into someone, you ask what they're doing, you say "Wow", and soon you're cooking up all sorts of ideas' (Isaacson 2012, p. 100). For Michael Eisner at Disney, it was having regular creative meetings in which people were equal and supportive conflict was embraced (Wertlauffer 2000). For Iger at Disney, it was about removing physical and authority barriers to collaboration (Grover 2007). The theme is one of openness, freedom and equality, which became part of the climate and culture in these organisations.

A third theme that emerges is passion and vision, as characterised in the following statements:

The authors report the frequency of transformational leadership characteristics that appeared in characterizations of Jobs in the months after his passing in October 2011. Results show that people do remember Jobs as a leader, and as one who possessed three key personal

characteristics of a transformational leader: creative, passionate and visionary. (Steinwart & Ziegler 2014, p. 52)

individuals working for him [Musk] are motivated by his vision, as people know that we have only one planet and should take care of it. People are willing to devote more energy to fulfilling the company's goal because they work for the greater good. (Miklaszewicz 2023, p. 11)

The ability to 'articulate an evocative vision' is a dimension of transformational leadership (Bass & Avolio 1990), which is one of the leadership styles included in the inspirational leadership category.

These themes of passion and vision, creating conditions for success, and a work environment in which openness, freedom and equality are embraced provide a foundation for people to be engaged in their work and organisation. Interestingly Burch, Cristiano and Guarana (2014) found that inspirational leader behaviours did not influence followers to engage in the workplace as much as the relationship between the leader and follower. This last point is of interest as the case material on Jobs, Bezos and Musk, in particular, might draw that into question because of their sometimes objectionable behaviour, which has been discussed in Section 5.3.2. Nevertheless, studies such as those by Tims, Bakker & Xanthopoulou (2011) and Zhu, Avolio and Walumbwa (2009) have indeed demonstrated a positive connection between transformational leadership and employee engagement, owing to which employees are prepared to accept greater work challenges and increase their self-efficacy through building their individual skills sets and resources. In turn, self-efficacy has positive effects on IWB (Al Wali, Muthuveloo & Teoh 2022; Mustafa, G et al. 2022).

Furthermore, the clusters reflect the data segments and documents, are presumed to be accurate and were confirmed through triangulation. While bias can occur that may influence the overall data, any such information was removed before the analysis.

5.4.2.2 The Blue Cluster

All codes in this cluster are of interest in developing a response to the research question, as they comprise items that fit within the ABC model (Nijhof & Rietdijk 1999) that was used to collect data. The model suggests a sequence beginning with antecedents and ending with consequences, or outcomes. Although the MAXQDA code map does not indicate the sequence,

the cluster in question includes the LA antecedent, ‘superiority/elitism’; five LA behaviours, ‘dominate’, ‘deceive’, ‘acting superior’, ‘dismiss’ and ‘belittle’; an LA outcome, ‘adverse “others” impact’; and four IWB antecedents, ‘control leadership’, ‘leader incivility’, ‘unproductive leader behaviour’ and ‘unproductive climate and culture’. The code map indicates associations, and using the ABC model (Nijhof & Rietdijk 1999), a sequence may be inferred that would suggest LA preceded by felt-superiority, may inhibit IWB as LA behaviours and outcome are associated with control leadership, leader incivility, unproductive leader behaviour and unproductive climate and culture, and these have no association with the actual IWBs and outcomes.

Thus, from the red cluster, it may be inferred that inspirational leadership leads to IWBs and outcomes, whereas no association between LA and IWBs and outcomes is found in the blue cluster. However, an anomaly remains, given that the data also indicate that inspirational leaders engage in ‘control leadership’ (as defined within this study) but still generate IWBs in their followers, as has been demonstrated with Steve Jobs, Jeff Bezos and Elon Musk. This anomaly is addressed in Section 5.4.3, following.

5.4.2.3 The Purple Cluster

The purple cluster characterises slightly different aspects of LA but may not contribute to answering the research question. In the purple cluster, there are two LA antecedents, ‘entitlement and self-importance’; five LA behaviours, ‘inconsiderate’, ‘self-important’, ‘self-regard’, ‘arrogate’ and ‘disrespect’; and one LA outcome, ‘brand detriment’.

In reviewing the relevant data segments, the antecedents together with the ‘arrogate’, ‘self-important’ and ‘self-regard’ behaviours demonstrate a sense, by the CEO, of being above others, which is revealed in the comments by Ken Lay (Enron)—‘I am too busy and important to go on such short notice’ (Eckhaus & Sheaffer 2018, p. 309)—and by Tony Hayward (BP) in regard to the Deepwater Horizon disaster—‘And there’s no one who wants this thing over more than I do. I’d like my life back’ (Robinson 2014, p. 44). In particular, the latter comment shows Hayward’s lack of self-awareness and disrespect for those who were affected by the disaster, and the same can be said about the then CEO of AOL, Tim Armstrong—he inadvertently blamed two female employees for draining health insurance funds assigned to all employees, leading to a significant change in the company’s health insurance offer to

employees the following year (Munro 2014). These examples raise the issue of self-awareness and LA. In Lay's case, it is reasonable to suspect he knew exactly what he was saying, but for Hayward and Armstrong, that may not be the case. If neither of these leaders was aware of the hurtful nature of their comments, that would indicate a lack of intention, which may not be said of Ken Lay.

Intentionality, or purposeful behaviour, is not a concept that has been widely explored in regard to arrogance, but it may explain why some arrogant behaviours are seemingly more harmful than others. In creating their taxonomy of negative workplace behaviour, Burns and Pope (2007) introduced the idea of ambiguous intent in the second category of negative workplace behaviours 'incivility', and stated that the third category called 'aggressive' includes the clear intention to harm the target. Cowan et al. (2019) emphasised that motivation influences arrogant behaviour, and that at the antagonistic level (Component 6 in their model), arrogant acts may arise from a desire to experience the pleasure of feeling superior or to raise self-esteem, or are undertaken out of anger, from poor self-concept, with no thought about personal benefit. They acknowledged the need for further research, but apart from other findings, what is of interest for this study is that the Component 6 level comprises actions that may involve significant harm to the target. There are examples throughout the data demonstrating this harm, perceived or otherwise, that derive from presumptions of superiority and are demonstrated through dominating behaviour, such as Elizabeth Holmes targeting ex-employees with legal action for whistleblowing, Mark Pincus reclaiming employee stock, Travis Kalanick abusing one of his Uber drivers (captured on camera) and Ken Lay building a culture that intimidated people into conforming with questionable practices. Thus, intention to harm may add to an understanding of arrogant behaviour and is further discussed later in this chapter and in Chapter 6.

A last point is that if the belittling behaviour to which Cowan et al. (2019) refer involves the belittler not enjoying benefits from it, that aspect would contribute to this study's discussion of 'unintended consequences' in Sections 5.4.5 and 6.2.5 because motives for such behaviour would be of significant interest.

Data segments representing 'inconsiderate' in this cluster include examples such as the 2011 News of the World (NoW) phone-hacking scandal that resulted in, among other actions, the closure of the paper. The issues that led to and perpetuated the event were the unacceptable

actions of NoW journalists followed by Rupert Murdoch's very slow response to both the scandal and the UK Government's intervention. This is highlighted in the statement, 'What's been missing is the human response and the sense of accountability from the very top of the organization' (PRNews 2011, p. 1). One interpretation of this behaviour is that Murdoch had a sense of self-importance that was manifested in his initial lack of response, but as the case garnered much public attention, to continue to ignore it would have resulted in significant personal and business brand detriment. This is demonstrated in the statement, 'the scandal is growing, though, and has many tentacles. News Corp. will need a complete re-branding when all is said and done' (PRNews 2011, p. 2).

5.4.2.4 The Green Cluster

The green cluster contains three LA behaviours (ignore, disdain and hostile) and two outcomes (adverse actor impact and business damage). The behaviours fit into the 'incivility' and 'aggressive' categories of behaviour and the outcomes into 'psycho-social' and 'material'. Aggressive behaviours represent a clear intention of harming a target (Burnes & Pope 2007), whereas psycho-social and material outcomes encompass the idea of harm and damage. Data segments that demonstrate 'ignore and disdain' behaviour are found in the following NoW example:

When Rupert and James Murdoch were called upon to testify at a parliamentary committee hearing, both vehemently denied any knowledge or involvement in the phone hacking activities at NoW. Any and all apologies put forward only occurred because judicial inquiries, criminal investigations and public opinion required them to do so. (Gershon & Alhassan 2017, p. 16)

Hostility is demonstrated in the example of the treatment of then chief financial officer Ray Lane by Larry Ellison (ex-CEO of Oracle):

in addition to such personal snubs, which Lane confirmed, Ellison diminished his role in a broader way through hierarchical reorganization and other structural changes. He elevated some of Lane's subordinates to report directly to the CEO, and he took away responsibilities for entire areas of operation within Oracle, including support and education. (Kawamoto & Yamamoto 2000, p. 3)

This behaviour was categorised as hostile owing to a clear intention to cause harm to Lane in order to force him to resign, which he eventually did. A further example, again with Ellison, is regarding his opposition to Microsoft: ‘Larry Ellison, the CEO of Oracle, is also notorious for cut-throat tactics such as ridiculing the competition and hiring a private investigator to snoop through Microsoft’s garbage’ (Mendleson 2011, cited in Hamilton 2017).

Figure 14 shows the connections of ‘disdain’, ‘disrespect’ and ‘hostility’ with ‘adverse actor impact’, and of ‘business damage’ with ‘hostile’ and ‘disrespect’ behaviours. Of the aforementioned examples, the NoW scandal probably demonstrates these effects more than that of Ellison, although Oracle has a history of losing talented people and wrongful termination suits (Kawamoto & Yamamoto 2000).

Two conclusions that may be drawn from these examples are that as the intent to harm a target grows, damage to the arrogant leader and business may escalate. Second, Figure 14 shows that arrogant behaviour seems to comprise a number of behaviours rather than just one. For example, hostile, disdain and ignore are closely grouped (as are other behaviours), which suggests that arrogance, depending on context and the actor, is not one behaviour in isolation. For example, dominating behaviour, based on this study’s data, is more likely to be accompanied by deception. Again, this will be addressed further in Chapter 6.

The clustering effects shown in Figure 14 provide information beyond the purposes of the current study, such as exploring the different dimensions of arrogance; nevertheless, they will be addressed in Chapter 6 as part of the findings from this study. The clusters do enhance understanding about the relationship between LA and IWB, which seems to be that LA only leads to IWB when the leader is someone who can articulate an evocative vision (Bass & Avolio 1990) and followers stand to gain from that vision and working relationship (Bariso 2016). This view implies that the gain must outweigh the behaviour, and the balance of gain versus arrogant leader behaviour must sit in the employee’s favour. For example, in the case of Jobs, Andy Cunningham (PR and Marketing) said:

I spent five years working closely with Steve and it was a most phenomenal experience that touched me emotionally every day with amazement, anger, and satisfaction all at once. It took me way beyond where I ever thought I would go. I wouldn’t change it for the world. (Bariso 2016, p. 3).

This discussion leads to the next major step in the analysis. However, one last matter to be addressed is the positioning of ‘toxic work environment’. It is included in the red cluster that has codes associated with a ‘positive work climate and culture’ and ‘inspirational leadership’, and it is positioned between this cluster and the blue one that has ‘control leadership’, ‘unproductive leader behaviour’ and ‘unproductive climate & culture’. There are 11 data segments for this outcome, with four each from the Bezos and the Holmes cases. Addressing the former, the documents on Bezos include discussion of Amazon’s work environment, which has been viewed as quite draconian (Kantor & Streitfeld 2015); it was labelled ‘Purposeful Darwinism’, that is, an attempt to recruit and maintain the most effective workforce in Amazon’s distribution centres, and at the time, was subject to significant media, professional and academic speculation. Conversely, Holmes is viewed as maintaining a culture in which fear, intimidation and employee turnover are the norms, and a lack of humanity the result (Dundes, Buitelaar & Streiff 2019; Malone 2021). Despite the negative views of the Amazon workplace, Bezos is still viewed as an inspirational leader; Holmes was cited as ‘charismatic leadership gone wrong’ (Malone 2021, p. 2). Nevertheless, these aspects of their leadership were included in the study, which accounts for the positioning of ‘toxic work environment’.

5.4.2.5 Further Observations

A further observation is about the apparent connection between ‘dominate’, and ‘initiate’ and ‘leader attributes’. First, Figure 14 displays a close (proximity) connection between ‘initiate’ and ‘leader attributes’, which is unsurprising given that both codes comprise aspects of proactivity, a behaviour that may be consistent with enacting arrogance. The IWB systematic literature review revealed ‘initiate’ as the willingness to take the initiative, while ‘leader attributes’ comprise being risk-tolerant and a ‘proactive personality’, the extent to which individuals take the initiative to improve current circumstances. Many data segments attributed to ‘initiate’ are also attributed to ‘leader attributes’, which explains their proximity on the code map. The LA and IWB systematic literature reviews deemed ‘initiate’ to be a manifestation of arrogance and ‘leader attributes’ to be an antecedent to IWB, as it is a characteristic of the leader, namely, a willingness to initiate.

Regarding the relationship of ‘dominate’ with ‘initiate’ and ‘leader attributes’, the data segments assigned the ‘dominate’ code comprise behaviours that include bullying; using position and title to dominate; manipulating; being in, and/or exercising, control; misusing

authority; and coercing (these originated from the LA systematic literature review). The inference from the data is that dominating behaviour entails acting upon the characteristic of proactivity. Proactivity and dominance have been shown to have a positive relationship (Bjørkelo, Einarsen & Matthiesen 2010), and unsurprisingly, the MAXQDA tools, Code Map and Code Relations Browser, show they are connected, but this is not a particularly strong association.

Nevertheless, this relationship, however tenuous, may explain how LA and inspirational leadership are connected, given that both involve initiating action. However, further research is required to confirm this connection. This also means there is no association between the red and blue clusters, which substantiates the earlier view that LA and IWB have no direct relationship. This observation is explored further in Chapter 6.

One further cluster that requires acknowledgement is between the LA antecedents ‘entitlement’ and ‘self-importance’ and the LA behaviours ‘self-important’, ‘self-regard’, ‘arrogate’, ‘disrespect’ and ‘inconsiderate’. A first observation is that the antecedents ‘self-importance’ and ‘entitlement’ are associated with five behaviours categorised as either negative or incivility, but not aggressive, and the only outcome associated with them is ‘detriment to brand’, and not to people. Although the arrogance literature does not rate the severity of antecedents, scholars such as Tanesini (2018) emphasised the intense effect of superiority, of attempting to be better than others in order to excel in their own eyes, signalling internal issues with self-worth. It is in this apparently lower level of severity and intensity this group of antecedents, behaviours and outcomes associate, indicating the possibility of degrees of LA.

This proposition seems to be supported by reference to the green and blue clusters and the inclusion of ‘superiority/elitism’ as the only LA antecedent, the category of LA behaviours now including ‘aggressive’ acts, and the outcomes being predominantly to people. Interestingly, Figure 15 displays a similar pattern in which less severe behaviours are separated and do not associate with detriment to people.

If this is an accurate interpretation, it serves to highlight the damaging effect of a personal belief of superiority to the individual, and others, and there may be levels of arrogance that can be understood and explained through the ideas of severity and intensity. This argument is expanded in Section 6.3.3.

5.4.3 Contrasting Leadership

Figure 15 displays the leader arrogance behaviour – leadership and culture co-occurrence code map, and it is consistent with Figure 14. It shows three clusters: one around control leadership, the second associated with inspirational leadership and the third around five lower-level arrogant behaviours. Much like the patterns in Figure 14, there is a clear delineation between control and inspirational leadership, with both being associated with negative and positive behaviours, and climate and culture. In particular ‘control leadership’ (depicted by the purple cluster) is strongly associated with ‘dominate’, ‘leader incivility’, ‘unproductive leader behaviour’ and ‘unproductive climate and culture’. In contrast, ‘inspirational leadership’ (red cluster) is associated with ‘productive leader behaviours’, ‘productive climate and culture’ and ‘leader incivility’.

This code map raises the issue of how one leader can employ two apparently contrasting leadership styles and still achieve their goals. As has been explained, for this study, ‘control leadership’ incorporates four different styles (autocratic/authoritarian, despotic, directive, transactional) on the basis that the leader is the one setting goals and the path to achieving them, whereas the purpose of the styles incorporated in ‘inspirational’ leadership (transformational, charismatic, entrepreneurial and digital) is to achieve goals by positively influencing, stimulating, role modelling and developing team members. The first leadership style is about controlling how and what people do, whereas the second is about inspiring them to do it and are addressed next.

Although not evident through both Figures 14 and 15, in the data four inspirational leaders are also depicted as ‘control’ leaders. These connections may be better understood by investigating the details of relevant data segments. For example, control leadership was shared with inspirational leadership in four cases: Jeff Bezos, Steve Jobs, Elon Musk and Elizabeth Holmes. The authors in each case asserted that these leaders shared characteristics of both leadership styles, rather than being defined by one. For instance, Valentine (2014) concluded that Steve Jobs used a combination of transformational and authoritarian leadership models. This assertion suggests that although a leadership style may characterise the type of leader that an individual could be, in practice, this might not be accurate. What it does show is that, in these cases, the leaders engaged in behaviours that ensured they realised their goals (Isaacson 2012; Kennedy 2016; Miklaszewicz 2023; Tourish & Willmott 2023).

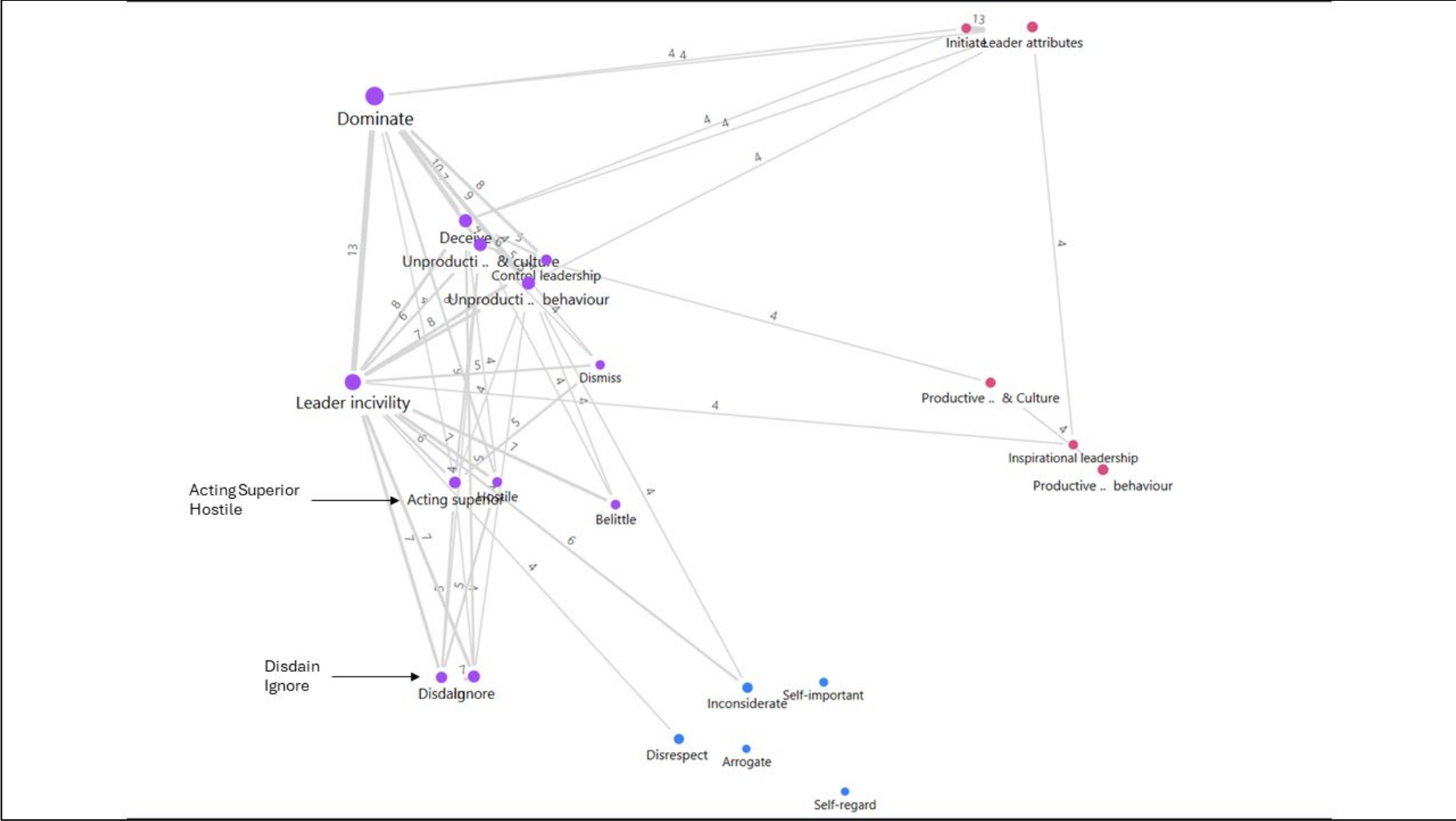


Figure 15. The Leader Arrogance Behaviour – Leadership and Culture Co-occurrence Code Map

An example of ‘control leadership’ in regard to Bezos is when he was famously quoted as saying that ‘people can work, long, hard or smart at Amazon but you can’t choose two out of three’ (Kantor & Streitfeld 2015, p. 13). Amazon’s leadership principles are designed to draw the best out of employees but also create a very high demand for people’s time, beyond what may be considered acceptable, and which exerts control. As distinct from systems intended to drive the activities that people perform (Macdonald, Burke & Stewart 2018), control can do the same through the demanding and unpredictable behaviour of a leader. In the Bezos case, this would include his leaders, as Bezos set the tone for how his leaders behaved on the job. Kantor and Streitfeld (2015) reported the case of an employee who underwent a half-hour ‘punishing’ lecture about inadequate performance, and then, when he thought he would be fired was given a hug and told he was being promoted. This inconsistent leadership behaviour is a way of exerting control over others (because they cannot predict their leader’s behaviour) and is similar to Bezos’s own behaviour—it was reported that during a meeting he humiliated many of his top employees, but before leaving turned around remarked on their great work (Kennedy 2016).

Jobs was also able to exact control through his unpredictable tirades and demanding expectations of employees, largely as he knew they could do better work. In an interview with his biographer Walter Isaacson, he remarked, ‘These are all smart people I work with, and any of them could get a top job at another place if they were truly feeling brutalized. But they don’t’ (Isaacson 2012, p. 3). This statement demonstrates self-awareness and an unwillingness to change behaviour as it facilitated goal achievement. This could be construed as bullying for it is goal-directed and does not require intentional harm-doing (Volk, Dane & Marini 2014); it also reinforces who the leader is, that is, it addresses any potential power imbalance. Jobs’s behaviour, by admission, was tough on people but only because in his view he was being honest, and being nice about it was not ‘who he was’ (Isaacson 2012). In terms of ‘control leadership’, both Bezos and Jobs may be viewed as engaging in behaviours reflecting an authoritative style (Harms et al 2018).

Musk exercised control through being a self-admitted ‘nano-manager’, continuously checking others’ work and by limiting decision-making authority (Miklaszewicz 2023). This is consistent with an autocratic style of leadership in which the leader makes decisions in a dictatorial way (Harms 2018). Elizabeth Holmes, although characterised by one author as displaying ‘charismatic leadership gone wrong’ (Malone 2021, p. 1), was perceived as

an authoritative, autocratic and despotic leader who controlled what her workforce did by limiting autonomy (Dundes, Buitelaar & Streiff 2019; Tourish & Willmott 2023; Yeung 2023).

Given these examples of ‘control leadership’ behaviour by ‘inspirational leaders’, the manner in which the different leadership styles, and their behaviours, may operate in tandem will be explored in Chapter 6.

5.4.4 Dominating Behaviour

A further theme from Figure 14 and the corresponding Code Relations Browser is that dominating behaviour pervades most aspects of LA and IWB antecedents. It suggests that a protagonist will attempt to achieve goals through dominance originating from a sense of superiority and elitism, and potentially do so by using deception and hostility. It also provides an understanding of the actions that constitute dominating behaviour.

How this theme will help answer the research question is a legitimate question, as on its own it does not. Nevertheless, having a better understanding of the key arrogant behaviours and their relationship with meaningful LA and IWB antecedents, behaviours and outcomes may clarify this issue.

Analysis of the use of ‘dominate’ in the data revealed 51 coded data segments, the most in the study. Based on the systematic literature review, six actions relevant to dominating behaviour were identified and applied to the relevant data segments in order to provide a more detailed view of how dominance manifests. Those actions include bullying (12), coercion (3), manipulation (10), being in or exercising control (10), falsely asserting authority (1) and using position or title (14) to achieve goals. The numbers in the parentheses represent data segment frequencies. In terms of cases, the most frequent allocations of dominating behaviour were to Jeff Bezos, Bill Gates and Michael Eisner, all with five data segments, followed closely by Steve Jobs and Elizabeth Holmes with four each. Regarding these leaders, Bezos used his ‘position and title’ three times and ‘bullying’ and ‘being in or exercising control’ once each; Gates used ‘being in or exercising control’ three times and ‘bullying’ twice; and Eisner used his ‘position and title’ four times and falsely asserted authority once. Jobs used ‘manipulation’ twice, and ‘bullying’ and ‘coercion’ once each. Last, Holmes used ‘being in or exercising control’ three times and ‘position and title’ once.

Putting this in perspective, these allocations reflect the quantum and quality of available documents, and if considered individually, or by case, drawing conclusions is difficult owing to the minimal data, but on considering the 51 segments together, it provides a sense as to the dominating behaviours a leader may use in an attempt to achieve goals. Similarly, RE Johnson et al. (2010) found in a quantitative study on workplace arrogance that dominance is a significant contributing variable and included it in their 26-item measure of arrogance called the Workplace Arrogance Scale. They found dominance is positively related to arrogance ($r = .66, p < .01$), and many items in their scale reflect this behaviour, such as ‘criticises others’, ‘asserts authority in situations when s/he does not have the required information’, ‘belittles his/her employees publicly’ and ‘uses non-verbal behaviors like glaring or staring to make people uncomfortable’. In addition, Tanesini (2018) characterised dominance as the key behaviour an arrogant person uses to impose their will upon others, and referred to similar behaviours such as belittle, intimidate, humiliate and condescend when describing dominance.

Returning to this study, ‘dominate’ loads most frequently with the LA antecedent ‘superiority/elitism’, LA behaviours ‘deceive’ and ‘hostile’, LA outcomes ‘adverse actor impact’ and ‘business damage’ and IWB antecedents ‘unproductive climate and culture’, ‘control leadership’, ‘unproductive leader behaviour’ and ‘leader incivility’. These populate the negative clusters across both maps in Figures 14 and 15. The strongest of these associations is between ‘dominate’ and ‘leader incivility’.

‘Leader incivility’ was raised as an antecedent in the IWB systematic literature review and refers to ‘low intensity deviant behaviour with ambiguous intent to harm the target’ (Mehmood et al. 2023, p. 3). More detailed descriptions or examples of this behaviour are not in the data, in contrast to the six actions identified for dominance; thus, more meaningful analysis is somewhat constrained. However, there are 41 data segments spread across 14 cases including those of Bezos, Holmes and Jobs. While some of these segments regarding Bezos have been quoted in Section 5.3.3, and Jobs’s remark that being nicer was not who he was has been reported in Section 5.4.3, Holmes’s case provides further examples of leader incivility: ‘the intention was to make it clear to all would-be dissidents that they would be faced with incalculable losses and pain if they revealed their concerns publicly’ (Tourish & Willmott 2023, p. 1811). Burns and Pope (2007) referred to this type of behaviour as potential bullying, namely, ‘rude or disrespectful/discourteous behaviour

with ambiguous intent which may or may not be defined as bullying by those who experience/witness it' (p. 300). This statement is consistent with previous comments regarding bullying being a display of dominance, which this example demonstrates, and is considered to be an aspect of 'leader incivility'.

To understand how dominance associates with 'adverse actor impact and business damage' and 'unproductive climate and culture, control leadership, unproductive leader behaviour', the sub-codes for these factors are examined in relation to 'dominate'. The data showed 51 data segments for 'dominate', 46 due to 'using position or title' (14) 'bullying' (12), 'manipulation' (10) and 'being in or exercising control' (10). There were 25 instances of 'adverse actor impact' and 24 of 'business damage', primarily comprising instances of financial and reputational loss (20), leader failure (15) and poor perception of the leader (8). There were 28 instances of 'unproductive climate and culture', 18 of 'control leadership' and 28 of 'unproductive leader behaviour' comprising dysfunctional culture (20), autocratic/authoritarian leadership (12), job stress (16) and micro-managing (8).

A potential theme that emerges at the sub-code level is that dominance, based on a sense of superiority/elitism, is manifested in using position and title, manipulation, control and bullying (referred to above as imposing will) associated with control leadership styles (autocratic/authoritarian), dysfunctional culture, job stress, micro-managing, financial and reputational business loss, leader failure and poor leader perception. This might be articulated as dominance contributing to a 'control' leadership style leading to a culture of little discretion, resulting in financial and reputational loss for the business and its leader. The most relevant examples of this theme from the data are those of Elizabeth Holmes, Don Blankenship, Martin Winterkorn and Richard Scrushy.

5.4.5 Unintended Consequences

A further theme that emerges is 'intentionality', and whether the outcomes from LA experienced by people and business are intentionally orchestrated by the actor. RE Johnson et al.'s (2010) definition of arrogance indicates intentionality toward the target, but nothing else.

In a different perspective, Mitchell et al. (2024) introduced the idea that intentionality may explain the increasing severity of arrogant behaviour that targets people, a position supported by the Burns and Pope (2007) model of incivility in which intention only

becomes prominent when the arrogant behaviour escalates from an internal (to the actor) to external focus, such as when someone acts superior, in contrast to the more confrontational behaviour of bullying. The intention in these cases is to affect a target, not the actor or the business; put another way, the intention to harm someone may have unintended consequences for the actor. It is to the latter point, this current argument continues while the intention to harm is addressed further in Section 5.5.4.

Intentionality is now examined in regard to the five major LA outcomes: adverse actor impact (25), adverse ‘others’ impact (19), toxic work environment (11), business damage (24) and detriment to brand (11). The numbers in the parentheses represent the number of data segments for each code.

Overall, 90 data segments were attributed to these outcomes across 27 cases. The cases with most data segments were Holmes (19) and Kalanick (10) with the other 25 having six data segments, or less, each. Holmes had 10 segments for ‘adverse “others” impact’ and Kalanick five for business damage. Notably, both Holmes and Bezos had four each for toxic work environment.

The definition of arrogance (Johnson, RE et al. 2010) includes an intention to target another person, as shown in the following examples for Holmes:

The massive firings, IT surveillance, silos, and most importantly, deceptions about the progress of the product were already part of the culture—a culture totally created by Holmes as CEO. (Malone 2021, p. 2)

As the company spiraled downwards, ‘a culture in which fear, intimidation, and turnover were the norms’. (Malone 2021, p. 2)

These examples reveal Holmes’s felt-superiority and need for dominance and control. While Holmes’s intentions were clear, Kalanick achieved a similar outcome through his personal and business behaviour that eventually led to such damage that he was forced by the Uber Board to relinquish his role as CEO and, later, that as board member. Two examples are his abuse of an Uber driver that was video recorded and made public, and the ‘stealing’ of business information from Google and being sued by them (Newcomer & Stone 2018, p. 3). Similarly to the examples for Holmes, these were based on felt-

superiority but in Kalanick's case, manifested as a disregard for rules—that is, normal rules did not apply to him.

These examples are consistent with the definition of arrogance, namely, that negatively affecting a target is intentional behaviour, but the same does not apply to the actor. The data show that leaders who were identified as using arrogant behaviour also experienced some unexpected form of personal detriment that appeared connected to that behaviour. For instance, there are several examples of Carly Fiorina (Hewlett-Packard [HP]) engaging in arrogant behaviour, which was how she usually engaged with her subordinates and the broader workforce (Johnson, C 2008). During her tenure, HP's business performance and stock price deteriorated, and, eventually, the board removed her after she had worked six years in the role. The inference is that her arrogant behaviour contributed to her demise.

A second example is that of the ill-fated tenure of Home Depot ex-CEO Robert Nardelli. Nardelli's tenure was adversely affected by an ill-considered encounter with shareholders, which appeared to have a foundation in arrogance, that is, in his case, a sense of superiority and entitlement that led to behaviour that could be described as dominating, inconsiderate, deceptive and belittling. This is demonstrated in the following data segment:

Nardelli later apologized publicly for the meeting's poor 'format' and vowed to improve it. But by that time, the debacle had taken on a life of its own, leading to an outcry by shareholders, a looming proxy battle amid speculation of a leveraged buyout. But Home Depot was no longer the story. Nardelli was. And that all led to credibility issues. (Waters 2007, p. 3)

In effect, he could not hide his disregard for shareholders, which led to his demise. A third example is that of Bill Gates and Steve Ballmer regarding the 2001 anti-trust court case against Microsoft, which is best revealed through the following quote:

that arrogance is what drove Judge Jackson over the edge. He concluded that Mr. Gates and his friends could not be trusted, that they would always try to find a way around any court order that limited their conduct, and that the only way to enforce good behavior was a drastic 'structural' remedy. It's now up to Microsoft to prove that he was wrong. (Krugman 2001, p. 2).

In a further 19 out of 32 cases, a leader experienced some form of personal detriment associated with their behaviour and performance in the role. Six outcomes in the systematic

literature review relevant to actor detriment were identified and were applied to the data. These are poor perception of the actor in terms of likeability, respect and being deserving of failure (9), removal from role (6), leader's downfall/failure (4), criminal prosecution (4), action against actor by organisation (1) and lost reputation (1). The numbers in the parentheses indicate the number of data segments attributed to each outcome.

These examples demonstrate intent by the actor against a target, but an unintended consequence for themselves. The case of BP, its then CEO Tony Hayward and the 2010 Deepwater Horizon disaster is a further example of business damage resulting from LA. BP was charged with corporate manslaughter, paid more than US\$65B in fines, compensation and legal damages, and faced damage to its reputation and brand (Brown & Peterson 2022). The extent of that damage attributable to the CEO might not be quantifiable, yet Hayward's insensitive remarks that became public, including, 'what did we do to deserve this?' (Brown & Peterson 2022, p. 126) and that he 'wanted his life back' (Brown & Peterson 2022, p. 129), were a contributing factor. As Bates (2015) observed, arrogance did more damage than the spill itself owing to Hayward's response to the disaster.

Creating a toxic work environment occurred in two key cases, those of Jeff Bezos and Elizabeth Holmes. Regarding Holmes, the evidence provided thus far indicates a deliberate act to create a submissive culture, in which case her behaviour, which includes arrogance, would be deemed intentional. As for Bezos, he argued that part of his job was to work on business culture (Kantor & Streitfeld 2015), but any reputation Bezos had for creating a positive workplace was damaged when Kantor and Streitfeld (2015) published their article entitled 'Inside Amazon: Wrestling Big Ideas in a Bruising Workplace'. The content of the article, which demonstrated the bruising aspects of the Amazon work environment, ties employee reports of unfair treatment and questionable leader behaviour to the 14 leadership principles that Bezos developed and implemented. The inference is that these principles such as 'Purposeful Darwinism' reflect Bezos's behaviour as intentional and, at times, can be labelled as arrogant. The data show that both Bezos and his leaders engaged in arrogant behaviours, and there is evidence that the Amazon workplace is difficult. However, the data are unable to inform about intentionality. What does arise from this point is that the culture of a business reflects its leader's behaviour.

In all, these cases and arrogant behaviours demonstrate the intention to cause harm to a target, and possibly work environment, but not necessarily to the actor or business, and if

detriment linked to a leader's arrogance were to occur, then presumably it would be unexpected and unintentional (removing the possibility that the leader had self-destructive tendencies). If this finding is accurate, it calls into question leader self-awareness as it is not reasonable to think that when a CEO's tenure is under examination owing to behaviour and performance issues, the CEO would not know this to be the case. Of the 19 cases and data segments listed under 'adverse actor impact', none of the leader outcomes would be considered unforeseeable, given the events preceding them, yet from what the data reveal, many of those leaders continued to behave the way they always had. See Section 6.2.5 'Unintended Consequences' for further discussion of this issue.

5.4.5.1 Regarding the Research Question

For the research question, these findings suggest a relationship between LA antecedents, behaviours and outcomes together with negative IWB antecedents, namely, unproductive leader behaviour and leader incivility, and unproductive climate and culture. There is no connection between the latter and IWB behaviours and outcomes. There are connections between productive leader behaviour and productive climate and culture with IWB behaviours and outcomes. This finding suggests that LA does not have a relationship with either positive leadership (styles and characteristics) as an IWB antecedent, or with IWB behaviours and outcomes. Alternatively, LA negatively affects people, business and the work environment and has little relationship with IWB.

5.4.5.2 Regarding the Conceptual Framework

There are inconsistencies between the conceptual framework and data, namely, that the data show LA outcomes are a consequence of leadership behaviour and style rather than a contributor to it, and LA behaviours associate with leadership style (including control and inspirational), leader behaviour (productive, unproductive and leader incivility) and productive or unproductive climate and culture.

The leadership literature has demonstrated that leaders create an organisation's culture through their own behaviour, the systems they approve for use in the business and the manifested symbols of those in the workplace (Macdonald, Burke & Stewart 2018; Schein 1983, 1990). For example, a leader's dominating behaviour may be perceived as unfair by the recipient and observers, leading to a negative perception of the leader, and if this perception is shared by others, it can contribute to the perceived negative climate and

culture. However, the original framework does not depict the sequence of these relationships. This is addressed in Section 6.2.8.

5.4.6 Documents and Data Segments

MAXQDA provides a facility to identify the documents that have contributed to the analysis in terms of frequencies and occurrences. Maps were created for four different code sets using all documents but only included codes that had high frequencies. The code sets were ‘All codes’, ‘LA behaviours and outcomes’, ‘LA antecedents’ and ‘IWB antecedents’. After the data segments were allocated, it was found that six documents had no allocations, meaning the analysis was based on 142 documents.

5.4.7 Unallocated Codes and Unused Documents

As pointed out in data collection Section 4.8.3 (2.xiii,) 59 of the 101 codes each had less than six allocated data segments with 23 of these having no segments, meaning that, as Table A5 (see Appendices) shows, the analysis relied on 42 codes, representing 87% of the data. There were six unused documents, and all were news media articles. The related implications are discussed in Chapter 6.

5.4.8 Summary

The findings from the analysis using MAXQDA confirmed there is no association between LA antecedents, behaviours and outcomes beyond that with negative IWB antecedents; these antecedents, in turn, have no association with IWB behaviours and outcomes. The IWB antecedent ‘inspirational leadership’ associates with IWBs and outcomes, as well as positive IWB antecedents. These findings provide an initial answer to the research question, that a relationship between LA and IWB occurs only in the context of inspirational leadership.

However, further analysis showed that despite inspirational leaders engaging in behaviours that can present as arrogance, such as being demanding or micro-managing through dominating, deceptive, dismissive and inconsiderate behaviours, IWB can still be triggered, but it requires followers to be attracted to their leader’s vision with an expectation of receiving a benefit that outweighs the arrogant behaviour. The best example of this is Andy

Cunningham from Apple, who referred to the greatness that Steve Jobs evoked from her despite his driven and Machiavellian behaviour (Bariso 2016).

This perception of Jobs raises an interesting methodological issue of how to best capture and accurately report arrogant leader behaviour. In the Cunningham example it is clear that she experienced Jobs' wrath through her reported words. Coppola (2023) using the interview was able to report individualised accounts of leader arrogance, however, if using a quantitative instrument, those accounts may be lost and inaccurate conclusions made about the effect of the leader's behaviour. This point is addressed in Section 7.5.

It was found that 'dominate' was the primary arrogant behaviour, and engaging in this met the actor's need for control. Using position and title, and bullying were the main behaviours used to achieve this aim. Domineering behaviour was observed in documents related to 19 out of 32 leaders, including Holmes, Bezos and Job, the latter two being considered inspirational leaders.

The topic of intention emerged from the analysis but in two ways. The first is intention as acted out by the leader, and as a dimension of arrogance aligned with harm. The concept is that lower-level arrogance, such as portraying self-importance, has less intent to harm people than, at the opposite end of the arrogance continuum, in which dominance is located and infers an intention to harm a target. There is also the theoretically unsubstantiated proposition that as intent to harm intensifies, so does damage to the arrogant leader, and business. The data indicate this could have occurred in cases such as those of Don Blankenship (Massey) who was jailed for safety law breaches following a mine explosion that resulted in numerous deaths; Elizabeth Holmes in regard to the collapse of Theranos and her subsequent imprisonment; and Tony Hayward, who is reported to have maintained the same approach to managing the impact of the Deepwater Horizon disaster until his removal from the role of CEO BP. Only further research would confirm this proposition, but more importantly, the issue raised the topic of unintended consequences from LA. Likewise, this is a topic for consideration in future research as the data in this study do not provide evidence to conclude that outcomes such as 'adverse actor impact', 'business damage', 'brand detriment' and 'adverse "others" impact' are not predicted by the arrogant leader.

Other themes that emerged, and reflect inspirational leadership, are a leader creating conditions for success, their passion and vision, and creating a collaborative work environment. These are consistent with the earlier argument that a leader who can arouse people through a vision and create personal value for them will be more likely to trigger IWBs. Figure 16 depicts the key themes from the analysis.

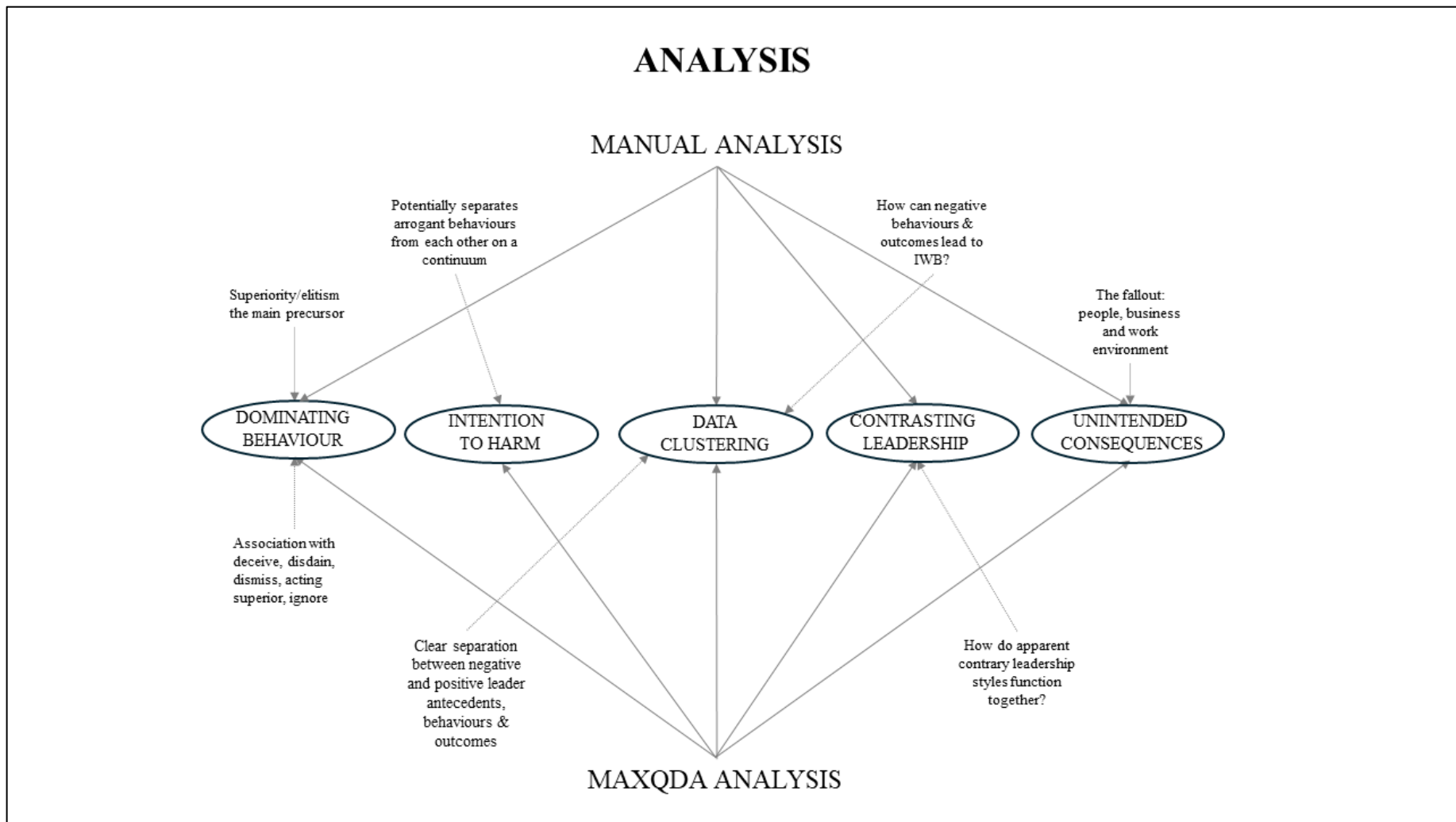


Figure 16. Findings from MAXQDA and Manual Analysis

5.5 Combining the Analyses

The manual analysis and the analysis using the MAXQDA software provided information that informs the research question, and insights into aspects of LA and IWB. Figure 16 depicts the major findings from both analyses.

5.5.1 The Leader Arrogance – Innovative Work Behaviour Relationship

MAXQDA showed two different relationships, one involving LA antecedents, behaviours and outcomes, and IWB antecedents, but not including IWB behaviours or outcomes, and the other, an association between some positive IWB antecedents with IWB behaviours and outcomes. MAXQDA did not show a connection between LA and positive IWB antecedents.

Further analysis showed that despite inspirational leaders engaging in behaviours that can present as arrogance, such as being demanding or micro-managing through dominating deceptive, dismissive and inconsiderate behaviour, IWB can still be triggered, but it requires followers to be attracted to their leader's vision with an expectation of receiving a benefit that outweighs the arrogant behaviour.

The manual analysis showed LA may be related to IWB in two ways. Employees may engage in innovative behaviour despite their leader's, at times, unacceptable behaviour due to that leader articulating a vision they find attractive, but this is less likely to happen if that vision is not consistent with how they experience their work environment and how their leader behaves (arrogantly). Complimenting this finding are the further findings that inspirational leaders create conditions for success, have passion and vision and create collaborative work environments.

The conclusions from these analyses are that LA, in isolation, has no association with employee IWBs. It is also worth noting, as referred to in Section 2.2, RE Johnson et al's (2010) finding that high levels of arrogance were related to low levels of organisation citizenship behaviour, or extra-role behaviours, which appears consistent with both analyses that LA is isolated from IWB. However, if the arrogant leader is able to articulate a captivating vision, behave in a manner consistent with that vision and provide a benefit (experience and growth) to the employee, then

IWBs may ensue. In essence, it means that employees can tolerate bad leader behaviour if the personal value for them outweighs the objectionable behaviour.

5.5.2 Dominance

In the analysis conducted using MAXQDA, ‘dominate’ is the primary arrogant behaviour, and engaging in it appeared to meet the actor’s need for control. Using position and title, and bullying were the main behaviours used to achieve this end. Domineering behaviour was observed in documents related to 19 out of 32 leaders, including Holmes, Bezos and Jobs, the latter two being considered inspirational leaders. The manual analysis supported this finding and added control, as distinct from control leadership, as a key aspect of dominating behaviour. The actor’s purpose in seeking control was also raised and is further discussed in Chapter 6.

5.5.3 Leader Arrogance Behaviours

Although 160 behaviours are listed in Table A1, which were condensed to 38 for the LA data analysis framework, the data showed that 5–9 behaviours arose in LA more often than others. MAXQDA revealed ‘dominate’, ‘deceive’, ‘disdain’, ‘ignore’ and ‘acting superior’ were the key LA behaviours, whereas the manual analysis added four more: ‘initiate’, ‘dismiss’, ‘disrespect’ and ‘inconsiderate’. Together, these account for 62% of the data segments, suggesting that, in practice, these behaviours might be what recipients most encounter. This finding helps simplify a complex construct and would be useful in isolating arrogance from narcissism, pride and hubris.

5.5.4 Intention

The topic of intention arose from the analysis conducted using MAXQDA, that is, intention as acted out by the leader, and as a dimension of arrogance aligned with harm. The proposition is that arrogance does not comprise random behaviours but can be explained using the idea of intention to harm. Namely, arrogance sits on a continuum and at one end are lower-level behaviours, such as ‘acting superior’ that demonstrates the actor’s belief they are better than others, which is more about bolstering their own self-esteem and hence self-worth (Tanesini 2018). Thus, the actor is self-focused and has little intention to cause harm to others. At the opposite end is ‘dominance’, which is based on letting others know that the actor is superior and involves control and the intention to harm a target.

5.5.5 Unintended Consequences

Both analyses examined whether LA outcomes could be predicted by the actor—this is discussed in Sections 5.4.5 and 6.2.5 on unintended consequences. The conclusion is that it is possible but given that these outcomes occur at the time of declining business performance (as indicated in the cases), there may be other explanations for why these outcomes (e.g. potential criminal prosecution in the cases of Ebbers, Holmes, Lay, Kozlowski, Blankenship and Scrushy) occur.

5.5.6 Data Sources and Documents

The manual analysis of the documents and data revealed that the sources providing most value relevant to LA and IWB were academic papers, professional and trade articles and journals, and book chapters. This finding is derived from analysing data segments, which showed that although news media accounted for 54% of all documents, they only contributed 37% of data segments. Academic sources provided 20% of documents and 25% of data segments, and the professional group supplied 25% of documents and 36% of data segments. Essentially, that is 64% of data segments from 45% of documents.

In contrast, MAXQDA can detect and map data segments by documents using either frequency or occurrences of codes as the grouping criteria. Maps for co-occurrence were created for all documents and codes, but these failed to provide meaningful data. Further analyses were made for the key LA behaviours and outcomes, LA antecedents and IWB antecedents. The data were able to show outlying documents but did not assist in identifying the documents or their sources that provided the most valuable data. The more beneficial information arose from understanding the quality of information sources rather than the actual documents. To this end, the manual analysis was more useful.

5.5.7 Application of Theoretical Framework

Attribution theory helps people make sense of their own and others' behaviour by attributing cause to behaviour (Heider 1958). Although the two analyses found that LA, in isolation, was not associated with employee IWBs, the conclusion that arrogant leader behaviour may be tolerated under certain conditions (just described) may be explained by Attribution Theory. This is depicted in the following sequence:

- > attributions are made by a leader (inspirational) about an employee's performance (trigger) not being good enough, leading to 'hypothesising' a cause based on past and current conditions, such as, 'this has happened many times before, but I know from past experience the employee can do better'.
- > the leader might correctly conclude that the cause of the event was external to them (originating from the employee) and unstable, meaning it did not happen all the time but within the employee's control as past occurrences indicate that with appropriate stimulation (arrogant leader behaviour), performance improved.
- > thus, the cause would be external to the leader, unstable yet controllable.
- > from the employee's (*p*) perspective, on receiving a poor evaluation from their leader *p* 'experiences' negative emotion.
- > *p* attributes cause to themselves as they have not 'invested' in the project.
- > the cause is internal to the employee, unstable as it does not happen all the time and is controllable by them.
- > however, when the leader engages in arrogant behaviour, the employee experiences even greater negative emotion.
- > '*p*' attributes cause for the unpleasant behaviour to the leader.
- > the cause is external to the employee, it is stable behaviour as this is usually what happens when work is not to the leader's satisfaction and is uncontrollable by the employee.
- > being uncontrollable, the employee may experience anger or shame. If anger, then a poor response from the employee may ensue. If not, it may be due to the employee knowing that a benefit may arise for them in terms of the work they do eventually meeting the leader's expectation.

In this case, attribution theory explains the last event as the leader accepting success arose from their actions—the cause was internal to the leader, stable as that is what they always do, and controllable by them. This example may serve to explain how attribution theory can account for the circumstances of a leader's arrogance being tolerated, as greater personal benefit comes from working with the leader than from not working with them.

5.6 Conclusion

Evidence was found of a relationship between LA (antecedents, behaviours and outcomes) and negative IWB antecedents (control leadership and unproductive leader behaviour, and unproductive climate and culture). Both analyses provided evidence of a relationship between inspirational leadership and IWB behaviours and outcomes.

Dominance was a common observation in both analyses, and in MAXQDA ‘dominate’ (51) together with ‘deceive’ (28), ‘disdain’ (20), ‘ignore’ (23) and ‘acting superior’ (22) were key LA behaviours while a further four, ‘initiate’(13), ‘dismiss’ (12), ‘disrespect’ (15) and ‘inconsiderate’ (16), were added from the manual analysis. This finding raised the prospect that the items in the LA data analysis framework could be reduced, given that those nine behaviours represented 200 of the 325 data segments allocated (62%).

Both analyses identified the potential issue around unintended consequences, but this requires further research as it is unclear why leaders would continue arrogant behaviour when it could be reasonably foreseen that this behaviour could cause harm to themselves. Intention to harm was raised as an issue through the analysis conducted via MAXQDA and is reviewed in Chapter 6. The manual analysis found the sources providing most data were academic papers, professional and trade articles and journals, and book chapters, which accounted for 64% of data from 45% of the documents, while news media provided 37% of the data segments from 54% of the documents, that is, they were about half as effective. This finding is constructive in informing how to use document analysis more effectively in qualitative research, but the issue of data availability remains, meaning that low-return sources may be a problem that researchers have to accept.

The value of undertaking separate analyses is in the confirmation of findings informing the research question, while both analyses made separate contributions by highlighting the potential role of intention to harm in arrogance and by identifying the richest data sources.

The next chapter details the study’s findings through an initial report then an in-depth discussion regarding significant findings.

Chapter 6: Findings

6.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a review of key factors from the analysis and discussion of significant findings. Section 6.2 is the report of findings and Section 6.3 is the discussion reading those findings. Section 6.4 summarises the findings and discussion.

6.2 Report

At the end of Section 5.2 the point was made that analysis of data relies on content derived from the documents selected for this study. Study findings are similarly constrained, meaning that maintaining study integrity requires not stepping outside the data.

In this study, a total of 148 documents representing 32 cases (leaders) were included, which generated 745 data segments for analysis. The cases were organised according to five innovative industry categories: technology (53), healthcare (17), transportation and energy (41), consumer goods and services(12) and media and telecommunications (24), and a single document used for the technology, and transportation and energy categories (the numbers in the parentheses are the number of documents per group). All cases originated in the US, Germany and England during 2000–2024. The data segments (the numbers in the parentheses) were for the technology (239), healthcare (94), transportation and energy (177), consumer goods and services (105) and media and telecommunications (124) industries, and six for the additional document (labelled multiple). In all, 476 of those segments were allocated to LA and 269 to IWB. The initial observations about the data are drawn from the frequencies of antecedents, behaviours and outcomes for both LA and IWB.

As summarised in Table 20, the antecedent that most often led to LA was superiority/elitism, manifesting in dominant behaviour that led to adverse effects for the business, the actor, others in the workplace and the work environment. In contrast, the effect of IWB antecedents on IWB behaviour is less obvious. The data suggest that negative leader antecedents, such as leader incivility, unproductive leader behaviour, and unproductive climate and culture, may be more strongly associated with ‘control leadership’ than with IWB behaviours. In contrast ‘inspirational’

leadership, productive leader behaviour and a productive climate and culture appear to be associated with IWB behaviours, such as generating and implementing ideas, as well as IWB outcomes.

Table 20. Frequencies of Significant Antecedents, Behaviours and Outcomes

	Antecedent	Behaviour	Outcome
Leader arrogance	Superiority/elitism (20)	Dominate (51)	Adverse actor impact (25)
	Self-importance (8)	Deceive (28)	Business damage (24)
	Entitlement (7)	Ignore (23)	Adverse ‘other’ impact (19)
		Acting superior (22)	Detriment to brand (19)
		Disdain (20)	Toxic work environment (11)
Innovative work behaviour	Leader incivility (41)	Realisation: turns intention into reality (14)	Sustainable economic performance (13)
	Unproductive leader behaviour (28)	Creates idea/solutions in response to perceived opportunities or problems (12)	Project success (10)
	Unproductive climate and culture (28)	Evaluates the viability of an idea (10)	
	Productive climate and culture (15)	Senses opportunities for change or improvement (10)	
	Productive leader behaviour (18)		
	Leader attributes (18), Control leadership (18)		
	Inspirational leadership (12)		

The relationship between LA and IWB may be best explained through the revised conceptual framework. LA behaviours, influenced by specific antecedents, are among the many behaviours of a leader that influence people in a business, including the leader and the business itself.

However, the LA behaviours have negative effects, including adversity for people (the leader and others) and business performance. They also adversely influence the leader's performance in the leadership role and affect the organisation's climate and culture and the perception of the leader as productive. The data show that these effects, in turn, have no relationship with the actual IWB of employees, leading to the conclusion that LA has no association with the engagement of people in innovative work. Nevertheless, the data show that an inspirational leadership style associates with employee IWB, but also reveal that some inspirational leaders achieved this same outcome while engaging in arrogant behaviour. This anomaly is potentially explained through the self-interest of employees who tolerated arrogant behaviour if the leader articulated an evocative vision, and if employees experienced enough benefits (e.g. growth and development) such that these outweighed the arrogance.

From the data in this study, it can be concluded that the LA–IWB relationship is that LA constrains IWB, unless employees predict they will experience a level of benefit that compensates for the leader's arrogance.

In relation to the research question 'In what way, if any, is leader arrogance related to innovative work behaviour in times of discontinuity?', this study finds:

1. LA is related to IWB only when:
 - a leader uses an inspirational (transformational) leadership style.
 - can articulate an evocative vision.
 - behaves in a manner that is consistent with that vision.
 - provides a benefit to followers that outweighs the cost of the arrogant behaviour.
2. In times of discontinuity, capable leaders who build trust with followers are best positioned to trigger IWB.
3. A control leadership style, on its own, may not elicit IWBs.

6.2.1 Data Clustering

There were primarily two data clusters clearly separated by the positive nature of inspirational leadership manifested in IWBs and outcomes, and the negative cluster of LA antecedents,

behaviours and outcomes, that further separated into three sub-clusters. Two of these appeared to be based on the severity of behaviour and outcome, and the third on the effects of LA antecedents and behaviours affect the leader's 'leadership', beyond personal detriment to the leader, others and the business.

6.2.2 Innovative Work Behaviour

Little has been reported about IWB, primarily because of the lack of data. As has been discussed, actual behaviours and outcomes have been the subject of conceptual studies rather than empirical ones, leading to a lack of information about behaviours and outcomes, despite the numerous quantitative studies.

What has been observed from the data is that inspirational leaders are more likely to trigger IWBs in employees. In certain commentaries (Peters 1990; Sutton 2003), arrogance is praised for its positive effect on innovation, and the underlying principle is that with arrogance comes risk-taking and obstinance, which means that arrogant people (not behaviour) are more likely to take risks and create ideas based on optimism and confidence and that they disregard pessimists. However, the connection being made between LA and IWB is different, in that it is the leader who triggers IWB through their own behaviour, thus this study's emphasis on leaders and leadership.

6.2.3 Dominating Behaviour

Apart from what has already been reported in this thesis, LA was primarily observed in a few key behaviours. There were 38 behaviours in the LA data analysis framework coded for analysis using the MAXQDA software, and 325 data segments were assigned to these codes. As shown in Table 20, 'Dominate' is the primary behaviour (51), followed by 'deceive' (28), 'ignore' (23), 'acting superior' (22) and 'disdain' (20), that is, five behaviours accounted for 47% of the data.

Eighteen of the 32 cases had data segments coded as dominance, and the predominant ways of achieving dominance were bullying, manipulating, being in/exercising control and using 'position and title' (these are the sub-items to 'dominate' from the LA systematic literature review and are listed in Table A1).

‘Dominate’ had stronger associations with ‘deceive’, ‘adverse actor impact’, and the IWB antecedents of ‘control leadership’, ‘unproductive leader behaviour’, ‘unproductive climate and culture’, and ‘leader incivility’. It had minimal association with IWB behaviours and no association with IWB outcomes. As regards other LA behaviours, it was most strongly associated with ‘deceive’ and ‘hostile’. The association of ‘dominate’ with the IWB antecedents of leadership style, behaviour, and climate and culture is more easily understood in terms of the revised conceptual framework that more clearly outlines the LA–IWB relationship (see the conceptual map in Section 6.2.11). Namely, LA, as one of many leadership behaviours, contributes to the dynamic nature of leadership in an organisation along with the leader’s attributes and leadership style and the climate and culture the leader creates.

6.2.4 Contrasting Leadership

The meaning of the term contrasting leadership is that a leader may engage in contrary leadership behaviours that not only reflect who they are but ensure their goals are realised (Isaacson 2012; Kennedy 2016; Miklaszewicz 2023; Tourish & Willmott 2023). The MAXQDA code co-occurrence map (see Figure 14) shows that control leadership associates with negative leadership factors (behaviour, and climate and culture) and is clearly separated from inspirational leadership that is associated with positive leadership factors, IWBs and outcomes. However, what is not shown in that output is that inspirational leaders engage in control leadership. This aspect is captured in two quotations from Walter Isaacson’s (2012) article, ‘The Real Leadership Lessons of Steve Jobs’, in which he has referred to his interview with Jobs. The first is as follows: ‘When I pressed him on whether he could have gotten the same results while being nicer, he said “Perhaps so. But it’s not who I am”’ (p. 99).

This quotation characterises an aspect of Jobs’ personality many people disliked, but it underpins the very demanding nature of his leadership and it operated alongside his more inspirational side shown in the second quotation:

‘I’ve learned over the years that when you have really good people, you don’t have to baby them’, Jobs told me. ‘By expecting them to do great things, you can get them to do great things. Ask any member of that Mac team. They will tell you it was worth the pain.’ Most of them do. (Isaacson 2012, p. 100)

In a study of Jobs's leadership, Valentine (2014) concluded that the different attributes of his leadership lay across both authoritarian and transformational leadership styles. He identified the authoritarian attributes as controlling, callous, impatient and driven and the inspirational as visionary, intelligent, creative and passionate. Jobs was a demonstration of contrasting leadership in practice.

6.2.5 Unintended Consequences

The data showed that the consequences of LA included detriment to the actor, the recipient and the business. The question is whether those outcomes were intended or unintended; this is discussed in some detail in Section 5.4.5, and it is concluded that the arrogant behaviours observed in the data demonstrate the leaders' intention to target another person(s) without necessarily considering that harm or detriment might befall them as well. Five of the CEOs who experienced detriment were convicted of fraud, and one of breaching workplace safety laws; it might be presumed that given the criminality involved, they were very aware of the potential for detriment. A further 16 were removed from their role owing to performance or behavioural (including ethical) issues, and six experienced poor perception as leader in terms of likeability, respect and being deserving of failure.

The other area for unintentional detriment was in business, including reputational damage. There were 24 instances of damage to businesses, which included reputational damage (5), financial failure or costs (12), fraud and corruption (6) and loss of competitive advantage (1), and eight of brand detriment, mostly due to deficient business decisions. If putting fraud and corruption to one side because it potentially drives a different leader behaviour, there is considerable evidence that unintentional detriment is a factor in LA.

From the documents and data segments extracted for analysis, it is not possible to conclude that the leaders were unaware of potential detriment. However, the detriment considered here is only in relation to arrogant leader behaviour, and to this end, the data and document narratives suggest the detriment experienced by some leaders, such as Mark Pincus, Travis Kalanick, Marissa Mayer and Tim Armstrong, may have been unintended, as their arrogance did not appear to ebb. That is, they lacked awareness of the impact of their behaviour on themselves.

Many explanations can be offered regarding the detrimental outcomes described. The proposition is that in some circumstances, leaders who engage in arrogant behaviour may not consider or detect that their arrogance could rebound, but if they do and yet persist with that behaviour, issues about competence could be expected to arise.

6.2.6 Times of Discontinuity

As stated earlier, the context of ‘times of discontinuity’ will be addressed following the analysis to understand how LA and IWB are affected. To re-state, ‘times of discontinuity’ refers to gaps and a lack of coherence in an organisation’s operations and environment, a period in which usual actions do not produce the expected results (Watson-Manheim, Chudoba & Crowston 2012), and to sudden and pervasive changes in the course of events in the variables under observation (Deeg 2009).

The question posed earlier for this study in answering the research question was ‘How would a discontinuity context affect innovative work behaviour and leader arrogance?’ The model of discontinuity presented in Figure 4 was crafted to reflect Bessant and Francis’s (2005) suggestion that a discontinuous environment requires a ‘do-different’ rather than a ‘do-better’ approach, and has seven features, which are discussed next.

The first feature is that of scale and whether discontinuity is experienced at a global, national, governmental, organisational or individual level. The data showed that issues of scale were limited to either the organisational or individual levels, unless there was criminality involved (six cases) in which case government would be added. However, the acceleration in the development of the internet and its uses and in the development of hardware was very much a part of the changing context of business in the early 2000s and later. Examples of businesses that did not initially and effectively respond to this change include Microsoft and Blackberry. Blackberry attempted to solve its problems by installing a new CEO, Thorsten Heins, in 2012, but by year-end, he had stepped down after failing to address Blackberry’s misfortunes and turn the business around, which is a failure centred on technology that was no longer relevant in a changing market (European CEO 2012). Microsoft lost market share to its rivals Apple and Google during the 2000–2010 period such that the value of a Microsoft share had lost about 30% of its value by 2010 (Gairola 2023). This loss occurred through Steve Ballmer’s period as CEO, but after his successor Satya Nadella

was appointed as CEO, its fortunes began to improve (Gairola 2023), which points to the importance of leader capability during a time of discontinuity.

The second, the initial experience of discontinuity can be a sense of threat, uncertainty or urgency that drives an organisation's response. As Bessant and Francis (2005) highlighted, organisations need to detect signals, no matter how weak, to identify potential discontinuities. HP led by Carly Fiorina is an example of a business that perceived the threat of changing computer market and HP's diminished presence in it. She addressed this threat through internal restructuring, changed focus to financial goals from people, changed reward systems and effected a merger with Compaq Computers. Similarly, David Zaslav, CEO at Warner Bros Discovery, sensed the threat of artificial intelligence to the entertainment industry, among other issues, and imposed austerity measures as a response.

The third, organisations that anticipated a changing business environment and drove large-scale discontinuity include Apple through its invention of the iPhone, Tesla in its development of electric vehicles, Amazon in consumer services and Uber in ride-share software. The data showed that the first three of these businesses were or are led by inspirational leaders.

The fourth, criticality of capable leadership (Deeg 2009; Zacher & Rudolph 2022) is demonstrated in the removal of 18 of the 32 CEOs from their role. The exclusion of cases in which criminality occurred left 12 CEOs who were removed for reasons of performance (8) and behaviour (4). Both performance and behaviour are aspects of capability (Macdonald, Dixon & Tiplady 2020; McGill et al. 2021). Further, at least three CEOs were removed because of their ineffective decision-making in a dynamically changed business environment, which demonstrated their lack of capability for the CEO role.

The fifth, the perception of leader behaviour, is demonstrated through issues to do with Travis Kalanick (Uber), who led the disruption of the taxi industry through ride-share software but created a culture in which objectionable leader behaviour, including favouritism, abuse and sexism, was accepted. In contrast, effective existing relationships between a leader and team members have been shown to be a key response to discontinuity, that is, everyday leadership matters most as effective relationships are built on reciprocal trust (Fors Brandebo 2021; Williams, TA et al. 2017). This is best demonstrated through inspirational leaders and the sector in which they work. The

collected documents and data show that Bezos, Musk and Jobs had effective teams and used these to lead innovation and change in their industry sector, if not globally. Examples include Apple's handheld devices, Space X's reusable rocket technology and Amazon's potential drone delivery service.

The sixth feature of the discontinuity model refers to people cognitively switching 'on' in response to discontinuity, which refers to moving from automatic responses (e.g. through habit) to consciously engaging, or active thinking. Watson-Manheim, Chudoba and Crowston (2012) explained three circumstances in which this change is likely to occur. The first is when there is a difference between expectations and reality, the second is when the situation is novel and the third is being asked to think actively, presumably by a leader. There are two examples of organisations dealing with or creating disruptive environments. One is Jeff Bezos (Stone 2014) driving employees to solve problems or respond to his exhortations on an idea, leaving it to them to provide an answer, which mirrors the third point of a leader activating people's thinking. Similarly, Steve Jobs would demand better solutions by using his persuasive and, at times, aggressive demeanour with those around him; it was the trigger, and people responded (Aley 2011; Love 2011).

The seventh feature of discontinuity is the opportunity it provides to innovate, and in the current context refers to 'do-different'. One example of this feature in the data includes that of Elon Musk founding Space X in 2002 to provide space launch services at a time when the principal space exploration company in the US, NASA (i.e. National Aeronautics and Space Administration), had become too risk-averse (Wessels 2018). Further, although arguable, another example is of Travis Kalanick co-founding Uber at a time when Kalanick and co-founder Garrett Camp experienced troubles with the taxi industry. Their response was to create a ride-hailing service using a mobile phone app that led to changing the nature of the taxi industry worldwide.

This analysis allows this study to answer the question about how LA and IWB may be affected in times of discontinuity. An earlier argument (see Section 4.5) presented the idea that discontinuity can present in two ways—it occurs in an environment that only requires an improvement response, namely, in a stable state, or it occurs in a more fluid and unpredictable environment. It is this latter context that applies in this study and reflects the sometimes significant and sudden disruption that can occur at a global or lesser level but effectively requires the use of approaches different from

those used earlier, as the examples presented thus far demonstrate. The analysis shows that the key aspect of addressing a discontinuous business context is first with ensuring there is capable leadership, and second, in terms of triggering IWB, it is in the quality of that leadership (performance, behaviour, trust and vision) and the ability to influence people to think, and think differently.

What this analysis has not addressed is how ‘times of discontinuity’ relate to LA. Given the results of the manual analysis and the analysis via the MAXQDA software, and that the business context for all cases was fluid and unpredictable, requiring a ‘do-different’ approach, the response would be that it depends on leader capability. However, neither leader capability nor times of discontinuity is measured in this study, and thus, a conclusion cannot be drawn about a relationship between them. All that could be found of some relevance is that 29 out of 32 leaders engaged in the primary LA behaviours of ‘dominate’, ‘deceive’, ‘disdain’, ‘ignore’ and ‘acting superior’. This cannot be effectively broken down to leadership styles as there were too few inspirational leaders to make any effective conclusion.

In summary, IWB relates to ‘times of discontinuity’ through leaders triggering required behaviours owing to their capability and the reciprocal trust they build, but there is no clear indication of how LA relates to this context.

6.2.7 Attribution Theory

Attribution theory, as the theory underlying this study, effectively explained different stages and relationships within the study. It was particularly useful in demonstrating its application to the antecedent, behaviour and outcome structure of the data analysis frameworks. In the later discussion on anger and arrogance, it provides a step-by-step analysis of how anger elicits from motivated behaviour.

6.2.8 Conceptual Framework Review

Following data analysis, a review of the conceptual framework (see Figure 6) revealed it was unable to accurately depict the relationship between LA behaviours and ‘leadership’, and LA behaviours and LA outcomes. The data, displayed in Figure 14, showed that LA behaviours have a direct association with outcomes, and with aspects of leadership, including style, behaviour, and

climate and culture. Notably, the data showed LA outcomes were a consequence of, not a contributor to, leader behaviour.

An example serves to demonstrate this finding. Zynga ex-CEO Mark Pincus famously engaged in ‘clawing stock back’ from employees, considered an arrogant act (self-enhancement) as it was based on the belief that he contributed more to the running of the business than they did, resulting in him undervaluing what they did. This outcome derived from Pincus having an unreasonably high view of himself and led to him diminishing and humiliating groups of employees by demanding they return shares or be fired. The employees also perceived his actions as a ‘statement’ about inadequate role performance. The outcomes included legal action by employees and disaffection by that group with Pincus (Aksinaviciute 2014; Roose 2013; Smith 2013).

In essence, Pincus’s behaviour (Scheck & Shayndi 2011) is interpreted as LA, meets the standard of leader incivility, negatively affected the climate and culture, demonstrated a despotic style of leadership and showed him to be unproductive as a leader, as later attempts to rectify his error, made the situation far worse. The sequence of events appeared to be - *self-enhancement (antecedent) -> diminish & humiliate via announcement (leader arrogance and incivility) -> disaffected employees & legal settlements (adverse outcome for Zynga, employees & the CEO) and CEO perceived by employees and observers as despotic and unproductive -> negative climate & culture.*

The original conceptual framework must account for these events, yet it could not clearly do so. The problem is in how LA relates to the different aspects of leadership, and then to outcomes. Those aspects include leader attributes and behaviour, leadership style, and climate and culture. LA, despite being shown as separate to leadership, is a leader behaviour and a demonstration of leader incivility. Together, they represent aspects of the leader’s style and contribute to the climate and culture of the workplace, and then to the way that the organisation functions. Outcomes follow these integrating factors but because of their dynamic nature, may occur at different points in time.

This makes the sequence of events unclear; once Pincus made his stock reclamation announcement, the events that occurred next are unclear as is the order in which they occurred. Most likely the outcomes emerged over time, some faster than others, such as the perception of Pincus’ leadership and legal action.

The revised conceptual framework (Figure 17) accounts for the dynamic and integrating nature of leadership and organisation factors (IWB antecedents), shown as the area within the black box, and proposes they lead to LA outcomes and IWB behaviours. In the Pincus case, as was found in the analyses, there are no data that suggest LA on its own has an association with employees engaging in IWB.

The LA–IWB relationship, shown in Figure 17 as the area surrounded in red, proposes that leader behaviour includes displays of arrogance and will not happen in isolation. It will affect other aspects of leadership, including perceptions about leader behaviour (in terms of being productive and treating people civilly) and the type of leadership inferred by their actions (this is a reciprocal relationship in which a change in one affects the other), and then how these affect the organisation and its climate and culture. Leader attributes are shown as affecting leadership style, and ‘leadership’ affects, and is affected by, the broader aspects of an organisation, which include its structure, systems, policies and work organisation. Together, or separately, all these result in outcomes that affect people and business. Moreover, the LA–IWB relationship is not something that is necessarily visible, for it has many nuances, and how it is interpreted depends on the circumstances at the time it is being examined.

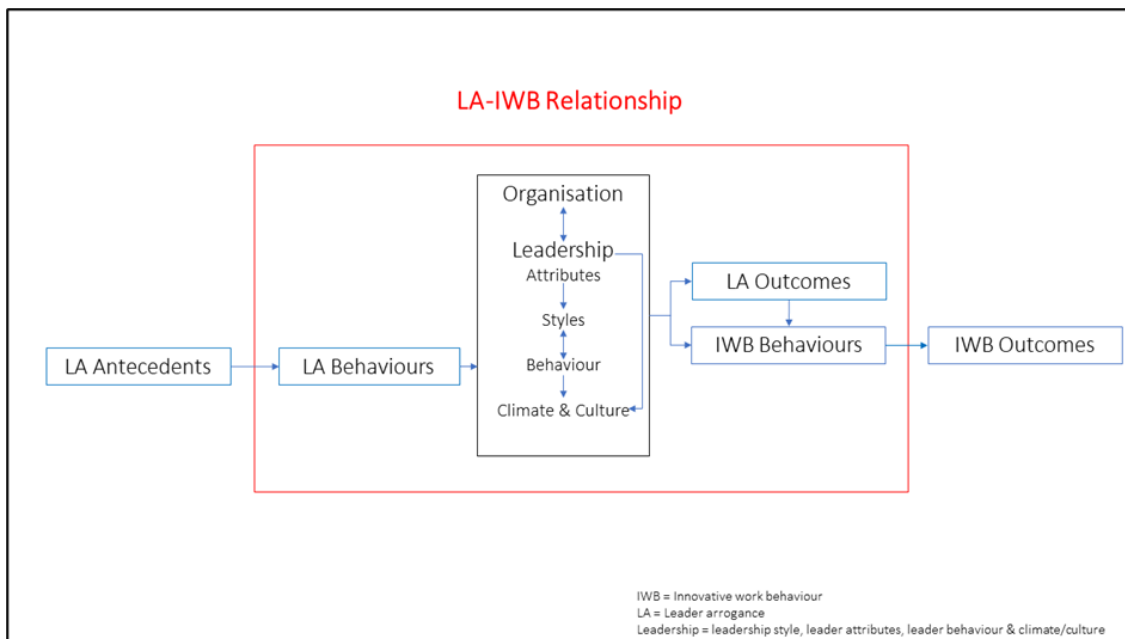


Figure 17. Revised Conceptual Framework

6.2.9 Connecting Theory to Practice

This study provides a unique opportunity to test literature against practice. This occurs through the construction and application of the data analysis frameworks to documented examples of LA and employee IWB. There are no current instruments that could have been used to collect data, thus the need to construct them, and in using them, numerous improvements became apparent, including to the research to identify content and the categories into which the content could fit.

Despite this, once the frameworks were applied, the output clearly demonstrated where theory meets practice as much of the document content (data segments) was revealed using the framework content and categories. To ensure accuracy, the frameworks were supported by definitions of each term or item, to ensure that only relevant content was identified.

6.2.10 Unallocated Codes and Unused Documents

The finding that the analysis relied on 87% of the data and 96% of documents means there may be codes and documents that are unnecessary, yet it provides an opportunity to make any future use of the data analysis frameworks less complex. As has been reported, 59 codes did not produce usable data and, of those, 23 provided nothing. The implication, but only from this study, is that those codes (items in the frameworks and Tables A1 and A2) raise questions about whether the data were sufficient to answer the research question, whether the number of antecedents, behaviours and outcomes were excessive, and the reason for the discrepancy between this study and the literature. These are addressed in Section 6.3.6.

As noted in Section 5.4.7, six news media articles had no identified data segments, which may be a reflection of the screening process, on the other hand it means 96% of documents were used.

6.2.11 Conceptual Map of Study

The purpose of this section is to identify the numerous concepts and theories that require examination from the study of four discrete factors: leadership, arrogance, IWB and discontinuity. To understand arrogance requires the study of the narcissism, hubris, pride and overconfidence constructs in order to isolate arrogance, as well as to determine how emotion, cognition and motivation theories are involved. In examining leadership, leadership, organisational, and social

psychology theories need to be reviewed to identify those applying to this study. Similarly, to understand IWB requires studying it as it has developed as a theory, but also more broadly includes innovation and creativity. Discontinuity requires examining theories of discontinuity, crisis management and disruption.

The study's theoretical framework uses attribution theory to guide and explain the data collection, analyses and findings, whereas the discussion considers how concepts and theories of anger, bullying, harmful leader behaviour, negative behaviour and incivility contribute to the findings and future research. Social exchange theory facilitated this process. Answering the research question requires understanding, and articulating, when necessary, where and how these theories, concepts and constructs intersect and isolate from one another, and in doing this, it underpins the response to the research question.

6.3 Discussion

This thesis is a study of leadership that examines how a discrete leader behaviour induces employees to engage in innovative work practices in a disruptive business environment. The behaviour is arrogance, the practices are IWBs and the environment is one of discontinuity. The study of leadership is the study of social behaviour (Kleshinski et al. 2021; Macdonald, Burke & Stewart 2018; Tims, Bakker & Xanthopoulou 2011), the study of arrogance that of behaviour, personality and context (Cowan et al. 2019; Johnson, RE et al. 2010; Tiberius & Walker 1998; Tracy & Prehn 2012), the study of IWB is that of follower behaviour (De Spiegelaere & Van Gyes 2012; Muchiri et al. 2020) and the study of discontinuity is that of structures and codes underpinning social practice (O'Farrell 1989). Drawing these differing concepts to one point provides an opportunity to gain insight into how organisational actors with contrasting perspectives, objectives, aspirations and characteristics function together to achieve goals.

6.3.1 The Leader Arrogance – Innovative Work Behaviour Relationship

This study found the LA–IWB relationship to be one in which an arrogant leader can only trigger IWB when an employee perceives a benefit of greater value to them than the cost of the leader's behaviour. The data show this benefit derives from the experience of working with the leader and the personal growth that ensues for the follower. .

The demonstration in the data, as presented in Section 5.4.2 and repeated below, that captures this relationship is of Andy Cunningham, who described Jobs as:

a visionary, a genius, a driven and infrequently tender soul, a father, and a Machiavellian mastermind. ... I spent five years working closely with Steve and it was a most phenomenal experience that touched me emotionally every day with amazement, anger, and satisfaction all at once. It took me way beyond where I ever thought I would go. I wouldn't change it for the world.
(Bariso 2016, p. 3)

While the data on Jobs would concur with this statement, it also reveals Cunningham's relationship with him, and it informs the LA-IWB relationship through the examination of six phrases in that quotation: 'a visionary, a genius, driven', 'Machiavellian mastermind', 'five years working closely with Steve', 'a most phenomenal experience', 'touched me emotionally with amazement, anger and satisfaction all at once' and 'took me beyond where I ever thought I would go'.

The first phrase 'a visionary, a genius, driven' is consistent with someone who, in leadership terms, displayed the attributes of a transformational leader (Valentine 2014), and in this study, this is incorporated into inspirational leadership. The second phrase 'Machiavellian mastermind' alludes to Jobs's ruthlessness, manipulation and cunning (*APA Dictionary of Psychology* 2020), but not his reputation for being scathing of people when something was not to his liking, although there is ample evidence of this in the data. 'Five years working closely with Steve' infers a robust working relationship, indicated by 'five years' and 'close' that support the idea of effectiveness and durability. 'A most phenomenal experience' suggests that Cunningham benefitted from working with and around Jobs, while 'touched me emotionally with amazement, anger and satisfaction all at once' suggests the emotional range she experienced and 'took me beyond where I ever thought I would go' alludes to the growth she realised.

Synthesising these observations, Jobs may be seen as a leader engaging in transformational behaviours who could be ruthless, behave badly, work effectively with others by triggering a range of emotions that reflected interactions with him and add to people's growth simply through the experience of working with him. There are four elements of importance: Jobs as an inspirational leader, his unacceptable behaviour, the volatile nature of his interactions and individual enhancement from working with him.

This example demonstrates the LA–IWB relationship as follows—although Jobs was perceived as from the data as a transformational leader, his behaviour when engaging with others regarding deficiencies in their work has been perceived as arrogant (Aley 2011; Isaacson 2012; Love 2011). However, people were enriched through the experience of working with him, as he was able to trigger the behaviour he wanted from them, leading to personal and professional growth.

To understand this relationship more deeply, social exchange theory (Ahmad, R et al. 2022; Cook, KS et al. 2013) is used to explore and explain how inspirational leaders may trigger IWB in others despite their own, at times, arrogant behaviour. At the core of this theory is the principle of reciprocity in which actor and recipient receive mutual benefit.

Social exchange theory dates back to the 1920s (Malinowski 1922; Mauss 1925, cited in Ahmad, R et al. 2022) and was first articulated as a theory by Homans (1958) as the exchange of goods, both material and non-material (he used the symbols of approval or prestige as examples), in which people who give much to others try to get much back, with pressure on the recipient to return in kind. Cropanzano et al. (2017) suggested that social exchange theory is a set of conceptual models with some common features, such as that social life is a series of sequential transactions between two or more parties, resources are exchanged through the principal of reciprocity, the exchange may be influenced by the relationship between the parties and these relationships tend to be both trust-based and open-ended ones. This theory is used in organisational behaviour research, and due to its inherent nature (an initiating action, a relationship and a response), it has overlapped with many constructs within the realm of negative and positive workplace behaviours (Cropanzano et al. 2017). Hollander (1976) tested its propositions against transactional leadership, determining that goal achievement, as occurs in transactional leadership, is not a sufficient condition for effectiveness—it also requires (working) relationships that meet a follower need for meaningful social participation.

The relationship from the leader’s perspective implies a price for influencing others, which is for the leader to allow themselves to be influenced, namely, a reciprocal relationship, and incorporates the way followers perceive and respond to their leader. The transaction that occurs between leader and follower includes attaining group goals and being fairly rewarded to remain in the group, but

those judgements are relative to the needs of those involved, implying each person has a different perception of fairness.

Bass and Avolio (1990) emphasised the connection between transactional and transformational leadership, stating, 'it is important to be aware, however, that transformational leadership does not detract from transactional, rather it builds on it, broadening the effects of the leader on effort and performance' (p. 22). If transactional leadership is a base for effective leadership focusing on what has to be achieved and satisfying requirements of the exchange between leader and follower, transformational leadership is directed at developing people to their full potential, lifting follower desire for achievement and self-development (Bass & Avolio 1990). Using the theory of social exchange but in a transformational leadership context, followers engage in a relationship based on the leader directing their work in exchange for being included in goal attainment and being treated fairly. Followers perceive their leader uniquely, which is mirrored in their relationship with that leader and their individual development goals. Applying this to the earlier example of the relationship between Andy Cunningham and Steve Jobs, it may be interpreted that Cunningham accepted Jobs' behaviour as part of his directing her work in exchange for the experience of working with him, and the personal and professional growth that ensued. As Homans (1958) said, 'persons that give much to others, try to get much from them' (p. 606).

Given this exchange was as described, how can it be known whether the personal growth and experience of working with Jobs outweighed his bad behaviour, and what are the actual behaviours that triggered employees to perform better, presumably innovative, work? The answer to the first question is that the only person who could make that judgement was Cunningham, and based on social exchange theory, she must have considered it at least equitable, if not in her favour. The answer to the second question may come from the exchange between Jeff Bezos and employees articulated in Section 5.3.3 in which he comments:

I'm sorry, did I take my stupid pills today?

Are you lazy or just incompetent?

I trust you to run world-class operations and this is another example of how you are letting me down.

If I hear that idea again, I'm gonna have to kill myself.

Why are you ruining my life? (Cain 2017, p. 1)

These could all be classified as arrogant as they are belittling, hostile, humiliating and dominating; all fit into the aggressive category of arrogant behaviours. On the LA continuum (see Section 6.3.3) and on their own, they would be at the right end reflecting severe, intense behaviour designed to harm the recipient. What is not known is their context, the relationship between Bezos and the employees and how they perceived his comments. The context in which Jobs interacted with Cunningham, although intense, was accepted by Cunningham as a fair exchange. Thus, to know the arrogance ‘trigger’ for IWB requires knowledge about the parties, their relationship, the context for those comments and how they were perceived.

In terms of SL theory (see Section 2.7) the arrogant leader behaviours found in the data would be interpreted through the six values continua (trust, honesty, fairness, courage, dignity and love) as negative, in turn leading to an adverse perception of the leader and compliance, rather than enhancement behaviour by employees. This is consistent with the data not showing a positive, or any, relationship between leader arrogance and innovative work behaviour. The associations between leader arrogance and unproductive leader behaviour, leader incivility, unproductive climate and culture, and control leadership are unsurprising in SL theory terms, as leader behaviour is one of three tools leaders have to create their desired workplace culture, the others being systems and symbols.

Control leadership styles reflect a dominant approach in the use of systems to achieve organisational goals, effected through limiting employee authority and decision-making, and minimal input. The symbols of arrogant and unproductive leader behaviour, with a controlling leadership style are that of dominance and harm. Together the leader behaviour, systems and symbols from the data contribute to the perception of an unproductive workplace culture (Macdonald, Burke & Stewart 2018).

Despite finding LA may inhibit the IWB of employees, identifying LA can still be difficult e.g. leaders may be perceived as demonstrating their expertise and knowledge rather than superiority. Alternative explanations for perceived arrogant behaviour will, presumably, always be possible but what matters is the perception of targets, observers and businesses and the outcome(s) they bear. Returning to RE Johnson et al’s (2010) definition of arrogance, they proposed that arrogance was a set of behaviours (disparaging others) that communicated a sense of superiority, while this

study found that those behaviours had significant effects on people and business. If there is confusion about whether a behaviour is arrogance or not, it may be possible that one need go no further than identify perceptions of those who experienced the act in question and examine the outcomes of that behaviour (see Table 10).

6.3.2 A last consideration is whether there are leaders who stimulate innovation in others, as for example Steve Jobs and Jeff Bezos are reported to have done, but do not engage in arrogant behaviour. There is no reason this should not be the case but is outside the scope of this thesis. Ethical Implication of Findings

The key finding of this study (see Section 7.2) is that LA may foster IWB but only when a leader provides an acceptable and offsetting (from the follower's perspective) benefit to followers. This perspective leads to the ethical dilemma that arrogant leader behaviour may be interpreted as morally justifiable due to the follower perception of an offsetting benefit. This in turn may lead to leader arrogance becoming an entrenched behaviour as the leader would know all that has to be done is offer something of perceived value to counter their arrogance. Aside from the potential ethical issue involved in the social exchange between leader and follower, there remains the issue of whether arrogant leader behaviour can in any way be considered as morally acceptable, particularly in view of the type of behaviour it comprises, that is dominance, deceit, disdain, ignoring, acting superior, dismissing, disrespect and being inconsiderate.

To address this issue first requires clarifying the meaning of 'morally justifiable' and then understanding who this behaviour must be justifiable or acceptable to. Whiteley (1960) refers to morality as matters of "right or wrong" (pp. 141) as applied to the behaviours that a community teaches its members to adopt; thus moral behaviour is behaviour that accords with selected behavioural patterns and rules. The OED essentially defines 'justifiable' as 'defensible' and the Collins Dictionary as 'acceptable or correct because there is a good reason for it'. Thus it seems reasonable that 'morally justifiable' infers something as acceptable or correct based on the principle of 'right or wrong'.

As detailed in Section 2.7, Macdonald, Burke and Stewart (2018) propose a set of six core human values (honesty, fairness, love [care], dignity, courage and trust) against which behaviour may be judged. It may be possible to gauge leader arrogance as morally justified, or not, by applying

Whiteley's (1960) perception of morality (right or wrong) to these values, that is 'right' would accord with the positive end of these values and 'wrong' with the negative. Thus a leader who treats a follower with disdain might be perceived by the follower as morally wrong as the follower views the behaviour as cowardly, lacking dignity and uncaring. Similarly, deception by a leader might be perceived as morally wrong as the follower perceives it as unfair, dishonest and untrustworthy.

The above analysis suggests the follower would not perceive the leader's arrogant behaviour as morally justified. However, this is one view. If it is the CEO, for example Steve Jobs, who treats followers arrogantly by humiliating them in front of others, how is that behaviour perceived by colleagues, subordinates, the Apple Board, wider stakeholders and Jobs? There is evidence to suggest that the only person who would view it as morally justified would have been Jobs – 'When I pressed him on whether he could have gotten the same results while being nicer, he said perhaps so. "But it's not who I am," he said. "Maybe there's a better way—a gentlemen's club where we all wear ties and speak in this Brahmin language and velvet code words—but I don't know that way, because I am middle-class from California.'" (Isaacson 2012 pp. 99).

Whether others would agree with Jobs is arguable, and if not, the issue as to what organisations can do about such behaviour emerges. Leaders who behave arrogantly and without sanction set the ground for others to behave in the same way (Macdonald, Burke & Stewart 2018) with the consequence that arrogance insinuates itself into an organisation's culture as it becomes an accepted behaviour. In doing so, the perception of 'right or wrong' in regard to how people are treated within such an organisation, changes.

The key implication for practice is how long such behaviour is sustainable before it leads to loss and damage as found in the current study, which is an accountability of senior leadership, and Board where relevant.

6.3.3 Contrasting Leadership

It is important to note that the following discussion associating leaders with specific leadership styles only derives from the study data and doesn't preclude other perspectives. Second, a difference exists between leadership style and behaviour, for example transformational leadership

is defined in the literature as comprising four components, that is, idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individual consideration (Bass & Avolio 1990; Liborius 2017). If, for example, a leader only exhibited idealised influence through behaviours such as demonstrating empathy and integrity, according to the literature it would not reflect a transformational style, however the exhibited behaviours could be described as transformational. There is no evidence in the data suggesting any of the leaders jointly exhibit the four transformational components through their behaviour, although there is evidence, they intermittently engage in transformational behaviours. This argument also applies to autocratic/authoritarian leadership.

Based on the study data (see Section 5.2 and 6.2), a discussion about contrasting leadership styles is more one of leadership in practice, in contrast to theory. This study began identifying a range of leadership styles from the systematic literature review, which it condensed into seven styles. Of these, only two were applicable to the data, control and inspirational leadership. Control leadership comprises autocratic/authoritarian, transactional, directive and despotic leadership, whereas inspirational leadership comprises transformational, charismatic, entrepreneurial and digital leadership. However, only control and inspirational styles were used in the coding system as data segments were allocated to those two styles rather than all nine. There are two further observations about this approach. First, the data were insufficient to make more detailed analysis meaningful in terms of all styles (18 segments for control and 12 for inspirational), and second, in the process of applying the data analysis instrument, each identified segment was matched with one of the eight secondary control or inspirational leadership styles for reference purposes (as listed in Table A2 in the Appendices). This approach allowed more detailed analysis resulting in control leadership being broken down into 13 autocratic/authoritative data segments, four despotic leadership segments and one directive; there were 10 transformational, one charismatic and one entrepreneurial leadership data segments in inspirational leadership. In essence, this resulted in control leadership being predominantly autocratic/authoritarian and inspirational leadership being primarily transformational. The question then is how these two styles integrate so that effective results are achieved for a business and its people.

The three leaders associated with the transformational leadership style and who used aspects of the autocratic/authoritarian style are Elon Musk, Jeff Bezos and Steve Jobs, with only the latter

providing consistent evidence of both styles in practice. The features of autocratic/authoritative leadership are limited employee input, goals, defined structure and roles, clear direction, mitigated risk, quality monitoring, efficiency, and dominance through the exercise of power and authority. Autocratic leaders exert control, and authoritarian, dominance (Liborius 2017).

In contrast, transformational leadership focuses on transforming follower capability to meet organisational goals through idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individual consideration (Bass & Avolio 1990; Liborius 2017). Idealised influence elicits efforts to achieve optimum performance, inspirational motivation occurs through articulating and gaining commitment to a clear vision, intellectual stimulation encourages followers to change paradigms in problem-solving, and individual consideration is individualised capability development. In transformational leadership, goals are achieved through transforming people's views as distinct from control leadership styles in which goals are achieved in spite of those views.

Regarding the features of followers who match these styles, Harms (2018) observed that authoritarian and autocratic leadership styles are suited to situations in which a sense of security is important, and for which followers were prepared to yield autonomy. Liborius (2017) observed that a lack of decision-making authority was a desired condition as it gave rise to improved wellbeing and protection from harm. Followers in transformational leadership give their commitment in exchange for a sense of organisational purpose and the opportunity to optimise their abilities (Bass & Stogdill 1990).

Despite these differences, the data show transformational leaders using authoritarian and autocratic methods to achieve goals. An explanation might be from Bass and Bass (cited in Harms 2018), who posited that leaders shift to autocratic styles when subordinates are incompetent, unmotivated or having interpersonal problems. Regarding incompetence, the data show Amazon, through Jeff Bezos, using a policy, as mentioned in Section 5.4.5, labelled 'Purposeful Darwinism' that encourages high attrition in order to find people who can, and want, to work at Amazon (Kantor & Streitfeld 2015). Similarly, Steve Jobs was famous for only wanting 'A' players (Isaacson 2012), refusing to tolerate mediocrity in his people. The common factor is both leaders exerting control to ensure only capable people stay in their businesses. In practice, they did not invest resources until assured it would result in a beneficial outcome, which is a feature of control leadership.

Theoretically, the literature is largely silent about a positive relationship between autocratic/authoritarian and transformational leadership. In effect, they are observed as contrasting styles, for autocratic/authoritarian leadership is about directing employees and transformational leadership is in how leaders exert influence (Bass & Stogdill 1990; Bush 2014; Schuh, Zhang & Tian 2013; Valentine 2014). There are three possible positive connections between the two styles. First, this study's data indicate the two styles may intersect when the transformational leader is convinced of a follower's capability and commitment and is then prepared to invest the time and resources in developing that person further, having up to that point used an autocratic/authoritarian approach. Second, a shared feature of both is in the leader characteristics—Valentine (2014) found both styles to be result driven but achieved in different ways. The third is in regard to Steve Jobs; he was just as demanding and callous with newer employees as he was with those he had worked with for a long time and were considered close to him (Isaacson 2012), suggesting that he applied the same approach to all.

While the idea of integration between the autocratic/authoritarian and transformational leadership styles could be interesting theoretically, there is little evidence to support it. What the data show is that a transformational leader such as Jobs is able to move seamlessly between the two styles, in conjunction not integration, and the theory best positioned to explain this is social exchange theory. The earlier argument is that if followers perceive a personal benefit of value and it outweighs a leader's autocratic/authoritarian behaviour, then they will commit to the leader's vision and path. This might not be effective for all transformational leaders, or leaders engaging in transformational behaviour, although it apparently worked for Steve Jobs and his people, as the experience of working with him and how he elicited greatness from them outweighed his petty behaviour (Bariso 2016; Isaacson 2012; Steinwart & Ziegler 2014).

Examining autocratic/authoritarian and transformational leader behaviour through a SL theory lens, would likely reveal a workplace culture in which uncertainty is experienced due to the unpredictability of leader behaviour. An example being in switching between displays of control and dominance, to exhibiting support and encouragement but not knowing when they may occur. Using the examples of Jeff Bezos (at Amazon) and Steve Jobs, their tirades might have achieved desired outcomes, but not without cost to people in terms of well-being and tenure (Isaacson 2012; Kantor & Streitfeld 2015), although Jobs justified this by commenting that most people would

accept that ‘the pain’ was worth it (Isaacson 2012). It is in not knowing which leader behaviour is going to ‘appear’ that uncertainty is created.

SL theory accounts for both leadership styles, and their behaviours. It does so with transformational leadership and behaviour by its focus on a leader achieving organisational goals through creating a positive workplace culture, built on relevant authority and accountability, in which people are well-treated, and able to optimise their individual talents. In contrast, autocratic/authoritarian leader behaviour seeks to achieve goals through direction, control and dominance, rather than influence and may be perceived as disrespectful and devaluing (Bass & Stogdill 1990; Schuh, Zhang & Tian 2013). SL theory explains this through the values continua in which such behaviour would potentially be perceived as unfair, uncaring and undignifying (Macdonald, Burke & Stewart 2018).

6.3.4 Intention to Harm: A Different Dimension of Arrogance

The data show that the most frequently used arrogant behaviour is ‘dominate’, which, in this study, is included as an aggressive behaviour, given the demonstrated relationship of aggression and dominance (Anderson et al. 2020; Chen Zeng, Cheng & Henrich 2022; Hermann 2017; Holekamp & Strauss 2016; Rodriguez-Santiago et al. 2020; Zhong, R et al. 2023) with the intent to harm a target. In social hierarchies, dominance manifests in exerting control over others through aggressive, threatening and intimidating behaviour, and it is associated with arrogance as an antisocial behaviour in the pursuit of that dominance (Chen Zeng, Cheng & Henrich 2022). Examples from the data include the aforementioned behaviour of Jeff Bezos (see Section 6.2.1), that of Travis Kalanick (ex-CEO Uber) whose combative behaviour and unwillingness to listen (Newcomer & Stone 2018) were harmful to others, and Martin Winterkorn’s authoritarian style (as Volkswagen CEO) that fostered a climate of fear (Cremer & Bergin 2015; Glazer 2016).

Almeida et al. (2022) proposed four types of harmful leadership behaviours (HLB) that vary in intensity (high to low) and orientation (people/relationships or tasks/goals), namely, intimidation (high intensity-people orientation), lack of care (low intensity-people orientation), self-centredness (low intensity-task orientation) and excessive pressure for results (high intensity-task orientation). They revealed differences in the types of negative behaviours leaders engage in, with some being less visible and of low intensity, such as a leader prioritising personal over collective goals, and

others being more visible harmful behaviours, such as publicly humiliating a target. Second, they considered the positive types of leader behaviours, which are either people-oriented ones, in which leaders focus on relationships and on employee outcomes such as motivation and leader satisfaction, or task-oriented ones, in which leaders manage goal achievement and consider employee outcomes in terms of performance. Last, in their model, these authors defined harmful behaviours from followers' perspective by considering the followers' perception of behaviours that inflict recurring or enduring harm.

The connection to LA may be seen in the definition of each quadrant. The first, intimidation, represents high-intensity public displays of undermining and punishment intended to humiliate the target, which are consistent with arrogant behaviours such as belittle, dominate, humiliate, hostile, offend and punish. The next quadrant, lack of care, is low-intensity, people-oriented behaviour that shows a lack of concern for employees and corresponds to the arrogant behaviours inconsiderate, disrespect, ignore and not listening. The third, self-centredness, is low-intensity, task-oriented behaviour exemplified in putting the leader's concerns first and relates to self-regard, self-important, self-enhance and arrogate. The last, excess pressure for results, which is high-intensity, task-oriented behaviour, is reflected in the means the leader uses to achieve goals and will be harmful to subordinates. Almeida et al. (2022) suggested cheating, deception and manipulation as potential behaviours that would fit within this quadrant, given the focus on results. Deception is listed within this thesis's incivility category, whereas manipulation is considered a sub-item of 'dominate'. Given that these depictions of arrogant leader behaviours as harmful (HLB) are accurate, there at least appears to be a basis for considering arrogant behaviours in terms of the intensity dimension.

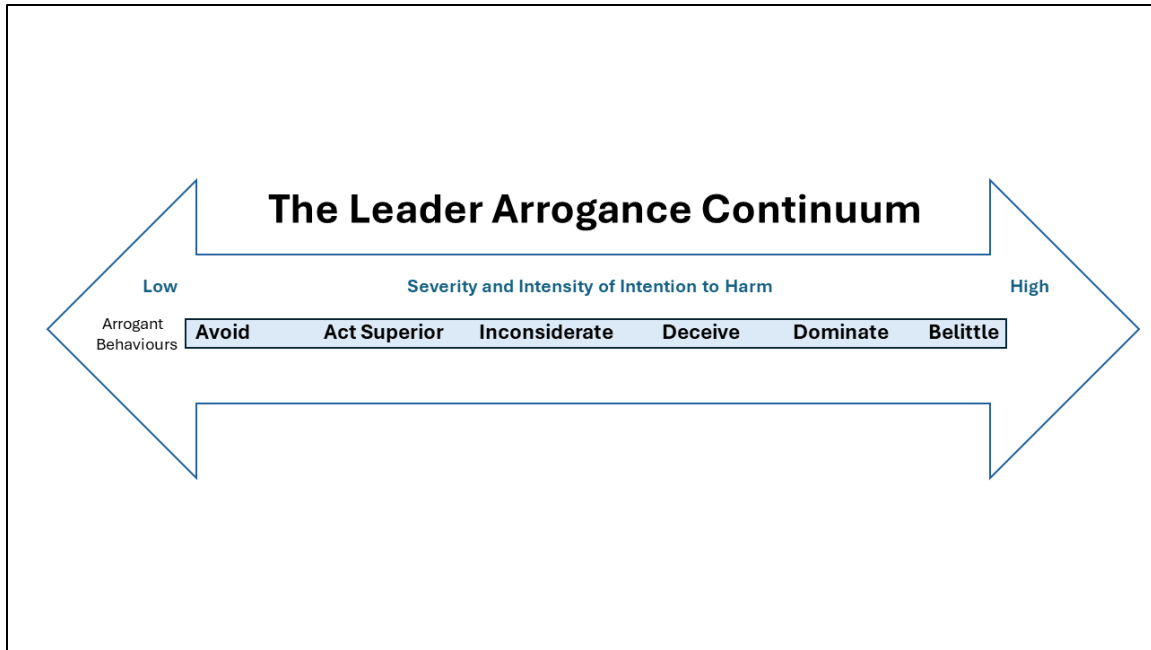
The arrogant examples used in relation to the HLB model span the breadth of low- to high-intensity behaviours, with self-focussed behaviours such as self-regard being low-intensity up to aggressive behaviours such as dominance and belittlement that would be high-intensity. Distinguishing between task and people orientation has less application as arrogant behaviours such as applying excessive pressure can still be enacted, for example, through belittling behaviour but be task oriented. The HLB model suggests that not all arrogant behaviour is equal, for there are variations based on intensity and direction (to a target), and it might explain the differences observed in arrogance, including the 160 behaviours identified in the present study.

A key point identified by Almeida et al. (2022) that applies to the study of arrogance is that many behaviours at the low-intensity end of HLBs are invisible, unnoticed and unknowingly tolerated, which can also happen with arrogance such as when a leader assumes a right they do not have (arrogation). Ford (2009) highlighted this aspect when discussing teachers who, by virtue of their class, gender, ethnicity and able-bodiedness, make assumptions in conversations with parents about aspects of the parents' lives and needs without knowledge of their circumstances. The teacher means no ill intent to the parents through this behaviour, but it has the effect of alienating them from the teacher and school and presumably is a behaviour the parents would want changed. In this example, intention to harm is assumed to be low, yet if it is left unaddressed, it could have significant consequences. Thus, intentionality can inform arrogance, including the numerous behaviours it comprises, and a further observation, given this example, is understanding the potential outcomes of arrogance. As this study has demonstrated, outcomes affect the arrogant leader, others (the target and observers) and business.

Although Almeida et al. (2022) used intensity as a dimension in their quadrant model, for arrogance, it is used as a continuum (see Figure 18) since arrogance is a people-driven behaviour, and although their model associates self-centredness with a task orientation, the way a leader acts in the low-intensity/task-orientation quadrant reflects behaviour inferring a people orientation.

Figure 18 shows the intensity of HLBs, ranging from behaviours with a low intention to harm on the left to those with high intention to harm on the right. The word severity has been added to the model in describing the continuum and reflects the underlying factor of Burns and Pope's (2007) three-category model of negative workplace behaviours.

A further point is how bullying fits into this framework. In this study, bullying has been treated as a sub-item of dominance (dominate), within Burns and Pope's (2007) 'aggressive' category. Almeida et al. (2022) treated bullying as its own high-intensity, people-oriented behaviour, not as a sub-item. In this study, the aspect of bullying did not emerge from the LA systematic literature review and was added after being identified in the data multiple times. The position taken in this study is that the purpose of bullying is to create dominance (Volk, Dane & Marini 2014).



Source: Author's creation

Figure 18. Arrogance As Intention to Harm

Although these were considered, outcomes have not been included in the model, as low-intensity LA can lead to more severe consequences than high-intensity arrogance. For example, the data show that 'act superior', a relatively low-intensity behaviour, may have similar, or worse, outcomes than a high-intensity behaviour, such as 'dominate'. This finding is demonstrated in Tony Hayward's behaviour (acting superior) following the BP Deepwater Horizon disaster, which was said to have exacerbated the US Government's response, resulting in record fines, and led to the loss of Hayward's role. In contrast, Mark Pincus' (Zynga) consistent domineering behaviour (dominate) contributed to his eventual ouster from the CEO role but that was the only outcome. Thus, the extent of outcomes is not necessarily related to the severity of the arrogant act.

Returning to this study and its research question, the argument has been constructed that arrogance involves an intention to harm, which reflects RE Johnson et al.'s (2010) definition of arrogance as involving disparaging another person. Figure 18 is intended to show that arrogance may be understood through that intentionality, from low intensity in which a leader is self-focused, to high intentionality in which there is clear intention to harm a target. Analyses have shown that a control

leadership style is associated with deceptive and domineering behaviours, which are included in the incivility and aggressive arrogance categories and would be placed towards the right end of the arrogance continuum, implying an intention to harm. Control leadership styles comprise autocratic/authoritarian, directive, transactional and despotic leadership; the purpose of the first three is to achieve organisational goals, whereas despotic leadership aims to serve the leader's self-interest and is accomplished through domineering, controlling and vengeful behaviours (De Hoogh & Den Hartog 2008). Two leaders in this study were associated with that style, Elizabeth Holmes and Mark Pincus, and both had dominance data segments identified in documents about them, but deception was associated only with Holmes.

However, this is not a clear picture as the other three styles still comprise examples of dominance and deception, and the difference might be in the despotic leader's self-interest and how that is achieved. Further research is required to bring clarity to this issue. A further separation of the secondary control leadership styles may also add to knowledge about the components of the LA-IWB relationship. What seems apparent is that despotic leadership is associated with a high intention to harm and IWB inhibition.

6.3.5 Anger and Arrogance

The study of anger and arrogance is a study of how emotion and arrogance are related. Although analysing anger was not the purpose of this study, it emerged as a factor in the data from the recorded comments of leaders. An example is that of Tim Armstrong (ex-CEO AOL) who famously fired an employee in a video conference call attended by hundreds of employees (Sherwin 2013). The words indicating anger were 'put that camera down, right now' followed by 'you're fired; you're out' (Sherwin 2013, p. 1). The arrogant behaviours that may be attributed to this incident include disrespect, hostility, belittlement and punishment. In other cases in this study, emotions such as anxiety, happiness and frustration were detected across the data, which indicates that emotion is a potential factor in arrogance.

In this regard, Tanesini (2018) examined the relationship between arrogance and anger and described it as a negative emotion directed at a person for a perceived wrong, intentionally performed. She defined the angry person as one who considers the wrong unjust, illegitimate and harmful to aspects of their self-concept, which triggers in them a desire to respond and, in turn,

may have the benefit of restoring their perceived standing if that has been affected. The offending behaviour may be interpreted as threatening the angry person's perception of their self, leading to their desire to respond in a manner so forceful that the behaviour would not recur, and rendering their perceived self-assessment of superiority not erroneous. This last point is key, for it suggests the real issue is the possibility of their self-evaluation of possessing superior abilities being wrong, hence the association between anger and self-concept.

In discussing antagonistic arrogance, Cowan et al. (2019) referred to the possibility that belittling others may be done out of anger, at the belittler's poor self-concept, and without benefit. They referenced Aristotle's concept of 'shaming another is done for the pleasure of feeling superior' (p. 432). To examine this idea requires clarifying the elements that constitute anger, poor self-concept and the trigger for the belittling behaviour (i.e. identifying whether it was internal or external to the actor). Of further interest is how anger leads to engaging in belittling behaviour, potentially without benefit.

The literature has clearly asserted that anger occurs in response to an outward or internal occurrence originating from a perceived threat or violation, and that anger consists of feelings varying from annoyance to fury and even rage (Alexiou & Hashim 2022; Averill 1983; Berkowitz & Harmon-Jones 2004; Spielberger, Reheiser & Sydeman 1995). Berkowitz and Harmon-Jones (2004) referred to anger as a syndrome of feelings, emotions and physiological reactions associated with the urge to harm a target, which is triggered by perceived negative outcomes or misdeeds instigated by an external agent, as described earlier by Tanesini (2018). Further, Berkowitz and Harmon-Jones (2004) argued that once anger-cognition associations have been made, linked appraisal schemata come to the fore to interpret the event. Thus, the triggering event, or person, may be external or internal.

Weiner (1985) proposed that anger is a consequence of a negative self-related outcome or event outside the control of the angry person. Of importance for Weiner is that the triggering event is in the control of others (not the angry person), such as when an arbitrary obstacle is put in place to prevent goal attainment. Using an example to demonstrate, his theory begins with an outcome or event, assumed in this instance to be instigated by a person (Person¹) that if negative or important to the target (Person²) will lead to a search for causes which, in the current case, might be to do

with the instigator (Person¹), and possible previous interactions between them. A judgement is then made by Person² in terms of three properties: locus, stability and control. If Person² ascribes the negative event to Person¹, then it would be interpreted as external, stable and uncontrollable, namely, external to them, stable as it has happened previously, and uncontrollable as Person¹, not Person², initiated the action. The response of Person² is anger. Applied to the example about belittling, the belittling action is triggered by an ‘event’ attributed to Person¹, and as Person² is unable to exert control over Person¹, Person² feels angry and responds by belittling Person¹.

Averill (1983) proposed that anger ‘for the person in the street’ is less about the instigating event than the justification for the instigator’s behaviour. That is, the angry actor is not that concerned about the actual trigger as about the instigator’s reasons for their behaviour. This view suggests that the belittling behaviour occurs owing to the angry actor disagreeing with that justification.

These interpretations and examples seemingly rest on an external event that may be as simple as one person seeing another and no interaction occurring. Nevertheless, as Berkowitz and Harmon-Jones (2004) attested, once an anger–cognition association has formed, then linked appraisal schemata interpret events. In this case, seeing another person might be the trigger, without that individual even knowing they have been observed. This raises the idea that memory might potentially instigate anger without the physical presence of another person, outcome, event or object. The relevance of this idea to the belittlement example is that if anger, with a following arrogant act, occurs in the apparent absence of an observable trigger, then the self-concept may be even more fragile.

According to the *APA Dictionary of Psychology* (2020), self-concept is the description and evaluation made by a person about themselves, including their psychological and physical characteristics, qualities, skills and roles, and it contributes to their sense of identity over time. Importantly, self-concepts may only be available to the consciousness to some degree, yet still influence what people think, feel and do through established nonconscious schemata, as suggested above. Baumeister (1997) claimed that self-esteem is one of the most important elements of self-concept, which according to the *APA Dictionary of Psychology* (2020), is the degree to which qualities and characteristics in the self-concept are perceived to be positive, such as self-image, accomplishments, capabilities, values and perceived success in living up to these. A characteristic

associated with self-esteem is self-worth, about which Tanesini (2018) argued contributes to comparing oneself favourably against others in order to address low self-esteem. That is, an arrogant actor with low self-worth would struggle to lift their self-esteem, and one way to achieve that is by belittling others, which, in turn, demonstrates the actor's superiority and worthy self.

The context for understanding poor self-concept proposed by Cowan et al. (2019) is the concept of comparison, that is, comparing oneself to another to feel superior. Dillon (2007) articulated self-worth as the valuing of the self and argued that self-esteem is grounded in the comparative-competitive social conception, which is the type of self-worth the arrogant person cares about. Using 'poor' to position a person's self-concept infers low self-esteem and self-worth. What is unclear is whether belittlement is performed to lift self-esteem and self-worth, or to punish a target without necessarily expecting benefit. If no benefit is expected, then there is the possibility that the trigger for belittlement is internal.

Alternatively, the angry actor may be triggered by an overt or covert external event and may engage in belittling behaviour with the aim to restore, or improve, self-worth and self-esteem based on comparison to, and being better, than others. Drawing on Aristotle, Tanesini (2018), proposed anger as an implicit acknowledgement of a person's vulnerability to threats—that is, the angry person responds to others being dismissive of their qualities, and at the base of this behaviour is an insecurity regarding how good they are. The self-confident person would dismiss this perceived slight, whereas the angry person would protect their self-esteem from threat, which depends on thinking of themselves as superior. Anger may also be associated with how a person ranks themselves against others, namely, the spectre that they are lower in rank. Tanesini (2018) explained this as self-centred anger.

This idea fits with Tanesini's (2018) view about 'superbia' (belief in one's superiority) and anger, namely that anger is a manifestation of (superbia) 'a desire for superiority combined with a propensity to do other people down' (p. 220), that is to diminish, humiliate and abase them in order to shine. Thus, by pushing a person down the actor pushes themselves up. Arrogant actors also lay claim to special entitlements or privileges, and being granted them reinforces their sense of privilege. Further, people with superbia are prone to anger from perceived slights. This view ties back to a low sense of self-worth as the slight is perceived to affect self-worth.

Thus, the possible triggers for anger include it being internal to the actor based on a poor self-concept with, or without, the expectation of benefit and to punish a target; it being external and done to feel the pleasure of being superior, designed to restore or establish the actor's standing of superiority regarding others and to confirm that self-evaluation.

While this analysis includes the trigger for arrogance potentially being internal, the following example is based on an external trigger as a perceived aversive 'event' and one that draws attention to, or challenges, an individual's self-esteem, and by definition, their self-worth and self-concept. The degree of arrogant response may depend on the scale of the perceived threat not only to their self-evaluated superiority, but also to whether their own estimate is incorrect, a second blow.

Simplistically, and presuming the triggering event is external, the sequence would be '*triggering event > process its meaning > conclude its uncontrollable > experience anger > belittle instigator*'. A more thorough account based on Weiner's (1985) and Tanesini's (2018) work is:

1. Triggering event is instigated by Person¹.
2. Event is perceived as negative yet important by Person².
3. Search for cause identifies Person¹ as instigator.
4. Event is ascribed to Person¹.
5. Ascription is perceived as:
 - i. external to Person², threatening their fragile self-concept
 - ii. stable as Person¹ has a history of this behaviour
 - iii. uncontrollable as it is outside Person²'s control and is perceived as intentional.
6. Person² experiences increased anger as the triggering event has raised the prospect that their self-evaluation of their abilities as superior to those of others, may be wrong.
7. Person² decides on the intense response of belittling Person¹, which is designed to intimidate them into silence.
8. The response is delivered, and the previous state is restored.

To better understand this sequence requires examining the relationship between cognition and anger, as the decision to engage in arrogant behaviour involves reasoning and decision-making. Anger is viewed as a multidimensional construct with distinct affective, behavioural and cognitive dimensions and distinct physiological elements, and ranging along a dimension of intensity from

frustration to rage (Berkowitz & Harmon-Jones 2004). Typical triggers include frustration, threats, disrespect, rule violation and a sense of injustice (Kim, SJ 2013). Appraisal theory proposes that cognition in the form of emotions (e.g. anger) arises from evaluations, or appraisals, and causal attributions, that trigger responses (belittlement). However, Berkowitz and Harmon-Jones (2004) asserted that stimuli will not always lead to an emotion, but establish the conditions for that to happen: for instance, Person² in the example may elect not to belittle Person¹ even though experiencing anger.

Returning to this example and using these observations, at Step 1, Person² sees Person¹, and their attention (cognitive process) is triggered and is followed by an emotional response such as awareness and possibly concern, highlighting this to be negative and important. Steps 2–5 are cognitive processes, and at Step 5.3, anger arises as Person² realises this event is uncontrollable. Depending on bias owing to prior emotional states, decision-making towards a hostile response may ensue. Person² may act out their anger by belittling Person¹ and restore their standing in their own and others' eyes (Step 7). There is also the possibility of a less impactful response, or possibly none at all.

This example serves to highlight potential factors involved in anger and arrogance, and the variability within and between them such that there is no single explanation at this time that serves as a reliable guide about their relationship. In lay terms, there are too many moving parts. However, it may be reasonably deduced that anger can add to an understanding of arrogance because of the range of its intensity; thus, if felt anger is mild, such as irritation, it is unlikely that a hostile response would ensue. This argument may also have application to the proposition of an arrogance continuum based on intention to harm (see Section 6.3.2) but is a matter for future research.

The positioning of anger as an emotion occurring prior to an arrogant behaviour suggests it is antecedent. If so, this establishes a different type of antecedent, given that current ones are either context- or person-based ones (state, individual, comparative). In line with this argument, anger might fit the comparative category as most circumstances in this study involve other people when anger is observed, but for a different dataset, it might fit the individual category. Even so, determining its position in relation to arrogance remains unfinished work, and the question as to how emotion affects the current research question arises. As anger has been observed in both

controlling and inspirational leadership styles, the effect of anger on IWB may be best learned by predicting leader behaviour in its absence, which, according to Berkowitz and Harmon-Jones (2004), is possible. If the nature of arrogance changes, then anger may be a contributing factor.

6.3.6 Research Design Review

It is appropriate to revisit the research design and methods used to answer the research question. The position taken was to use a constructivist approach based on the premise that the topic would be best informed through accessing people's experience of LA, which was best achieved through a qualitative approach as the study sought to understand the experience of arrogance in relation to IWB and then interpret its meaning. The quantitative approach, while having an advantage of a controlled environment in which to collect data, had two issues. The first was whether it is possible for an arrogant person to be self-aware in recognising their arrogance, and then accurately and willingly report it. The second was whether recipients and observers of LA would report their experience owing to the potential threat of that being found out by the leader, and the likely effects on ongoing work relationships.

Another issue related to identifying the best way to obtain data. It was decided to use a documentary analysis approach, which allowed the systematic location of documents revealing past observer or recipient accounts of LA. It was argued that the interview and observation techniques were not practical owing to time constraints and researcher presence. Systematic literature reviews were used to identify relevant papers related to both LA and IWB, which were then synthesised to inform the construction of a framework to be applied to collected data. CTA was used to identify patterns, themes and meaning, and it was conducted manually and through the MAXQDA software.

Data integrity and availability were key issues that arose. A pilot study pointed to these issues, and to whether it was possible to obtain accounts of LA and IWB occurring together. Four decisions were made to facilitate data collection. The first was that data should only be collected from the business sector as evidence of both LA and IWB were more likely to occur there in contrast to other sectors, such as politics, government, sport or religion. This view was based on the premise that businesses seek growth, and innovation facilitates that goal, unlike politics, government and religion that do not necessarily consider growth a core function.

The second decision was that more data would be available regarding CEOs with a high public profile than on other business leaders as they are more likely to attract research and investigative attention. The third was the decision to include CEOs from innovative industries only as this presupposed that IWBs are integral to the growth of their businesses. Given these criteria, searches were made of academic, professional and media reports to reveal potential cases. This was generated through internet searches via Google and Microsoft, and thus, organisations who critiqued the performance of CEOs and were ranked the most innovative companies, were identified. The rankings were provided by a professional services company, and the critiques, by the business media. Noticeably, these sources were predominantly from the US. The fourth decision was to select 2000–2024 as the ‘times of discontinuity’ period since it was a volatile social and business period essentially because of the advent of the internet. This last selection resulted in an additional constraint to finding data, which was best understood only after the data had been collected and analysed.

Data integrity was primarily addressed through triangulation, unless peer-reviewed academic accounts were available. There were eight categories of sources; three were academic or scholarly based, and the others were professional and trade publications, research centres reports, books and news media (daily and periodicals). Although all were scrutinised to determine publishers and authors, the news media was a particular focus as some accounts of CEOs appeared to be from reputable, established media sources, such as the *New York Times*, *Washington Post*, *Forbes* and the *Wall Street Journal*. To screen these sources, their websites were examined to determine the owner and business background information, which is usually indicated in their ‘About’ section that details their history and editorial information. This process resulted in removing two sources and five documents found to be ‘blogs’ rather credible sources that used some level of review. The presence of political bias resulted in screening one document out.

The most effective sources, according to the quantity and quality of data, were found to be those academically based, peer-reviewed and in the case study or thesis format. These were interrogative, such as Valentine’s (2014) thesis on Steve Jobs or C Johnson’s (2008) study of ex-HP CEO Carly Fiorina, and provided a level of detail not available in other formats. Other source types that provided acceptable data were book chapters, such as Stone’s (2014) account of Jeff Bezos and the rise of Amazon, and professional journals, including *Harvard Business Review* and

the case study of ex-Disney CEO, Michael Eisner (Wertlaufer 2000). The news media accounts did provide acceptable data but primarily identified arrogant CEO behaviour without commentary on outcomes or IWBs.

The data analysis frameworks were constructed using the findings from the systematic literature reviews of LA and IWB. The LA systematic literature review provided substantial antecedents, behaviours and outcomes but was skewed to behaviours, whereas the IWB systematic literature review was skewed to antecedents as there were no empirical studies on behaviours or outcomes. When applying the frameworks to the data, many gaps were identified, such as data segments that could not be assigned a code (codes were assigned according to items in the frameworks). For example, 'being in and/or exercising control' was added based on data segments in the cases of Bezos, Gates, Holmes and Pincus; these are listed in Table A3 in the Appendices. In all, there were 22 such codes for LA and 11 for IWB, which were added to the frameworks; these are examples of the data having informed the measuring instrument, or where practice informs theory.

6.3.7 Unallocated Codes

Three questions were raised in Section 6.2.10 about whether the data were sufficient to answer the research question, whether the number of antecedents, behaviours and outcomes were excessive and the reasons there appears to be a discrepancy between this study and the literature. To answer the first, the data were sufficient to provide an answer to the research question but were skewed towards leaders who used a control leadership style, whereas the data would have been more meaningful if there had been more cases of inspirational leadership. As it is, the data indicate a way that LA can positively relate to IWB, but more research is required to substantiate this outcome.

The second question implies that the data analysis frameworks could be truncated by eliminating codes with few data segment allocations, but this would only apply to the current dataset. The two frameworks are unwieldy to use, given there are 101 items (codes) to apply to the data, and a further 282 antecedents, behaviours and outcomes (see Tables A1 and A2) to consider (i.e. the original items extracted from the literature and data). A more effective way might be to identify and use the antecedents, behaviours and outcomes with the highest frequencies (data segments)

and closest relationships. For instance, ‘dominate’ had 51 data segments and the closest behaviour to it ‘deceive’ had 28; both shared 10 documents.

The discrepancy between this study’s findings and those of the literature may best be exemplified by reviewing the LA antecedent ‘self-esteem’. The literature comprising empirical and conceptual studies (Cleary et al. 2015; Coppola 2023; Cowan et al. 2019; Demirbilek, Keser & Akpolat 2022; Dillon 2007; Johnson, RE et al. 2010; Padua et al. 2010; Tanesini 2018) has identified ‘self-esteem’ as an antecedent to arrogance driven by a low sense of self-worth, yet the present study was not able to identify this relationship in the data. This discrepancy raises the question about what an appropriate method would be, and it is considered that the psychometric method could be an option. Nevertheless, it remains an issue that future research could address.

In sum, these questions raise issues about the effectiveness of the frameworks as instruments for qualitative studies. More research is required to improve their content, structure and application and to understand their limitations.

6.4 Conclusion

Guided by the research question, this chapter has reviewed the study’s findings by reporting on and discussing the analysis and considering how the findings affected key aspects of the study including the underlying theory, conceptual framework and research design. The discussion addressed the LA–IWB relationship, intention to harm as a different dimension of arrogance, anger and arrogance, contrasting leadership, the research design and unallocated codes.

The next chapter summarises the study’s key findings, original contribution to knowledge, research limitations and provides direction for future research.

Chapter 7: Conclusion

7.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines the significant findings in Section 7.2; in Section 7.3 original contributions to knowledge are discussed; Section 7.4 considers research limitations and Section 7.5 discusses future research directions.

7.2 Significant Findings

This study has focused on leadership and the ways that leadership behaviour affects followers to the detriment and benefit of an organisation and its people. Using a qualitative approach, systematic literature reviews of LA and IWB were undertaken to inform the development of an instrument (data analysis frameworks) for application to the collected data. Data were in the form of documents collated from academic and non-academic sources concerning the leadership of 32 CEOs from innovative businesses in the technology, consumer goods and services, healthcare, transport and energy, and media and telecommunications industries in the period 2000–2024. This resulted in 745 segments of data for analysis, which was undertaken manually and through the MAXQDA software.

7.2.1 The LA–IWB Relationship

In answer to the research question, LA is shown to inhibit IWB when acted out by leaders who use a control leadership style but, in contrast, LA can foster employees' IWB when leaders use an inspirational style and also articulate a compelling business vision, behave in accord with that vision and provide perceived benefits that outweigh the arrogant behaviour. In the context of a discontinuous operating and social environment, it is the leader with the capability to optimise the circumstances of discontinuity and build trust with followers who will elicit IWBs from followers. Thus, LA can be associated with IWB but through inspirational, rather than control, leader behaviour.

7.2.2 Contrasting Leadership Styles

Social exchange theory explains how autocratic/authoritative and transformational leadership theories can work effectively in conjunction to meet business goals. Leaders who use autocratic and authoritative leadership styles control and dominate followers, which is in stark contrast to transformational leaders who transform followers' capability to meet organisational objectives. It was found that Steve Jobs effectively engaged in behaviours from both authoritarian and transformational styles (Valentine 2014), with his arrogant behaviours emerging through the authoritarian style while the more inspiring behaviour reflected the transformational. Social exchange theory based on the principle of reciprocity explains how employees who have been disparaged and humiliated (arrogance) exchange the personal cost of that behaviour for the experience of working with, and being mentored by, an icon.

7.2.3 Arrogant Leader Behaviours

Dominance emerged as the primary arrogant leader behaviour. Although this finding is consistent with that of the literature, the significance of this finding with the subset of other arrogant behaviours is that they can help distinguish arrogance from similar constructs. The background to the confusion with narcissism, hubris and pride is explained in the literature review presented in Chapter 2; behaviours that include dominance, deceit, disdain, ignoring, acting superior, dismissing, disrespect and being inconsiderate, separate arrogance further from these constructs.

7.2.4 Leader Arrogance and Intention to Harm

Intention was initially proposed as a potential discriminating factor in the arrogant behaviours found in this study. Building on this view, it was found from the negative workplace behaviour (Burnes & Pope 2007; Pearson, Andersson & Wegner 2001) literature that intention to, and severity of, harm, could be used to create three discrete categories of negative work behaviours, and these were used in structuring the LA data analysis framework. A significant finding is that intention to, and severity of, harm potentially guided by the harmful leader behaviour model (Almeida et al 2022) demonstrates how to distinguish different arrogant behaviours. This finding adds to the arrogance literature and would be useful to future studies in developing the arrogance construct.

7.2.5 Anger and Arrogance

Anger is proposed as an antecedent to aggressive or antagonistic arrogance. Attribution theory explains how motivated behaviour in circumstances in which a person has poor self-concept can act as a trigger to initiate anger, leading to belittling behaviour. This finding is significant, as anger is yet to be satisfactorily explained as a factor in arrogance.

7.3 Original Contributions to Knowledge

This study offers some original contributions to knowledge. First, the evidence shows that LA does not have a direct connection with employee IWBs, but does with negative IWB antecedents, namely, leadership, leader characteristics and organisation factors.

Second, it was found that inspirational leaders who engage in LA behaviours may elicit IWBs from employees if they have articulated an evocative vision, behave in accord with that vision and provide a perceived benefit that outweighs their arrogance. In this regard, the employee tolerates arrogance behaviour only if they gain something of substance for their troubles. Thus, the trigger is the benefit, which may be, as was shown regarding Steve Jobs, the opportunity of working with an icon and the development and growth that opportunity spawns.

Third, the evidence shows an association of control leadership styles with aggressive and uncivil arrogant behaviours (dominance, belittle, hostile, deceit, dismiss, disdain and ignore), an unproductive climate and culture, unproductive behaviours, leader incivility and adverse effects for the leader, others and business.

Fourth, this study adds to the literature on IWB and on the effect of LA on organisations and their people, and it is the first such study to be conducted using a qualitative method. Academically, this research has not previously been consolidated at a foundation level; professionally, it will contribute to organisations as they have a duty to shareholders to manage risk and according to Sections 180-183 of the Corporations Act (2001) a legal obligation to trade solvently which may be compromised by the negative consequences of LA behaviour. This study also adds to discontinuity literature by emphasising the need for capable leadership in VUCA operating and

social environments, and proposing a model of discontinuity that provides a framework for the experiences of organisations and leaders in turbulent times (see Figure 4).

Fifth, this research will extend theory on differences between arrogance, pride, narcissism and hubris. This work, although encouraged by previous research (Johnson, RE et al. 2010), is yet to be undertaken. Through this study and prior research by this author (Mitchell et al. 2024), a foundation for understanding the differences has now been created based on the purpose of each construct.

Sixth, the study found dominance to be a key behaviour in arrogance and thus supports RE Johnson et al.'s (2010) study on workplace arrogance. Dominance occurred in 51 data segments and was found to be the driving behaviour in leaders asserting themselves. It manifested in nine different behaviours, accounting for 62% of the relevant data segments, and was used by leaders to exert influence over followers and control the environment. One of those behaviours was bullying, which is a more aggressive way of asserting control and highlights that one of the purposes of dominating behaviour is to control others and the environment.

Seventh, this is the first study to develop frameworks as a method to identify and 'measure' a LA–IWB relationship. The frameworks are a contribution to knowledge, as currently there is no qualitative instrument to evaluate arrogant behaviour or IWB, except for the interview. The advantage of this new instrument is that it has been developed following a thorough systematic evaluation of the literature, comprising an in-depth compilation of antecedents, behaviours and outcomes. A benefit of the current methodological approach is in its reciprocal development. The application of the frameworks identified gaps, that is, items in the data not present in the frameworks, thereby resulting in data improving the frameworks, or data informing theory. There were 164 instances of this occurring, resulting in 33 sub-items being added to the antecedents, behaviours and outcomes for both factors (see Table A3 in the Appendices). This provides an opportunity to better understand LA and IWB by investigating any potential relationships and expanding knowledge about each construct.

From the 164 items originating from the data, those LA items with the highest frequencies were bullying (11), role removal (7), personal loss (6), business financial loss (10) and deficient leader

decision-making (11); for IWB, these were creative innovation environment (13), dysfunctional workplace culture (21), autocratic/authoritarian leadership and micro-managing (8).

Eighth, the related literature has not explored unintended consequences for the actor, others and business in relation to arrogance. In this study, it was observed that although leaders could predict potential future consequences, such as criminal charges or role loss, they did not appear to change their behaviour in response, such as seemed to be the case regarding Tim Armstrong, Carly Fiorina, Ken Lay and Elizabeth Holmes. In addition, there appears to be a lack of research into unintended consequences from LA for others working in organisations and for the business itself.

Ninth, the idea that intention to harm explains differences in arrogant behaviours is a novel contribution to the literature. In the Burns and Pope model (2007) of incivility, the underlying factor differentiating behavioural categories is severity of harm. Intentionality in the present study's context rests on the actor's intention to harm another and appears to range along a continuum that begins with innocuous behaviours focused more on the actor than recipient, such as acting superior or having regard to self, than another. It is proposed this changes as the actor's focus shifts to the recipient, and intention to harm becomes a possibility, after which it escalates to behaviours that cause harm, such as dominating, humiliating or belittling. When the actor's focus is not on themselves, the behaviour is less severe, to the point that they may not be aware of the consequences of their actions, such as with Tony Hayward in the BP Deepwater Horizon disaster (Grayson 2018). This leads to a question about the antecedents to such unaware behaviour; this study found it to be a combination of entitlement and self-importance. Further, on the LA-IWB code map (see Figure 14), it was clear that these antecedents were associated with lower-level arrogant behaviours, whereas superiority/elitism was associated with those that were more damaging to others. Thus, this study contributes to the literature in a further way by identifying those antecedents to arrogance that may lead to antagonistic behaviours. If accurate, this knowledge might be significant for practice and for future research.

In this study, 160 behaviours were associated with LA, and it is proposed that each of those could fit along a continuum based on intention to harm. The current proposal is that intention to harm might distinguish these behaviours from one another.

The relationship between arrogance and aggression, as for many other arrogant behaviours, is often confusing, given that so many behaviours are referred to in describing arrogance. The data analysis framework using the incivility model of negative behaviour (Burnes & Pope 2007) and the Almedia et al (2022) HLB model provides a way of separating behaviours considered to be aggressive. The former was done in the current study and revealed that the most frequent behaviour described as arrogant is dominance, followed by hostility and belittlement. The context in which these behaviours were found in the data was clearly a leader ensuring their will prevailed.

Anger has been shown in the appropriate circumstances to precede arrogance. Although antecedent to arrogance, anger may be triggered by another person's behaviour; however, the response is formed according to the strength or fragility of an individual's self-concept. This suggestion adds to the arrogance literature.

Last, the thesis adds to the literature on workplace arrogance and LA, and arrogance more broadly, by developing an archive of arrogance antecedents, behaviours and outcomes, including its history and theoretical background.

7.4 Limitations

Several issues related to the data arose throughout the study in the process of establishing an acceptable dataset. These included selecting data sources, finding documents, ensuring document quantity and quality, identifying a range of documents across cases, isolating data segments per document and case and preventing researcher bias.

The extent of available and acceptable data is a significant limitation in this study. The documents/papers selected for data collection (exclusion/inclusion criteria need to be very clear) are critical and sourcing them has proven challenging. Two major issues arose: establishing what is a credible, verifiable source and where accounts of arrogant and IWB would be best found.

As for the latter, it was resolved that these would not lie within organisations as, given the expected content, they would most likely be confidential and not accessible. It was determined that accounts of LA might be available in regard to high-profile leaders of interest to academia through papers or case studies, or in professional journals and the media.

A further point was that evidence of innovative behaviour would be more likely found in the business sector than elsewhere, which is a limitation of this study. This left the question as to what can be considered a credible and verifiable source, which was addressed by including peer-reviewed papers, but other sources needed verification via triangulation. In addition, data were procured through publicly available documents that provide third-party accounts of leader behaviour and are themselves subject to the relevant author's research methods and bias. Although triangulation is intended to address this issue, its effectiveness cannot be assumed.

While these decisions established minimum inclusion criteria, finding documents that met this standard proved difficult. Preliminary searches indicated that documents might be sourced from both the white and grey literature, and news media, as accounts of leaders acting arrogantly was more the content of media than academic or professional interest. When examining potential documents, it became clear that case studies were a rich source of information, particularly if undertaken within an academic or professional organisation as they were usually subject to review and sources were provided. Nonetheless, there were effectively only three of these (two academic and one professional).

Searches were initially undertaken using Flinders University's electronic library search function and Google Scholar, and later the Google and Microsoft Bing search engines. These yielded more than 200 documents, but after screening, this number was reduced to 148, and then, a further six were not used in the analysis via MAXQDA. Thus, the quantity and quality of documents were issues, but so were the documents for each business leader, as shown in Table 12. A minimum threshold of three documents per case was set on the basis that, and depending on content, this would provide a degree of cross-validation.

Another limitation was regarding the range of documents and data segments. The variability of data by case became an issue as this affected the interpretation of data to answer the research question. Specifically, data from the Bezos, Eisner, Holmes, Jobs and Kalanick cases have been more utilised than data from the other cases, which may influence the findings: see Figure A1. This issue points to a potential lack of data for answering the research question, as well as to the lack of availability of acceptable documents. In some cases, it was difficult to find the minimum of three documents, yet in others, as stated, there were more than enough, such as for Holmes (13),

Jobs (12) and Kalanick (9). There were 21 cases with only three to four documents, and the average was 4.5 documents per case. Table A4. shows that an average of five segments were extracted per document in MAXQDA. The most prolific of these was the Bezos case, which had an average of 14 data segments per document, and the least was the Heins case with the average down to 1.2 data segments per document.

A last consideration regarding data is the interpretation of relevant data segments that fit the data analysis frameworks. Interpretation of content is influenced by researcher bias (Given 2016), and a different researcher would no doubt analyse and explain the content differently. The issue for this study, but one that is a feature of qualitative studies, is in the decision-making about the relevance, quality and application of data and its subsequent effect on study findings. Bias may be addressed through methodological rigour; Harley and Cornelissen (2022) emphasised the value of a deliberate reasoning process (rigour) from which the researcher infers theoretical claims from the data. Although this study shares that purpose, and steps were taken to minimise researcher and confirmation bias the question remains as to whether rigour and integrity have been established .

Moreover, the qualitative method is intended to provide an in-depth analysis of any relationship between LA and IWB, but it lacks the precision of the quantitative approach and may therefore result in broader outcomes that may be found to be more limited in future research or application.

The study may have benefitted from using the same time period for the IWB systematic literature review as that of arrogance (2000–2024). The interpretation was made that the research question asked about ‘innovative work behaviours in times of discontinuity’, which was the period of the pandemic, that is, 11 March 2020 to 5 May 2022. By selecting this period, the study had limited access to quality academic papers, that is, B+ journals. Out of 52 papers for IWB, only 27 had an ABDC rating that ranged between C to A*, resulting in there being 35 unrated papers. Thus, quantity prevailed over quality, which, in turn, affected the content of the IWB data analysis framework by not examining an effective range of antecedents, behaviours and outcomes.

In addition, finding papers that reported on actual IWBs was difficult. Only six studies were found that examined actual behaviours, or ‘micro-level actions’ as Tuominen & Toivonen (2011) named them, and these resulted from attempts to establish measures of IWB rather than being a focal point of research. Further, there was no seminal paper (i.e. standard) that could be used to determine the

dimensions of IWBs; rather a blend of seven studies was used to determine these—those by de Jong and den Hartog (2010), De Spiegelaere and Van Gyes (2012), Janssen (2000), Kleysen and Street (2001), Messmann et al (2017), SG Scott and Bruce (1994) and Tuominen and Toivonen (2011). Similarly, the IWB systematic literature review failed to find more than four studies that examined IWB outcomes (all were performance based), and this occurred only because IWB was treated as a mediator. Although de Jong and den Hartog (2010) examined outcomes, they did so as a consequence of developing a measure of IWB. Further, given that it was difficult to identify IWB behaviours and outcomes because the collected documents lacked this information, the question arises as to whether a quantitative approach might be better placed to achieve this goal, which reinforces a limitation of this study.

Next, the study is limited by the use of the systematic literature review as a method to help develop the data analysis frameworks. The limitation is through the inclusion and exclusion criteria, which allowed only articles from the ‘white’ literature’ to be included and therefore resulted in the exclusion of potential scholarly but not peer-reviewed articles, books, conference papers and dissertations. Although 95 articles were reviewed in total, the quality of contribution may have been improved by also examining other literature.

The data analysis frameworks were unwieldy to use as there were 61 LA and 40 IWB items in each framework that needed to always be considered when reading and allocating a data segment, which made avoiding researcher error potentially more challenging. Including the sub-items, the number of items that had to be considered when interpreting a data segment was actually 383 (see Tables A1 & A2 in the Appendices). Even though the data were reviewed three times at different intervals and were reviewed a further two times when establishing the clean database, the data segments may still have been subject to researcher error. Although this study has demonstrated that the frameworks may be useful in recognising arrogant behaviour, they need to be refined for utility reasons, which is a point discussed in the next section on future research.

In the development of the IWB framework, only factors that had a demonstrable, direct relationship to IWB were considered. Thus, mediators or moderators were not considered, as they could have compromised the application of the framework, possibly rendering it ineffectual, unless

it was shown they had a direct relationship with IWB. This approach ignores factors having an indirect relationship with IWB that could potentially enhance the framework.

There was occasional confusion about terms—for instance, it was unclear whether Friedman and Friedman's (2019) concept of 'humiliation of colleagues' was a behaviour or outcome—in which case the context of its use directed how each term was assigned.

Yet another limitation is that the study does not account for cultural differences. There has been no attempt at interpreting differences in data due to culture. For example, the iPhone warranty issue in China that required an apology from the Apple CEO Tim Cook had undertones of political issues wider than Apple, but the data were still used as the accusation of Apple treating China with arrogance was deemed to reflect on the organisation's leader, Tim Cook.

Furthermore, although an aspect of this study is recognising the complexity of arrogance as a concept and determining what it comprises, the numerous behaviours that are connected to arrogance make interpreting and applying it challenging. There are 154 behaviours from the LA systematic literature review associated with arrogance, and six others found within the data. There are similar issues with IWB. The limitation is in undertaking similar research using the data analysis frameworks without first verifying their structure and content. Potential areas for reviewing the frameworks are in understanding how behaviours such as 'initiate' and outcomes such as 'potential benefits' fit.

One of the limitations is in relation to MAXQDA and that it cannot generate sequences, meaning that although there may be patterns in the data, it is unable to indicate time, although this can be done manually. This is critical to answering the research question.

7.5 Future Research

Numerous future research options arise from this study, and the principal one is improving access to higher quality data, that is, credible data with more information. This might be effected by examining data sources capable of investigating issues and people in both breadth and depth. An observation about the news media content was that it rarely considered news events in the depth that would benefit a research study. There were some exceptions, but, in the main, they were few.

A further issue with media accounts is their inherent bias and opinion-based reporting rather than objectivity. In contrast, academic and professional accounts are more substantial, objective, targeted and detailed, such as those found in peer-reviewed articles, case studies, professional articles (e.g. in *Harvard Business Review*) and books (subject to who the author and publisher are).

Even taking these issues into account, the qualitative approach is still appropriate as the quantitative is restricted when attempting to access experiences of arrogance. However, as stated, data were sparse; a more effective method might be the interview, as demonstrated by Coppola (2023) in his study on the experiences of students regarding their music teachers' arrogance. The interview should be considered a future data source, possibly together with documentary analysis, as the interview, if done with the appropriate people, provides the opportunity to 'drill down', which may provide the depth that is sought. Of course, finding an organisation, and people within it, who meet research requirements remains a challenge.

A second step, if replicating the current study, would be to simplify the data analysis frameworks. Making these more concise would be of benefit due to the plethora of behaviours that seem to represent arrogance in particular. Namely, approximately 160 behaviours may be interpreted as arrogance, and within the framework, these have been reduced by grouping them into categories on the basis of similarity. Is there a way of more concisely doing this for all antecedents, behaviours and outcomes in both frameworks?

Topics raised in this study that would be beneficial for further research are the concept of arrogance being understood through a continuum based on the intention to harm. Research to better understand arrogance and its relationship to harm may also further differentiate it from like constructs (hubris, pride and narcissism), as well as refine the suite of behaviours it comprises. This potentially includes creating a better understanding of the association between anger and arrogance, as anger appears to be involved in the more severe behaviours. Further, there is a perception that antecedents to arrogance may align with specific behaviours reflecting severity and intention to harm. For instance, it was suggested that superiority/elitism may lead to more damaging behaviours and outcomes than entitlement or self-importance. Such research might be of interest outside the fields of business psychology and may include philosophy.

Next, IWB research has concentrated on identifying antecedents that can lead to or trigger preferred behaviours and outcomes, but there is little evidence of research into the behaviours and outcomes that are sought. Certainly, the literature reviewed for this study indicated a surplus of recent (in this past decade) research into antecedents, leaving it to significant papers over the past 30 years to inform on IWB behaviours and outcomes. In addition, very few conceptual papers have explored IWB, yet this would clearly benefit knowledge of the construct.

Moreover, there is a clear opportunity to better understand how different leadership styles and behaviours, in theory, are isolated from each other, yet are observed operating effectively in practice. Understanding, if there is benefit from such examination, may not just be of scholarly interest but have a practical application. To be more specific, how could leadership styles and behaviours such as autocratic and authoritative compliment transformational and other inspirational leadership styles?

Last, any future research into autocratic/authoritarian leadership and IWB should consider examining these leadership styles separately as there are notable differences in how goals are achieved—the autocratic leader is task-oriented and minimises autonomy and discretion, whereas the authoritarian leader exercises control, discipline and authority (Pizzolitto, Verna & Venditti 2023).

7.6 Summary

This thesis has examined the relationship between LA and IWB in the context of discontinuous times using a qualitative approach and found a tenuous relationship based on inspirational leadership behaviour negating LA because of a perceived benefit to recipients. Further, it found that in a discontinuous environment, capable leaders who have built trusting relationships with followers are best placed to trigger innovative behaviours from followers.

In the course of this study, a novel qualitative measuring instrument was developed, which revealed arrogant leader behaviours and IWBs. Furthermore, a path to isolate and confirm arrogance, including LA, as its own construct has been proposed through the identification of key arrogant behaviours, the concept of intention to, and severity, of harm, and the identification of anger as a potential antecedent to arrogance.

The last chapter, Chapter 8, points to the evolution of LA and arrogance through a body of work that started in 2021 and continued into 2024 with the current thesis.

Chapter 8: Reflections

8.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to reflect on and chart the evolution of LA and arrogance from a period in which the literature has been relatively silent to the current body of work comprising two scholarly papers and this thesis. Section 8.2 provides an overview of the evolution of LA; Section 8.3 reviews Paper 1 findings as does Section 8.4 for Paper 2. Section 8.5 summarises the evolution of LA and arrogance and suggests how the body of work outlined in this chapter may be continued.

8.2 Overview

To date, this thesis has yielded two scholarly peer-reviewed papers addressing the concept of LA in the workplace. Listed below, are the two scholarly papers that demonstrate the way in which this thesis has contributed to the evolution, and advancement of the LA and arrogance concepts.

The methodological approach, to date, has been to isolate arrogance, and thus leader arrogance, as its own construct and while the papers chart similar courses, each act as a building block for the next body of work. The thesis and the two scholarly papers progress from the foundational analysis of antecedents to workplace and leader arrogance, to a conceptual framework incorporating their antecedents, behaviours, and outcomes to testing the findings in a qualitative study of LA and IWB. What follows is the first of the two papers – Paper 1 addressing the antecedents to, and outcomes of, workplace leader arrogance.

Paper 1 Focus: A Study of the Antecedents to, and Outcomes of, Workplace Leader Arrogance

Reference: Mitchell, G, McMurray, A, Manoharan, A & Rajesh, JI, 2022, 'A Study of the Antecedents to, and Outcomes of, Workplace Leader Arrogance', 'Creating a Better World Together', *82nd Annual Meeting of the Academy of Management*, Seattle, WA, USA, 7 July 2022.

ABSTRACT

Legislation enacted in the past two decades has been designed to address unacceptable behavior at work to protect people from harm. Yet little attention has been given to a specific behavior that contributes to the detrimental treatment of people at work that can seriously impact both individuals and organizations. That behavior is arrogance, both workplace and workplace leader arrogance. This study conducts a systematic literature review into how workplace and workplace leader arrogance is understood and defined in the literature, and what the antecedents to, and outcomes from it, are. Our purpose is to examine and clarify research into this behavior in the workplace, with the intention that potential gaps in the literature be identified to create opportunities for future interventions and research. Arrogance, including workplace and workplace leader arrogance, is generally defined in terms of an individual's misplaced sense of superiority manifested in disparaging behaviors targeting others. The systematic literature review identified that from 2000-2021, thirty-seven scholarly papers were published addressing arrogance, workplace arrogance and workplace leader arrogance. Of these, fourteen papers investigated workplace and workplace leader arrogance, seven being empirical studies and seven non-empirical. Analysis revealed the common antecedent was self-esteem and variables reflecting organizational culture were the most common outcomes studied over the past two decades. Our findings inform the development of a new model identifying the antecedents and outcomes to workplace arrogance, which to date is not found in the literature.

Keywords:

Workplace leader arrogance; antecedents; narcissism, pride, overconfidence; hubris predictable outcomes; engagement; performance; self-esteem; self-worth; positive self; negative self; context; systematic literature review

INTRODUCTION

Research into workplace leader arrogance (Borden, Levy & Silverman 2018; De Clercq, Fatima & Jahanzeb 2021; Johnson et al. 2010; Silverman et al. 2012) although modest, has demonstrated the deleterious impact on organizational climate, work relationships, behavior, individual performance, organizational performance and individual well-being. This systematic literature review is focused on workplace leader arrogance, which first requires an understanding of arrogance.

Arrogance is a term that reflects disparaging and unacceptable behavior undertaken by one individual against another. Arrogance is widely understood across cultures (Cowan et al. 2019, p. 425; Volk et al. 2021) and has historically attracted the interest of philosophers and the psychoanalytic community (Dillon, R.S. 2003; Emmons, R. A. 1984; Raskin & Hall 1979; Tanesini 2018). In addition, since the 1980s various fields of psychology including clinical, cognitive, developmental, personality, social, motivation and emotion have sporadically examined the impact of, or relationship with, other variables such as narcissism, hubris, pride, humility, confidence, self-esteem, vanity, and personality treating arrogance as a factor or descriptor of another construct. However, arrogance has attracted minimal scholarly and research interest apart from managerial and organizational psychologists (Johnson et al. 2010; Silverman et al. 2012; Toscano, Price & Scheepers 2018), sectors of the business community (health in particular) (Cleary et al. 2015) and philosophy (Dillon, R.S. 2019; Tanesini 2018).

According to Johnson et al (2010) arrogance is an overt and explicit interpersonal act

undertaken by one person to another, unlike narcissism or hubris (Ruvio et al. 2020) that do not require engagement with others. In the interaction, the arrogant person will use their inflated sense of superiority, self-importance, and abilities to disparage and diminish their target. Such behavior raises questions as to what arrogance comprises including whether it is a state (event) or trait (quality or characteristic), what type of arrogance it is, what causes the arrogant behavior, the contexts that it occurs in, the consequences and outcomes from it, how pervasive it is and actions to address it.

Although the Johnson et al (2010, p. 423) study focused on developing a scale for workplace arrogance, they also concluded that “arrogant behaviors may be performed as a façade in order to mask incompetence or unfavorable self-evaluations”. They also observed that high levels of arrogant behavior in a work environment were related to low levels of organization citizenship behaviors i.e. “behavior that promotes the social and psychological environments in which formal job duties and responsibilities are carried out” (Johnson et al. 2010, p. 411), as well as poor in-role task performance, poor perceptions of the arrogant actor in terms of likeability, respect & deserving of failure, creating stress in those who work around and for them, reduced feedback seeking behavior by subordinates from the arrogant leader, creating negative social climates, negatively impacting work relationships, burnout, reduced customer satisfaction and ultimately reduced profit (Borden, Levy & Silverman 2018; Cleary et al. 2015; Silverman et al. 2012; Toscano, Price & Scheepers 2018).

From a business perspective workplace leader arrogance may be viewed both as managing risk and as a leadership issue. Various examples of the impact and consequences (both problems and opportunities) of such arrogance include people issues such as reduced team morale, ineffective leader-member relationships, lowered job commitment and job satisfaction, burnout and intention to leave; commercial issues such as disruption to business operations, risk of not delivering the service offering, and lessened customer loyalty or satisfaction, and financial issues including increased costs associated with re-hiring and re-training replacement employees and potential litigation or workplace injury claims (Borden, Levy & Silverman 2018; Cleary et al. 2015; Johnson et al. 2010).

The benefits gained by addressing it include the opportunity to create a positive culture in which leaders reflect the organization’s values, vision and drive to build innovative capability through effective leadership and people practices. Curtailing arrogant behavior may provide a competitive advantage to organizations as well as encouraging positive behaviors such as humility (Vera & Rodriguez-Lopez 2004). This may be done by developing interventions designed to lessen the harmful effects of arrogance and promote the benefits of performance feedback and action planning and creating a developmental opportunity for coaches and managers to address the disconnect found between self-perceptions and others’ perceptions of arrogant behaviors (Borden, Levy & Silverman 2018).

From a social perspective, people do not go to work to be treated badly. They expect that, irrespective of circumstances, leaders (and others) should treat them with trust, be honest and fair, treat them with respect for their dignity, demonstrate care and support them (Macdonald, Burke & Stewart 2018). Treating people with arrogance erodes trust, perceptions of fairness and dignity and demonstrates a lack of care. It is perceived as cowardly behavior. It is expected that addressing, managing, or preventing arrogant behavior, before it becomes problematic, will have a positive effect on an organization in terms of preventing or reversing potential loss.

Thus, understanding the antecedents to, and outcomes from arrogant behavior, in the workplace as well as from leaders contributes to enhancing organizations and their effectiveness. This could be facilitated by regarding workplace and workplace leader arrogance as a discrete construct rather than a secondary factor of other research and may contribute to clarifying the role of personality (trait) and context (state), understanding when workplace leader arrogance becomes problematic, determining the cost of workplace and leader arrogance at a personal level, and constructing interventions to address it.

The need for conducting a systematic literature review into workplace and workplace leader arrogance arises due to the dearth of research into a behavior that has been found to, and has the potential to, cause significant harm to people and organizations in terms of both performance and well-

being (Borden, Levy & Silverman 2018; Johnson et al. 2010). Undertaking a systematic literature review has the benefit, amongst others, of clarifying whether and how important research findings may be, synthesizing and critiquing the literature including understanding the quality of evidence in support of a proposition as well as helping to identify gaps in that literature (Siddaway, Wood & Hedges 2019). The purpose of this systematic literature review is to examine and clarify the scholarly empirical, theoretical and analysis work that has been undertaken into workplace arrogance and workplace leader arrogance with the intention that potential gaps in the literature be identified and ultimately opportunities for them to be addressed created before harm occurs.

The scope of this systematic literature review (SLR) is limited to academic literature that addresses arrogance in its application to the workplace and to workplace leadership.

There are four research questions for this review:

1. How is workplace, and workplace leader, arrogance understood and defined within the literature?
2. What are the antecedents to workplace, and workplace leader, arrogance?
3. What are the outcomes from workplace, and workplace leader, arrogance?
4. What are the different methods used to clarify workplace, and workplace leader, arrogance?

This systematic review is intended to understand and define what workplace and workplace leader arrogance is, and what the antecedents to and outcomes from workplace and workplace leader arrogance are, using scholarly literature. Given the diversity of views about what arrogance and workplace arrogance comprises, how it is used and how it is defined, this review must first ascertain how researchers and writers have represented arrogance in order that the current analysis is credible, sound and brings some precision to the use of the term.

HISTORICAL AND THEORETICAL BACKGROUND OF ARROGANCE

The evolution of arrogance has taken several pathways since it first became a point of scholarly interest, beginning with philosophy, then psychoanalysis (Dillon, R.S. 2003; Emmons, R. A. 1984; Miller 2011), psychology and more recently business and management (Cowan et al. 2019; De Clercq, Fatima & Jahanzeb 2021; Johnson et al. 2010). Each pathway has essentially developed independently, although business and management has drawn on content from the other three fields.

According to Baseline and Thompson (2018), the word arrogance is derived from the Latin “arrogans”, the present participle of “arrogare”, meaning, to appropriate. “Arrogatus”, meaning to seize or claim without justification or to make undue claims, is the past participle of “arrogare” and today means “arrogate,” from which arrogant is derived. Interestingly, Dillon (2007) points to this derivation of ‘arrogant’ as well, including its meaning of unjustified claims. Baseline and Thompson (2018) suggest that the word ‘arrogant’ is applied when a person arrogates, or claims, more consideration than is due their position, and has two parts, being overconfidence and an air of superiority.

Philosophy

In philosophy the concept, or idea, of arrogance appears to have first been documented around 360AD at the time of Aristotle. In the “Nicomachean Ethics” (Miller 2011), Aristotle points out that the pursuit of moral goodness leads ‘men’ to act in the best possible way whereas vice does the opposite in the same situation. Arrogance was viewed by Aristotle as a vice “for the Greeks, seeking a balance or ‘sophrosune’ (soundness of mind) was vital - striving for arete- (excellence) and kudos or kleos (glory) but avoiding hubris (arrogance)” (Hacker 2017; Moseley & Bailey 2014, p. 17). Dillon (2003, p. 194) , in her essay on arrogance and self-respect draws on the work of Immanuel Kant (1724-1804) who “discusses arrogance throughout his ethical works” (Dillon, R.S. 2003) and claims that arrogance was the deadliest of moral vices. He proposed two types of arrogance – contrasting primary arrogance with self-respect and interpersonal arrogance with respect for others. Tiberius and Walker (1998) examined arrogance suggesting it to be an inflation of oneself, not one’s abilities “..... a sense of being ‘truly’ superior to others, is owed deference by them, does not take their opinions seriously and does not permit these attitudes to be displayed when in interactions with them” (Tiberius & Walker 1998, pp. 380-2).

Psychoanalysis

Interest in arrogance from the psychoanalytic field was a consequence of work on the concept of **narcissism** by Nücke (Padovan 2017) who in 1899 labelled narcissism as a problem of pathological sexuality and referred to it as a “passion for oneself” (Padovan 2017, p. 650). Freud consolidated the concept of narcissism in 1914 (Padovan 2017, p. 654) and Emmons (1984) identified arrogance as one of four factors derived from the Narcissism Personality Inventory (NPI) (Emmons, R. A. 1984; Raskin & Hall 1979), an instrument developed in response to the inclusion of a new category called ‘narcissistic personality disorder’ in the 3rd version of the American Psychiatric Association’s Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (American Psychiatric & American Psychiatric Association. D. S. M. 1987). In his factor analysis and construct validity studies Emmons (1984), noted that the third (of four) factor(s) was loaded with twelve items that “had an underlying theme of superiority and grandiosity, and since one also has to be a bit arrogant to endorse many of these items, this factor is labelled ‘superiority/arrogance’” (Emmons, R. A. 1984, p. 294).

Emmons did not define arrogance, he did however state that although arrogance was an accompanying feature of a pathological condition, it was not in itself pathological (Cook 1992). Emmons (1984) also observed a significant relationship, in his factor analysis of the NPI, between Factor 4 “superiority/arrogance’ and ‘self-esteem’ (0.38, p.01) but didn’t undertake further analysis of these two variables. In a later paper, Raskin and Terry (1988) undertook their own factor analysis of the NPI but failed to determine arrogance as a factor, although superiority was identified.

Bion (2018), in a paper presented to the 20th Congress of the International Psych-analyticas Association, examined the relationship between curiosity, arrogance and stupidity in borderline patients. He stated that arrogance “may be indicated by supposing that in the personality where life instincts predominate, pride becomes self-respect, where death instincts predominate, pride becomes arrogance” (Bion 2018, p. 83).

In reporting on potential clinical students from two different therapy streams (behavior v analytical) Weiss (1973) observed the different behaviors of both along “the humility – arrogance continuum”. However, he failed to provide definitions of each construct apart from observing that the behavior his therapy students presented was as more self-confident and secure to the point of arrogance.

Psychology

In the field of psychology, while there was scant research on arrogance pre-2000, there had been significant research that led to the later development of the construct including Schlenker and Leary’s (1982) ‘audience reactions to self-enhancing, self-denigrating and accurate self-perceptions’, Weiner’s Attribution Theory (1985) and Carlston and Shovar’s (1983) work on ‘performance attributions on other’s perceptions of the attributor’. Other relevant studies included self-esteem (Ryan 1983) and illusion and well-being (Taylor & Brown 1988).

Wiggins (1979) proposed a psychological taxonomy of trait descriptive terms that was originally developed and mostly applied in a clinical context (Trapnell & Wiggins 1990), and later formed the basis of his taxonomy of personality scales (Wiggins, Jerry S. & Broughton 1991). The original 16 categories of Wiggins’ ‘circumplex of interpersonal variables’ included one called “arrogant/calculating’ which was said to be a blend of dominance and hostility (Trapnell & Wiggins 1990). Wiggins (1979, p. 405) proposed a set of adjectives that represented ‘arrogant’ included ‘bigheaded, boisterous, conceited, boastful, ‘overforward’, swellheaded, cocky and flaunty’.

Hubris has been associated with arrogance. (Kets de Vries 1990, p. 752) observed that “hubris has ... been a recurring theme in leadership, the obvious reason being that with power often comes excessive pride and arrogance” while Hayward and Hambrick (1997, p. 103) referred to it as an “exaggerated sense of self-confidence” and (Ruvio et al. 2020, p. 1119) as “reflect(ing) an exaggerated sense of pride”. Hubris, self-confidence, and pride were all variables associated with arrogance. In an

essay on pride Feldman (1999) identified two forms, one constructive was referred to as ‘proper’ pride, the second as destructive in which “pride and arrogance prevail and there is a devaluation of and contempt for qualities such as love, concern and gratitude” (Feldman 1999, p. 152).

Business and Management

There is early evidence of arrogance being of interest to workplace leaders and professionals (Ingelfinger 1980; Mayer 1984; Peters 1990), however the first scholarly study of arrogance that could apply to the workplace appears to have been undertaken by Cook (1992) in his doctoral research into cognitive arrogance as a ‘stressor’ coping style. Cook proposed that as a cognitive style, ‘cognitive arrogance’ manifested itself when a person attempted to cope with stress. A key finding from his study was that an arrogant person’s belief in their superiority helped them cope with any stressors but led to an inability to admit failure. He also found that a highly arrogant individual could selectively distort events to maintain a positive self-image.

A key paper by Hareli and Weiner (2000) using attribution theory, identified three ‘antecedent’ qualities or conditions - locus, controllability, and stability - observed in others, that could elicit perceptions of arrogance or modesty (i.e., they reflect the extent to which a person is likely to promulgate their ability, or not). The first significant published study into workplace and leader arrogance though was by Johnson et al (2010) who developed a clear definition of workplace arrogance, an instrument to measure it and examined its relationship with associated constructs.

ABOUT ARROGANCE

The Johnson et al (2010) study established a clear, evidence-based definition of arrogance when examining workplace and workplace leader arrogance. However, outside this field of work-based arrogance the term ‘arrogance’ remains inconsistently used and lacking in precision. It is encountered in many different contexts and explained in varying ways, and that there are so many perspectives and explanations make its study somewhat challenging.

Arrogance by Another Name

Anecdotally, ‘arrogant’ as used in everyday language, is generally accepted as a negative rather than positive term (Cowan et al. 2019; Silverman et al. 2012; Tanesini 2018). When applied to people other than oneself, it conjures up ideas that the ‘arrogant’ person may be full of themselves, acting superior, self-focused, disrespectful, and denigrating to others in terms of those people’s views and/or contributions (Johnson et al. 2010). When assigned by others (to oneself), it would most likely be construed as an insult (Dillon, R.S. 2019, p. 5). In the academic and professional realm arrogance is often used in conjunction with terms such as superiority, entitlement, exploitativeness, hubris, pride, overconfidence and narcissism. To the latter construct, Kowalski (2020, p. 79) stated, “Narcissism’ is so frequently used to refer to arrogance that I will use the terms interchangeably”, yet Emmons (1984; 1987) demonstrated years earlier that arrogance was a factor of narcissism, not a replacement for it.

Bollaert and Petit (2010) similarly found the lack of precision in defining hubris. They argued that poorly defined concepts have implications for methodological choices including that when it becomes difficult to operationalize a concept in a meaningful way, it is then difficult to measure it (Bollaert & Petit 2010). This also applied to having clear definitions of related constructs, in this case, overconfidence and narcissism. In regard to overconfidence, the lack of a precise definition bears a striking similarity to the problem of having a common definition of arrogance that operates across different disciplines i.e., “blanket references to “overconfidence” raise the issue of comparability between different studies, as we cannot be sure that findings are based on identical concepts” (Bollaert & Petit 2010, p. 365).

This also applies to narcissism. It is clear as to why arrogance and narcissism are often confused in the literature, as self-esteem, superiority, dominance and entitlement are associated with both constructs (Emmons, R. A. 1984). Thus that same imprecision as demonstrated with hubris exists with narcissism and arrogance.

As stated above, arrogance has been used with constructs such as pride, hubris, and narcissism, but inconsistently. For example, according to Kerfoot (2010, p. 350) “Webster's dictionary defines hubris as arrogance and/or excessive pride”. Sadler-Smith and Cojuharenco (2021, p. 271) stated that “the attributes of hubris are overconfidence, arrogance and pride, superiority over others, and contempt for advice and criticism” whilst Toscano, Price and Scheepers (2018, p. 631) observed that “arrogance is also differentiated from hubris, or exaggerated self-confidence and pride”. Poggi and D’Errico (2011) classified arrogance as a type of pride and noted that “an arrogant person tends to believe that he or she has power over others”. Williams and DeSteno (2009, p. 284) (see their footnote) added “synonyms for proud are almost universally negative (e.g., arrogant, haughty)”, and Bollaert and Petit (2010) described arrogance alongside haughtiness as a behavior or attitude in the diagnostic criteria for narcissistic personality disorder.

The issue is that arrogance is used as a factor of other constructs, an adjective to describe those constructs or as a behavior to demonstrate them, and these are all based on the context in which arrogance is used. Thus, the way arrogance is used in the scholarly and professional literature depends on the purpose of the writer, rather than adhering to evidence and the discipline of the research method.

Correlates of Arrogance

Two constructs, narcissism and hubris, were identified as bearing a relationship to leader arrogance, and for which numerous studies have been undertaken (Braun 2017; Brennan & Conroy 2013; Chatterjee & Hambrick 2007; Chatterjee & Pollock 2017; Claxton, Owen & Sadler-Smith 2015; Grijalva et al. 2015; Hiller & Hambrick 2005; Kerfoot 2010; Kets de Vries 1990; Nevicka et al. 2018; Park et al. 2018; Petit & Bollaert 2012), (Rosenthal & Pittinsky 2006). The question as to whether arrogance is, or is not, a discrete construct from narcissism or hubris remains largely unaddressed in this paper as our purpose is to examine and clarify research into arrogance and leader arrogance in the workplace, with the intention that potential gaps in the literature be identified to create opportunities for future interventions and research. However, differentiating arrogance from the other two constructs is also important as it will provide a level of clarity and add to our view that arrogance is its own construct. As such we provide four points supporting this view but acknowledge that future research is required to be more definitive.

First, narcissism and hubris are distinct from arrogance in at least one essential way; they do not require a social or interpersonal context (Ruvio et al. 2020) i.e., they are also covert whereas arrogance is manifestly social and interpersonal (Johnson et al. 2010; Ruvio et al. 2020). The implication being that arrogance requires at least two people whereas other like constructs, such as narcissism and hubris, may only require one, the actor.

Second, the desired outcome for engaging in narcissistic, hubristic or arrogant behaviour present as different. With narcissistic behaviour the desire is to be admired (Back et al 2013), with hubris it’s gaining benefit at others’ expense (Berger 2021) and with arrogance it’s being superior, or better than others (Johnson et al 2010). Although different in purpose, factors and behaviours observed in one construct may be perceived in another e.g. entitlement is said to be a factor involved in narcissism (Edershile & Wright 2022) but also in arrogance (Johnson et al. 2010).

Third, antecedents to arrogance (see Table 5) include non-personality factors such as tenure systems and industry sectors such as higher education (Haan, Britt & Weinstein 2007) that are not found in narcissism, or hubris. Arrogance can be observed at the individual, organizational, or institutional or level (Borden, Levy & Silverman 2018; Haan, Britt & Weinstein 2007; Zhong, Li & Luo 2021), however narcissism and hubris are constructs that reflect the individual.

Fourth, leaders can be influenced to minimize or eliminate their arrogant behavior through coaching, training, behavior modification or change management initiatives (Borden, Levy & Silverman 2018; Johnson et al. 2010) i.e. their behavior is malleable whereas narcissism, as a personality trait, is embedded within the individual (Rosenthal & Pittinsky 2006) and responds to clinical or therapeutic interventions (Roberts et al. 2017) rather than organizational.

Given these arguments and the known impact of arrogant behaviour (see Introduction) then a

study of arrogance in the workplace (including leader arrogance) would seem appropriate.

Types of Arrogance

Types of arrogance include ‘arrogance in general’ which is meant to reflect everyday use of the term, intellectual, epistemic and cognitive arrogance indicating an exaggerated view of one’s intellectual abilities and knowledge, interpersonal arrogance that involves treating others with disdain, workplace arrogance that applies only in a work context and consumer arrogance, a specific context involving consumption of goods and services (Ruvio et al. 2020). Another type of arrogance that was identified by Haan (2007) is institutionalized arrogance, so named as the authors argued that the higher education system in the United States was partially responsible for how academics, staff and students behaved, and the tenure system of employment that led to a lowering of felt accountability by academics resulting in arrogant behavior by them.

Leader arrogance has not been identified specifically from this systematic literature review, however, Johnson et al (2010) and Cowan et al (2019) certainly refer to this type of arrogance as negatively impacting organizations and their people, as do academics, professionals, and writers from both scholarly (Borden, Levy & Silverman 2018; Silverman et al. 2012; Toscano, Price & Scheepers 2018) and non-scholarly domains (Burke 2006; Hicks 2021; Ma & Karri 2005; Van Velsor & Leslie 1995), the latter being professional papers that explored the factors involved in leadership and career derailment.

Workplace and Workplace Leader Arrogance

Hareli and Weiner (2000) used attribution theory (Weiner 1985) to examine how ‘accounts for success’ were related to arrogance and modesty. Although not specifically written for the context of the workplace, their study has been used by later researchers such as Johnson et al (2010) in developing the first recognized measure of workplace arrogance. Hareli and Weiner (2000) suggested three dimensions for attributed causes for success (or failure) - locus (internal or external to the person), stability (varying or unvarying over time) and controllability (or uncontrollability by the person). For example, if an individual ascribed success to their high ability rather than downplaying it, they would most likely be perceived as arrogant, than modest, and arrogant people were found to be less admired, a state which could potentially be costly in terms of relations with others.

Johnson et al (2010) developed a measure of arrogance called the WARS (Workplace Arrogance Scale) whose items were positively related to dominance, anger, superiority, prevention-oriented motivation and psychological strain but negatively related to agreeableness. Importantly, they also demonstrated that arrogant employees who acted superior, in fact were not, as high levels of arrogance were associated with low cognitive ability, low task performance and low organization citizenship behavior. They proposed that arrogant behavior might be a façade to mask incompetence or unfavorable self-evaluations.

It should be noted that the literature does not sufficiently define or differentiate arrogant behaviour occurring in a workplace from the specific arrogant behaviour of a leader, or even co-worker. ‘Leader’ is used to designate who has engaged in the arrogant behaviour, and thus it is a question of context without explanation. This begs the question as to what part, if any, ‘role’ may play and whether leader or co-worker arrogance, for example, are different forms of workplace arrogance. This could be a direction for future research. For the purposes of this systematic literature review though, workplace and workplace leader arrogance have not been treated differently other than to observe that this is how they have been reported in the literature.

As can be seen from the historical developments, including the philosophical and multi-disciplinary research, the definition and understanding of workplace arrogance is fragmented. Lack of clarity in understanding workplace and workplace leader arrogance from a management perspective, will limit organizations from clearly outlining measures that restrict negative effects of workplace arrogance on employees, innovation and overall performance (Bollaert & Petit 2010). The next logical step is to adopt a robust methodology to conduct an in-depth systematic review of literature to identify

specific elements of workplace arrogance that will help define arrogance, and clearly articulate the specific antecedents and outcomes of workplace and workplace leader arrogance.

METHODOLOGY

The systematic literature review method used in this study is from Soni and Kodali's (2011) six-step process and later adapted by Manoharan and Singal (2017, p. 79). The six steps utilized in the current review include setting a time horizon, selecting appropriate databases, developing the search strategy, defining inclusion/exclusion criteria, search process, data extraction and analysis.

The study of arrogance has been sporadic over the period of this review i.e., 2000 to 2021, spanning a range of disciplines and publications. The results from the electronic database search reflected this, necessitating a search of secondary sources from the database reference lists, literature known to the authors and from the 'grey literature' (Eva et al. 2019, p. 112; Manoharan & Singal 2017, p. 79; Siddaway, Wood & Hedges 2019, p. 761) to ensure a comprehensive review.

Time Horizon

Only articles published from 2000 to the present were accepted for the electronic database search. The year 2000 was selected as the starting point due to Hareli and Weiner's (2000) findings that determinants (antecedents) of perceived arrogance were linked to claims of high, stable ability, irrespective of actual ability.

Database Selection

Although at least two electronic databases are recommended (Siddaway, Wood & Hedges 2019) for conducting a systematic literature review, we decided to access four databases, due to preliminary searches indicating minimal literature in this field. As such we used PsycINFO, Scopus, ProQuest (Psychological Database) and EBSCOhost's Business Sources Complete databases.

Search Strategy

The search strategy and terms were based on an initial review of key articles addressing arrogance (Cowan et al. 2019; Hareli & Weiner 2000; Johnson et al. 2010; Milyavsky et al. 2017; Tiberius & Walker 1998). Four concept groups were created, and words selected for them based on those articles. Concept Group 1 (Antecedents) reflected descriptions or descriptors of arrogance, or its correlates as may be used both generally, and in workplaces. Concept Group 2 (Workplace and Leader) words were selected to reflect terms associated with leadership / management roles in organizations, Concept Group 3 (Outcomes) incorporated the term "arrog*" as a 'catch-all' for arrogance in related articles and Concept Group 4 (Outcomes) was designed to capture consequences, mediators and moderators of arrogance.

Specifically, the Antecedents Group comprised 'Dominan* OR Anger OR Dismiss* OR Disparage* OR Belittle* OR Denigrat* OR "Taking unwarranted credit" OR Condescend* OR Haught* OR "Self-important" OR Superiority OR Overconfidence OR Self-esteem OR "Cognitive Ability" OR "Personality traits" OR Neuroticism OR hubris OR pride', the Workplace & Leader Group 'Leader OR Supervisor OR Manager OR "General Manager" OR "Managing Director" OR CEO OR "Chief Executive" OR CFO OR COO OR "chief finance*" OR "Chief Operating" OR Workplace OR Organization' the Arrogance Group 'arrog*' and the Outcome Group 'Outcome OR Moderator OR Mediator'.

Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

Only peer-reviewed articles including (literature) reviews (systematic and meta-analysis), empirical research (both qualitative and quantitative) theoretical / conceptual papers and essays were included in database searches. As stated above the year range was from 2000-2021 and only English language papers were included. Commentary, blogs, newspaper articles, magazine, websites, or social media i.e., non-scholarly sources, were excluded.

Specifically, articles related to arrogant behaviors, their antecedents and outcomes were included i.e., the article had to positively answer the question (s) "does the article talk about antecedents to workplace and leader arrogance?" and/or "does the article talk about outcomes from

workplace and leader arrogance?”

Search Process

The four concept terms were entered into the selected databases along with the limiting factors of year range 2000-2021, English language and peer-reviewed scholarly articles. Results are shown in Table 1- Database Results.

[Insert Table 1 about here](#)

Article titles and abstracts were first scrutinized for the term ‘arrogance’ or ‘arrogant’ and then for antecedents and outcomes to determine their relevance to the research questions. Of the original 1,077 articles, 27 remained which were then reviewed in full to determine whether the article ‘talked about antecedents to and/or outcomes of arrogance’. Eleven articles remained after this process.

Arrogance has not been a topic of particular interest to researchers as demonstrated by the above database search result. As such reference lists from the eleven publications were scanned for potentially appropriate papers and in addition relevant articles known to the authors, that did not surface through the database searches, were included. This resulted in an additional twenty-six articles being added to the systematic literature review. The final list of relevant articles was narrowed down to thirty-seven comprising eleven from the database search and twenty-six from secondary sources.

Data Extraction

The data extracted included citation details, research objectives, theories used, clarity of meaning and purpose of the term arrogance, relevant constructs, traits behaviors, antecedent(s), dimensions of the antecedent(s), methods used, sample size and country context.

Characteristics of Workplace Leader Arrogance Research

Twenty-four articles were from the USA, two from Malaysia, Australia and the UK, and one each from Turkey, South Africa, Japan, China, Philippines and Pakistan, and a joint article from Denmark and the USA. Of the thirty-seven papers used in this systematic literature review (see Table 2), only two were from the same publication, being the Journal of Positive Psychology, thirty-one were from other academic journals and four from the grey literature being papers for conferences, professional journals, and two being book chapters.

[Insert Table 2 about here](#)

FINDINGS

The research questions essentially asked how workplace and workplace leader arrogance were understood in the literature, what the antecedents to and outcomes of them were, and what methods had been used to clarify them. Each is addressed below and summarized in Tables 3-7. Of particular note though is information from Tables 2 and 4 that indicates the disparate nature and uncalibrated study of workplace and workplace leader arrogance. Table 4 shows there were fourteen empirical and non-empirical papers published (on them) between 2000 and 2021, and Table 2 shows that all fourteen appeared in different publications across organizational, behavioral, educational, business, mental health and general psychology fields.

Defining Arrogance

Based on the literature reviewed, the most often used definition of workplace arrogance, see Table 3, (Milyavsky et al. 2017; Thong Sim & Ling 2020) is that from Johnson et al (2010, p. 405) viz. “we view arrogance as a set of behaviors that communicates a person’s exaggerated sense of superiority, which is often accomplished by disparaging others”. Through this definition Johnson et al (2010) emphasized that arrogance only exists through behavior, thereby differentiating it from a like construct such as narcissism, which exists both in thought and action. The behaviors Johnson et al (2010) refer to include communicating a sense of superiority to others and then disparaging them.

Insert Table 3 about here

The significant similarity between the above definitions is that the ‘arrogant’ individual covertly holds a sense of superiority which becomes ‘arrogance’ once engaging in disparaging, denigrating, or diminishing behavior to their target (Johnson et al. 2010) i.e., arrogance is preceded by felt superiority based on an inflation of oneself and one’s ‘self-importance’ – an ‘a priori’ condition perhaps. Their felt superiority may be due to over-estimating their abilities which are ungrounded in reality. The underlying purpose being to enhance deficiencies in self-worth and self-esteem. Tanesini (2018) explained this as the need for the arrogant person to feel superior to others to preserve their own sense of self-worth as their self-esteem was based on feeling they were better than others. In turn they interpret others’ abilities and achievement as a threat to their self-esteem. This may also manifest as explicit high self-esteem (Cowan et al. 2019) which is consistent with conveying a sense of superiority.

Antecedents to Workplace and Workplace Leader Arrogance

Findings show (see Table 4) that antecedents to arrogance were researched or discussed in fourteen of the thirty-seven articles, with fifteen antecedents being identified, four from empirical studies and eleven from non-empirical. Of particular note is that none of the fourteen studies had a primary research objective of identifying antecedents to workplace or workplace leader arrogance.

Although there have been other scholarly, and non-scholarly articles, written on arrogance and leadership, they have not attempted to identify antecedents, rather pointing out the negative impact that leader arrogance can have on business (Borden, Levy & Silverman 2018; Burke 2006; Hicks 2021; Ma & Karri 2005; Silverman et al. 2012; Toscano, Price & Scheepers 2018; Van Velsor & Leslie 1995).

Our analysis and results affirm that the study of workplace leadership arrogance is an underdeveloped field with only a handful of studies being undertaken since Johnson et al’s (2010) seminal research. Table 5 shows the four identified antecedents from empirical studies as being the university tenure system and higher education sector (Haan, Britt & Weinstein 2007) and low (actor) self-esteem and cognitive ability (Johnson et al. 2010). Antecedents found in non-empirical studies suggested a focus on the self, particularly around perceived inadequacies such as low self-esteem and insecurities, and conversely inflated, unrealistic views of the self. In addition, Cowan et al (2019) suggested that high levels of the core self-evaluations traits (amalgam of self-esteem, self-efficacy, locus of control and emotional stability) may lead to a leader’s arrogant behaviors.

Insert Table 4 about here

The key antecedent to workplace and workplace leader arrogance would appear to be self-esteem which appeared six times in the fourteen articles, far more than any other antecedent, and was described as low, high, fragile, under threat or defensive. These descriptors may point to the same issue i.e. that high self-esteem may be a ruse that hides a person’s fragile self-esteem (the underlying issue) and triggers arrogant behaviors designed to protect their self-worth (Baumeister et al. 2003; Bosson et al. 2003; Haddock & Gebauer 2011). Dillon (2003, p. 201) explained this as “the valuation of self at the heart of arrogance manifests a warped view of the worth of persons” and “the problem is not just that he does not regard others as ends in themselves or is motivated by considerations of self-esteem to deny that others are his equals in fundamental worth and status, making him liable to treat them disrespectfully. The deeper problem is that he cannot regard any being as an end in itself, as unconditionally deserving of respect, himself included” (Dillon, R.S. 2003, p. 201). This may explain the difficulty in changing the behavior of someone perceived as arrogant.

Outcomes from Workplace and Leader Arrogance

Findings show (see Table 4) that outcomes of arrogance were researched or discussed in fourteen of the thirty-seven articles, with twenty-nine outcome variables being identified, fifteen from empirical

studies and fourteen from non-empirical.

Consequences for the arrogant actor (including leader), were stated to be around lessened likeability, respect, admiration, sociability and relationships. The actor was seen as someone deserving of failure and who could be the recipient of derogatory comments from team members and adverse action by their organization. In addition, impediments to growth opportunities might arise for them, although by definition, they would probably not be aware of, or seeking, them.

For the victim, including teams, the impact of arrogant behavior was reduced performance and competency, feedback seeking, job satisfaction, job commitment, morale, engagement, cohesiveness, collaboration and consensual decision-making. At a personal level they may experience stress, distress, burnout, intention to leave, hurt, discomfort (as dealing with arrogant people is tiresome and off-putting) and a threat to their self-esteem.

Organizational outcomes (Borden, Levy & Silverman 2018; Cleary et al. 2015; De Clercq, Fatima & Jahanzeb 2021; Johnson et al. 2010; Ma & Karri 2005; Padua et al. 2010; Silverman et al. 2012; Toscano, Price & Scheepers 2018) focused on work relationship difficulties, toxic workplaces including bullying, diminished participation, lowered organizational citizenship behaviors, lessened engagement, impediments to delivering the service offering, reduced customer satisfaction, increased staff turnover, reduced profit and ultimately loss of competitive advantage leading to business failure.

In all, this systematic literature review has revealed that the benefits derived from behaving arrogantly such as artificially building one's self-worth and self-esteem, whether in a leadership or colleague role, are far outweighed by the detriment to oneself, to others and to the organization that employs them.

Methods Used

There were seven empirical and seven non-empirical studies undertaken into workplace and workplace leader arrogance. No empirical study had the primary objective of identifying antecedents to workplace and workplace leader arrogance, however six studies did test the relationship between workplace and/or workplace leader arrogance and specified outcome variables.

Five of seven non-empirical studies observed relationships between workplace and/or workplace leader arrogance with specific antecedents while five of the seven discussed specific outcomes.

Further Findings

Although this systematic literature review is focused on workplace and workplace leader arrogance, we found that in the thirty-seven papers reviewed, arrogance spanned nine different academic disciplines and thirty-one different academic journals. Furthermore, no one article set out to specifically examine antecedents to arrogance, rather those studies included this topic in their quest to answer other research questions. Thus, the study of antecedents to arrogance was embedded in these articles, not the purpose of them.

Last, it should be noted that although outcomes from the fourteen articles are described as having detrimental impacts, recent research into consumer arrogance has proposed an initial, positive impact on consumer relationship building and word of mouth consumer communication regarding purchase intentions (Ruvio et al. 2020; Wang, Chow & Luk 2013). Of the thirty-seven articles, these two suggest that there may be circumstances in which arrogance may not be problematic.

DISCUSSION

The need for this systematic literature review (into the antecedents to, and outcomes, from workplace and workplace leader arrogance) is based on initial evidence (Johnson et al. 2010; Silverman et al. 2012) of there being very little empirical research into a behavior that has the potential to significantly and detrimentally impact organizations and those people associated with them (Borden, Levy & Silverman 2018; Johnson et al. 2010; Silverman et al. 2012). The intention of this study was to identify what work has been done, and what is known, to suggest what future research may be beneficial to organizations in addressing problematic workplace and workplace leader arrogance.

This review found that approximately over the past decade – specifically since 2000, there have been seven empirical studies undertaken, and seven non-empirical papers written, about workplace and workplace leader arrogance. Of those seven empirical studies, two found that arrogant leadership was found to be positively associated with four antecedents and six (empirical studies) found positive relationships for fifteen workplace outcomes with workplace and workplace leader arrogance. Of the seven non-empirical papers eleven antecedents and fourteen outcomes were proposed (See Tables 4, 5 and 6).

The difference between the empirical and non-empirical studies regarding antecedents was that most of the non-empirical antecedents focused on the self-concept manifested in maladaptive behaviors that compensated for, or protected, low self-esteem (Cleary et al. 2015; Cowan et al. 2019), whereas the empirical studies considered antecedents in relation to the individual and organization e.g. low actor self-esteem and the higher education industry sector. This difference may be explained by the lack of empirical research into workplace and workplace leader arrogance.

Differences in outcomes appeared to center on culture as demonstrated in engagement behaviors from empirical studies compared to non-empirical studies that had more of an organizational or commercial focus. As shown in Table 5 and 6, the outcomes from empirical research center around the experiences of people within organizations whereas those from the non-empirical studies focus more on the business impact of workplace and workplace leader arrogance.

[Insert Tables 5 and 6 about here](#)

In terms of the fourth research question about methods used to clarify workplace and workplace leader arrogance, seven were empirical studies that used quantitative techniques and seven non-empirical written as theoretical papers. Empirical methods revealed four antecedents and fifteen outcomes and non-empirical eleven antecedents and fourteen outcomes (See Table 4). When considering antecedent and outcome variables together to understand what may lead to or be impacted by workplace and workplace leader arrogance, similarities occurred around self-esteem, performance, employee engagement, organizational climate and leadership (see Table 7). Observable differences between the variables for empirical versus non-empirical studies did not present as meaningful as both were drawn from just two studies each.

[Insert Table 7 about here](#)

What could be said when considering the data from Table 7 is that the combined empirical and non-empirical antecedent and outcome variables represented organizational factors that focused on the internal rather than external business environment (see Figure 1). These observations raise an issue about the most effective method and unit of analysis required to research the workplace arrogance construct and should be a consideration in future research.

[Insert Figure 1 about here](#)

Self-esteem arose seven times as an antecedent or outcome in five workplace and workplace leader arrogance papers, and was articulated as high, low, fragile and defensive self-esteem. Self-esteem has been associated with self-worth (Cowan et al. 2019; Dillon, R.S. 2019; Johnson et al. 2010; Padua et al. 2010; Tanesini 2018) and has been proposed as a compensatory mechanism to protect or build the individual's self-worth, and thus self-esteem (Dillon, R.S. 2003), or to act as a façade in order to mask incompetence or unfavorable self-evaluations (Johnson et al. 2010). Hence, self-esteem, as an antecedent, may have the potential to predict arrogant behavior, however, there is little research at present that supports this idea, thus making it an opportunity for future study.

There are predictable outcomes from arrogance in organizations. Negative consequences impact the actor, others around them and the organization they work for. The actor may experience anything

from being shunned (De Clercq, Fatima & Jahanzeb 2021), all the way to being removed from the organization (Godkin & Allcorn 2011) not to mention the consequences for their self-worth. For the recipients of the arrogant behavior the threat is to their self-esteem and well-being, to performance in their role, to burnout and eventually departure. For the organization it can negatively impact culture, team effectiveness, work relationships, burnout, intention to leave, outcomes, customer satisfaction and ultimately business performance (Borden, Levy & Silverman 2018; Bozacı, Farmer & Gürer 2018; Cleary et al. 2015; Silverman et al. 2012).

Given these issues, the question must be raised as to why arrogance (in and outside organizations) has not attracted more research interest to better understand what it is, how it is manifested and how to address it. On reflection, arrogance (in general) has garnered more direct interest from philosophers than from those in other disciplines. Possible explanations for this could with be the origins of its study, that is, it began with philosophers who distinguished it as a vice; a fundamental example of how people should not live their lives (Dillon, R.S. 2003; Miller 2011). Another explanation may be that it is so closely related to other concepts and constructs e.g. narcissism, hubris, overconfidence and pride, that for those in the realm of psychology, it has been used more as an adjective to describe those constructs, than a construct in itself. Yet, there is enough evidence to suggest it is worthy of study in its own right. As discussed earlier, Johnson et al (2010) and Ruvio et al (2020) proposed that arrogance is different to other like constructs due to it being interpersonal and requiring the presence of another person.

LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

A limitation of this systematic literature review lays in difficulties with searches of the electronic databases used in this study. This may reflect the need to improve search terms, but it is also the case that the four databases failed to identify the seminal paper on workplace and leader arrogance viz. the Johnson et al (2010) article on “Acting Superior but Actually Inferior”. Of the thirty-seven articles used here, twenty-six came from secondary sources.

A second limitation is with the dearth of empirical studies that have examined workplace and/or workplace leader arrogance. Only seven studies were found and reviewed, which reduces the credibility of analysis and making informed conclusions, but also provides an opportunity for future research.

There is an opportunity to undertake further research into work-based arrogance given its potential detrimental impact in organizations. In particular, the question as to what leads to workplace or leader arrogance is still a fertile field as is the impact that arrogant leaders may have. A starting point may be creating a deeper understanding of the relationship between leader arrogance, self-esteem and self-worth, and identifying when that arrogance becomes problematic. More empirical studies are warranted to test the relationship between non-empirical antecedents and leader arrogance as identified in the literature

Last, confusion exists around terms like narcissism, pride, overconfidence and hubris with that of arrogance, but particularly narcissism. Leader narcissism has attracted much attention both academically and professionally but given the findings in this paper the question must be asked as to whether arrogance should attract more academic interest.

CONCLUSION

This systematic literature review was designed to identify the antecedents to and outcomes from workplace leader arrogance from the available literature with the purpose of better understanding what it is, why leaders behave arrogantly and the consequences of it in order to create the conditions and opportunities to address and/or prevent its negative impact in organizations. Thirty-seven papers were found that discussed arrogance, workplace and workplace leader arrogance, yet only fourteen of those addressed workplace leader arrogance and merely seven of those fourteen were empirical studies. Our analysis identified the common antecedent was self-esteem, and the common outcome was employee engagement as experienced working within the organization. These key findings make a significant contribution to understanding the concept of arrogance as workplace leader arrogance is an underdeveloped research area yet as the outcomes listed in Table 6 show, there are credible reasons, and incentives enough, to undertake this research.

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TABLES

Table 1. Database Results

Database	Search x Concept
Scopus	201
PsycINFO	1
EBSCO	6
ProQuest*	869
Total	1077

**TABLE 2
Articles by Publication**

1. American Philosophical Quarterly
2. College Student Journal.
3. Criminal Law and Philosophy
4. Current Psychology: Research and Reviews
5. Episteme
6. European Business Review
7. European Journal of Personality,
8. Hitit University Journal of Social Sciences Institute
9. Human Performance
10. Issues in Mental Health Nursing,
11. Journal of applied behavioral science
12. Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology
13. Journal of Business & Psychology
14. Journal of Business Research
15. Journal of Business Ethics
16. Journal of Forensic Psychiatry & Psychology
17. Journal of Higher Education Research Business and Policy Section Cutting Edge Research.
18. Journal of Positive Psychology x 2
19. Journal of Research in Personality
20. Journal of Social and Personal Relationships.
21. Journal Of Social Sciences and Technical Education
22. Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science
23. Metacognition and Learning
24. Motivation and Emotion
25. Online Journal for Vet Practitioners (Malaysia)
26. Organizational Dynamics
27. Psychology and Marketing.
28. Review of General Psychology,
29. Social Behavior and Personality
30. Social Psychology Bulletin

31. Social Psychology of Education
32. Symposion
“Grey Literature” - The Industrial Organizational Psychologist; Essays by Women Philosophers. ProQuest E-book Central. Yale University Press, 2003. ProQuest ISSS Conference Vietnam

Table 3. Definitions of Arrogance

Borden, L., Levy, P.E. & Silverman, S.B. (2018)	An individual’s tendency to engage in behaviors that convey an exaggerated sense of superiority.
Bozacı, I., Farmer, E.G., Gürer, A. (2018)	Stagnant beliefs about superiority and excessive or exaggerated importance given to oneself, the existence of which is understood by excessive and arrogant claims
Cleary, M, Walter, G, Sayers, J, Lopez, V & Hungerford, C (2015)	A condition or attribute whereby an individual perceives that he or she is in some way superior to others and so has no need to show courtesy or respect, nor listen to the advice or feedback of others
Cowan, N., Adams, E.J, Bhangal, S., Corcoran, M., Decker, R., Dockter, C.E., Eubank, A.T., Gann, C.L., Greene, N.R., Helle, AC, Lee, N., Nguyen, A.T., Ripley, K.R., Scofield, JE, Tapia, M.A., Threlkeld, K.L & Watts, A.L. (2019)	A high or inflated opinion of one’s own abilities, importance and so on, that gives ride to presumption or excessive self-confidence, or to a feeling or attitude of being superior to others
De Clercq, D. Fatima T. and Jahanzeb S. (2021)	P propensity of leaders to exhibit inflated levels of self-importance and express a sense of superiority over followers, such that they “place little value on other people’s ideas and input, discount feedback, claim to be more knowledgeable than others, and sometimes publicly belittle and disparage those around them to exaggerate their own self-importance”
Haan, P, Britt, M. Weinstein, A. (2007)	Arrogance (proud and insolent; disrespectful) is a sociological concept in that it is a trait that people perceive in others.
Johnson, R, Silverman, S, Shyamsunder, A, Swee, H-Y, Rodopman, OB, Cho, E & Bauer, J. (2010)	A set of behaviors that communicates a person’s exaggerated sense of superiority, which is often accomplished by disparaging others
Ma, H and Karri, R. (2005)	The arrogance of strong incumbents often blindfolds their top management teams and creates illusions that they are invincible what worked before will always work. With this mentality, they unjustly belittle their rivals, mock their presence
Padua, R. N., Lerin, M. M., Tumapon, T. T. & Panares, Z. A. (2010)	That species of pride which consists in exorbitant claims of rank, dignity, estimation or power or which exalts the worth or importance of the person to an undue degree.
Silverman S. B., Johnson R.E., McConnell, N and Carr, A. (2012)	Arrogance is engaging in behaviors intended to exaggerate a person’s sense of superiority by disparaging others
Sim JPT & Ling Y-L. (2020)	An arrogant leader is someone displaying or practising arrogance leadership in an organisation, specifically educational
Thong and Ling Y-L. (2020)	An inflation of oneself, not one’s abilities. A sense of being ‘truly’ superior to others, is owed deference by them, does not take their opinions seriously and does not permit these attitudes to be displayed when in interactions with them.
Toscano, R, Price, G & Scheepers, C. (2018)	A sense of superiority and exaggerated self-importance, acted out with an overbearing manner and presumptuous claims

Table 4. Empirical / Non-Empirical Articles and Variables

	Empirical	Non-Empirical	Total
Articles			
Arrogance	15	8	23
Workplace & Leader Arrogance	7	7	14
	22	15	37
Workplace & Leader Arrogance Variables			
Antecedent	4	11	15
Outcomes	15	14	29
	19	25	44

Table 5. Summary of Workplace and Workplace Leader Empirical & Non-Empirical Antecedents

Antecedents	
Empirical	Non-Empirical
1. Tenure system (employment contract)	1. A sense of superiority
2. Higher Education sector	2. A sense of entitlement
3. Low actor self-esteem	3. An inflated view of self
4. Cognitive ability	4. Inflated confidence
	5. Perceived or actual inadequacies that include insecurities and low self-esteem (5) *
	6. Illusion of control, high self-esteem, and society's need for leaders
	7. Excessive core self-evaluation levels (self-esteem, self-efficacy, locus of control, emotional stability)
	8. Early negative experiences
	9. Misconceptions about the nature of self, life or others
	10. Income
	11. Academic qualification

* Number of times antecedent was identified

Table 6. Summary of Workplace and Workplace Leader Empirical & Non-Empirical Outcomes

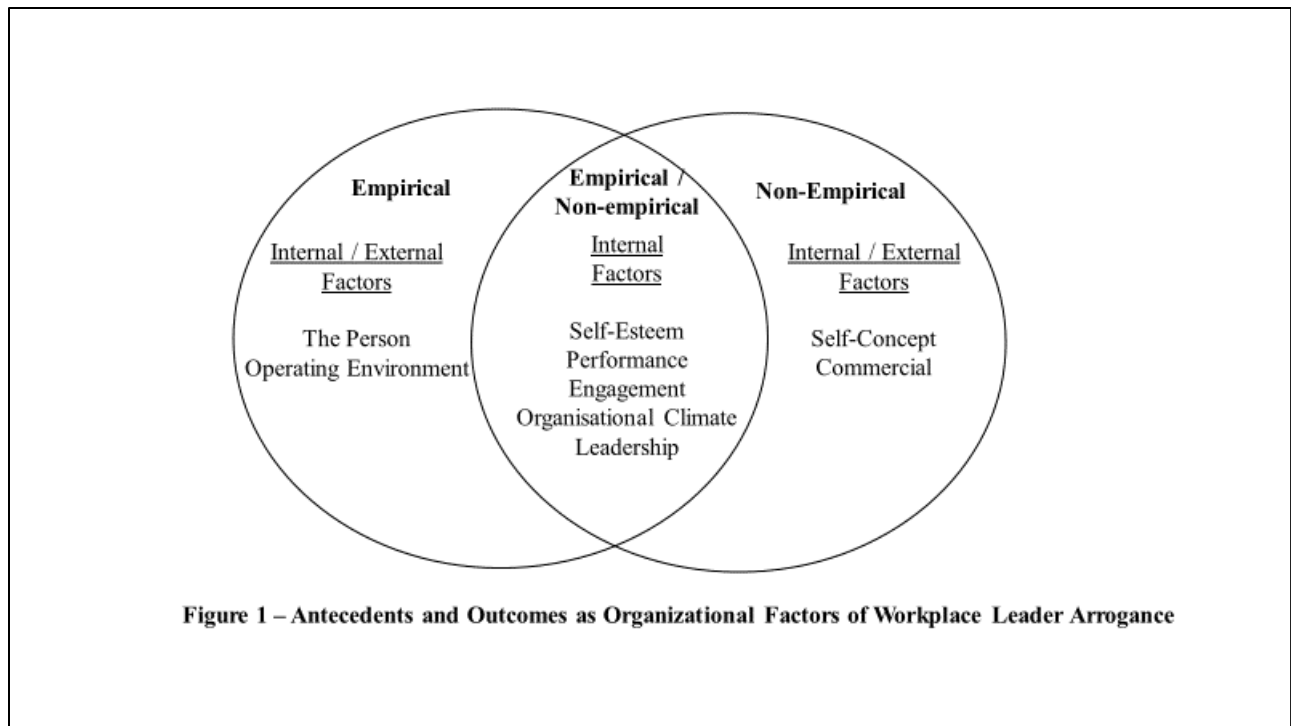
Outcomes	
Empirical	Non-Empirical
1. A less favorably rated feedback environment	1. Impeded service delivery
2. Engaging in less feedback seeking	2. Reduced customer satisfaction
3. Experiencing lower levels of morale	3. Reduced in-role task performance
4. Experiencing higher levels of burnout	4. Ineffective teams
5. Intention to leave	5. Reduced extra-role organization citizenship behaviors
6. Undertaking of negative gossip about leaders.	6. Actions taken against actor by the organization
7. Low job commitment	7. Diminished work relationships (2) *
8. Low job satisfaction	8. Negative social climates
9. Lower engagement	9. Increased staff turnover, bullying and toxic workplaces
10. Lower cohesiveness	10. Leaders' illusions of invincibility
11. Lower collaboration	11. Leader's downfall
12. Lower consensual decision-making	12. Business destruction through loss of competitive advantage
13. Low levels of organization citizenship behaviors	13. Reduced potential organizational productivity and detrimental organizational outcomes

14. Poor task performance	14. Reduced profit
15. Lowered actor self-esteem	

* Number of times outcome was identified

Table 7. Similarities and Differences between Empirical and Non-empirical Data

Empirical (6)	Empirical/Non-empirical (25)	Non-Empirical (13)
<p>Individual (4)</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Cognitive ability 2. Low job commitment 3. Low job satisfaction 4. Less employee feedback seeking <p>Business Sector (2)</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Tenure system (employment contract) 2. Higher Education sector 	<p>Self-Esteem (4)</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Low actor self-esteem 2. Lowered actor self-esteem 3. Perceived/actual inadequacies including insecurities & low self-esteem 4. Excessive core self-evaluation levels <p>Performance (2)</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Poor task performance 2. Reduced in-role task performance <p>Engagement (9)</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Low organization citizenship behaviors 2. Reduced extra-role organization citizenship behaviors 3. Lower engagement 4. Lower cohesiveness 5. Lower collaboration 6. Lower consensual decision-making 7. Ineffective teams 8. Diminished work relationships 9. Intention to leave <p>Climate/Well-being (6)</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Lower levels of morale 2. Less favorably rated feedback environment 3. Negative social climates 4. Increased staff turnover, bullying / toxic workplaces 5. Actions taken against actor by the organization 6. Higher levels of burnout <p>Leadership (4)</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Negative gossip about leaders 2. Leaders' illusions of invincibility 3. Illusion of control, high self-esteem, society's need for leaders 4. Leader's downfall 	<p>Individual (8)</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. A sense of superiority 2. A sense of entitlement 3. An inflated view of self 4. Inflated confidence 5. Early negative experiences 6. Misconceptions about the nature of self, life or others 7. Income 8. Academic qualification <p>Commercial (5)</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Impeded service delivery 2. Business destruction through loss of competitive advantage 3. Reduced potential organizational productivity and detrimental organizational outcomes 4. Reduced profit 5. Reduced customer satisfaction



8.3 Paper 1 Findings

The key findings from Paper 1 are encapsulated in Figure 1 above, identifying a combination of contextual and individual factors that informed the systematic literature review of the second paper, Paper 2. In addition, the paper clarified the systematic literature review as an effective methodological approach to find and examine the available literature including primary and secondary sources. It developed a history of arrogance and forms the basis of an argument to separate arrogance from narcissism, hubris, and pride. These findings provided the basis to expand the examination of LA which was addressed in Paper 2.

Paper 2 Focus: Workplace and Workplace Leader Arrogance: A Conceptual Framework

Reference: Mitchell, G, McMurray, A, Manoharan, A & Rajesh, JI 2024, 'Workplace and workplace leader arrogance: a conceptual framework', *International Journal of Management Reviews*, Resubmission under final review.

Abstract

This study aims to clarify the meaning of arrogance in the context of the workplace and leadership. Arrogance is reported to have detrimental workplace effects yet there is no synthesis of the literature nor identification of future research directions. We systematically reviewed the literature to understand the definitions, antecedents and outcomes of workplace and workplace leader arrogance, with the aim of advancing theory and identifying potential oversights in the literature to create opportunities for future researchers. We identified 42 scholarly papers on workplace arrogance and workplace leader arrogance published between 2000 and September 2023. Arrogance, including workplace and workplace leader arrogance, is generally defined as a misplaced sense of superiority, manifested as disparaging behaviour toward others. Of the 42 studies reviewed, 18 (15 empirical and three nonempirical) purposefully investigated workplace and workplace leader arrogance. Using definitions from 37 of the studies, we discerned that workplace and workplace leader arrogance comprised a sense of superiority that manifested as unacceptable behaviour toward others, usually with damaging consequences. Further, we differentiated arrogance from similar constructs such as narcissism, hubris and pride by examining the purpose and role of each, as well as points of confusion. Whereas the antecedents of workplace and workplace leader arrogance include belief and bias, conceptions of the self and the broader work environment, the outcomes include people, culture and business. Our findings advance arrogance and leadership theory by clarifying the construct of workplace and workplace leader arrogance and providing a novel framework for understanding its antecedents and outcomes.

Introduction

Arrogance is a notoriously problematic construct to define and distinguish yet is a well-known and commonly used term to describe behaviour that is unacceptable and offensive (Cowan et al. 2019; Silverman et al. 2012). Arrogance often leads to negative outcomes for actors, observers and victims (Johnson et al. 2010), but it can also have positive outcomes (Peters 1990; Sutton 2003), such as stimulating creative endeavours along with positive social consequences (Schinckus 2017; Zibarras, Port and Woods 2008).

Arrogance typically manifests as disparaging and objectionable behaviours targeted at others. It is widely understood across cultures (Cowan et al. 2019; Volk et al. 2021) and has historically attracted the interest of philosophers and psychoanalysts (Back et al. 2013; Dillon 2003; Emmons 1984; Raskin and Hall 1979; Tanesini 2018). Since the 1980s, the effects of arrogance and its relationship with traits such as narcissism, hubris, pride, humility, confidence, self-esteem, vanity and personality have been sporadically examined across a range of psychology disciplines, including clinical, cognitive, developmental, personality, social, motivational and emotional psychology. However, arrogance has attracted minimal research interest outside of managerial and organisational psychology (Johnson et al. 2010; Silverman et al. 2012; Toscano, Price and Scheepers 2018), parts of the business sector, particularly health (Cleary et al. 2015), and philosophy (Dillon 2019; Tanesini 2018).

Unlike narcissism or hubris (Ruvio et al. 2020), which do not require engagement with others, arrogance is an overt and explicit interpersonal act by one individual targeted at another (Johnson et al. 2010). During the interaction, the actor will use their inflated sense of their superiority, self-importance and abilities to disparage and diminish their target. These behaviours raise questions about arrogance, including whether it is a state (event) or trait (quality or characteristic), its types, pervasiveness, causes, consequences and outcomes, the contexts in which it occurs and the most effective ways to address it. What constitutes an arrogant act is itself unclear, however, as definitions reveal (see Table S1 in supplementary materials) arrogance presents as a combination of antecedent and behaviour, with both

being a necessary condition for arrogance to be perceived. This may explain confusion between arrogance and similar behaviours, for example, a harmful act by a leader targeting a subordinate might be perceived as destructive rather than arrogant if the leader was driven by high Machiavellianism (Emmerling, Peus & Lobbestael 2023) rather than felt superiority (Cleary et al 2015; Cowan et al 2019). Thus without knowledge of the antecedent, interpretation of the behaviour is made in isolation and subject to misinterpretation, leaving arrogance to be defined as a combination of antecedent and behaviour, and while much of the literature has focused on the antecedent, there has been less attention to behaviours.

In examining leadership dysfunction Rose et al (2015) differentiated harmful behaviours based on severity. Building on Pearson et al's (2001) work on workplace incivility, Burns and Pope (2007) proposed three categories of negative workplace behaviours based on intensity and harm and labelled these as negative, incivility and aggressive. 'Negative' is defined as 'disrespectful and undermines or violates the value/dignity of an individual. It is behaviour that harms individuals and organisations; 'Incivility' is 'rude or disrespectful/discourteous behaviour with ambiguous intent which may or may not be defined as bullying by those who experience/witness it', and 'Aggressive' is 'behaviour with the clear intention of harming the target. This is seen as being less common than negative behaviour in general or incivility, but it is always classed as bullying. It is intended that these classifications be applied to behaviours identified in the current systematic literature review.

Actions that might be characterised as arrogant are extensive, spanning those such as aloofness and not listening to more serious actions such as dismissing and deceiving to far more harmful behaviours like belittlement and hostility.

In their study, Johnson et al. (2010) concluded that 'arrogant behaviors may be performed as a façade to mask incompetence or unfavorable self-evaluations' (p. 423) and that high workplace arrogance is correlated with low levels of organisational citizenship behaviours (OCBs), poor in-role task performance, decreased feelings of likeability and respect for the arrogant actor, increased feelings that the arrogant actor is deserving of failure, increased stress in individuals working around and for the arrogant actor and reduced feedback-seeking behaviours by subordinates of arrogant leaders. This can lead to a negative social climate, poor working relationships, burnout, reduced customer satisfaction and, ultimately, reduced profits (Borden, Levy and Silverman 2018; Cleary et al. 2015; Silverman et al. 2012; Toscano, Price and Scheepers 2018).

Existing literature focuses mainly on the deleterious effects of workplace and workplace leader arrogance on the organisational climate, workplace relationships and behaviours, individual and organisational performance and individual well-being (Borden, Levy and Silverman 2018; Coppola 2023; De Clercq, Fatima and Jahanzeb 2021; Johnson et al. 2010; Silverman et al. 2012). However, this research has neither identified the antecedents to workplace and workplace leader arrogance nor continued to develop the theory. The aim of this systematic literature review is to address these oversights.

The literature further neglects to address the potential benefits of arrogance, although studies by Brown (2012), Senyuz & Hasford (2022) and Ruvio et al. (2020) have pointed to initial beneficial outcomes of consumer arrogance in the building of customer relationships. Peters (1990) and Sutton (2003) have also argued that arrogance was integral to organisational innovation. Peters (1990) has, for instance, pointed out that arrogance has a role in creation and renewal, and Sutton (2003) has identified that risk-taking fuels new ideas and success but also includes ignoring or disregarding behaviour that are aspects of arrogance (Cowan et al. 2019; Berger 2002; Demirbilek, Keser and Akpolat 2022; Eckhaus and Sheaffer 2018; Johnson et al. 2010). Steve Jobs (Bariso 2015; Valentine 2014) was accused in the media of arrogant behaviour but inspired greatness in others to the extent that, when he left Apple in 1985, many of his key people moved to his new company, NeXT, because they believed he elicited their best work despite his behaviour. This raises a question as to whether arrogance might be purposeful—that is, used to trigger specific behaviour in others—and, thereby, able to be termed 'functional or constructive arrogance'.

Peters (1990) has noted, however, that not understanding the role of arrogance in creation and renewal is as risky as miscalculating its negative side effects. From a business perspective, workplace

leader arrogance resulting in harm (Coppola 2023) may be viewed in terms of risk management and as a leadership issue. The consequences (both problems and opportunities) of this type of arrogance include those associated with people (e.g., reduced team morale, reduced well-being, poor leader–member relationships, lower job commitment and satisfaction, and higher rates of burnout and intention to leave) and those associated with the organisation (e.g., disruptions to business operations, increased risk of not delivering the service offered, lower customer loyalty and satisfaction, financial costs, including those associated with rehiring and retraining of replacement employees, and potential litigation or workplace injury claims (Borden, Levy and Silverman 2018; Cleary et al. 2015; Johnson et al. 2010).

The benefits of addressing arrogance include the opportunity to create a positive culture in which leaders reflect the organisation’s values and vision and build innovative capability through effective leadership and people practices. Curtailing arrogant behaviours may lend organisations a competitive advantage and encourage positive behaviours such as humility (Vera and Rodriguez-Lopez 2004). Interventions to reduce the harmful effects of arrogance and promote the benefits of performance feedback and action planning—including the creation of developmental opportunities for coaches and managers to address the disconnect between one’s own and others’ perceptions of arrogant behaviours—may help to mitigate the adverse consequences of workplace arrogance (Borden, Levy and Silverman 2018). Conversely, if there were benefits from arrogance for an organisation, how would it manage such behaviour given that arrogance can have detrimental effects, and what would happen if the detriments were to begin outweighing the benefits? Although these are complex issues and are not directly addressed in the literature, future research might examine leadership and counterproductive workplace behaviour literature for guidance for subsequent explorations.

Treating people arrogantly erodes trust, as well as perceptions of fairness and dignity, and demonstrates a lack of care (Macdonald, Burke and Stewart 2018). It is expected that addressing, managing or preventing arrogant behaviours before they become problematic will have a positive effect on organisations in terms of preventing or reversing potential loss. Further, at the leadership level, it is the role of leaders to strategically guide organisations by establishing the values that direct individual and organisational behaviour (Antonakis and Day 2018).

Thus, understanding the antecedents and outcomes of arrogant behaviour, both in the workplace and from leaders, will contribute to enhancing organisational effectiveness. This may be facilitated by viewing workplace leader arrogance as a discrete construct rather than as a secondary factor (Cowan et al 2019; Hareli and Weiner 2000; Hogan and Hogan 2001; Kleitman, Hui and Jiang 2019), which may, in turn, help clarify the roles of personality (trait) and context (state) in workplace leader arrogance, identify when workplace leader arrogance is problematic, determine its cost at the personal and organisational levels, and construct interventions to address it.

A systematic literature review on this topic is warranted given that the literature on workplace and workplace leader arrogance, as an emerging research area, is disparate and disconnected. In addition, workplace and workplace leader arrogance can detrimentally affect organisations strategically, financially and in terms of their human capital. Given these points, this study examines key issues in the literature to clarify the construct, identify themes, patterns and relationships and advance the theory of workplace and workplace leader arrogance (Post et al. 2020). Thus, by identifying the antecedents and outcomes of workplace and workplace leader arrogance, this study adds to the arrogance and leadership theory.

Scope of the Systematic Literature Review

This systematic review encompasses the academic literature on workplace and workplace leader arrogance. Notably, except for contextual purposes, the literature does not differentiate between arrogance, workplace arrogance and workplace leader arrogance (Johnson et al. 2010). Whereas the term ‘workplace arrogance’ implies that the arrogant behaviour is enacted, observed and experienced within a workplace, ‘workplace leader arrogance’ identifies workplace leaders as being the perpetrators of this behaviour. For the purposes of this review, ‘workplace arrogance’ and ‘workplace leader arrogance’ are not treated as separate constructs other than to observe how they have been reported in the literature.

This review is based on the following two research questions:

1. Is 'workplace and workplace leader arrogance' a discrete construct?
2. How do the antecedents and outcomes of workplace and workplace leader arrogance inform theory?

Given the scant research on workplace and workplace leader arrogance, confirming this as a discrete construct will potentially attract more research attention, enhancing the leadership literature. If workplace leader arrogance is anticipated to have negative consequences in the workplace, customised interventions may be developed. Further, it is less likely that these interventions will be confused with those developed for similar constructs such as narcissism, hubris and pride. Identifying how the antecedents and outcomes of workplace and workplace leader arrogance inform theory will help to advance leadership theory because these antecedents and outcomes will be better understood.

Overall, this paper aims to review the scholarly literature to elucidate the definitions, antecedents and outcomes of workplace and workplace leader arrogance. Given the diversity of views regarding the definitions and components of arrogance and workplace arrogance, it is important to first ascertain how arrogance has been represented by previous researchers and authors. Increasing the precision of the term will lend credibility and soundness to our analysis.

The remainder of the paper is organised into four sections beginning with an examination of arrogance through the literature, an explanation of the systematic literature review together with results, presentation and discussion of the findings and theoretical contribution incorporating implications for theory, future research and practice, and the conclusion.

About Arrogance

Arrogance occurs when a person arrogates or unjustifiably claims more consideration than is due their position and comprises two components: overconfidence and an air of superiority (Baselice and Thomson Jr 2018). In layperson's language, the term 'arrogant' is generally accepted as negative rather than positive (Cowan et al. 2019; Silverman et al. 2012; Tanesini 2018). In their examination of workplace and workplace leader arrogance, Johnson et al. (2010) established a clear, evidence-based definition of arrogance, which is related to feeling full of oneself, acting superior to others, being self-focused and disrespectful and belittling other people's views or contributions. Arrogance from others is most likely construed as an insult (Dillon, 2019).

Clarifying Arrogance

Numerous researchers (S. Braun 2017; Brennan and Conroy 2013; Chatterjee and Hambrick 2007; Chatterjee and Pollock 2017; Claxton, Owen and Sadler-Smith 2015; Grijalva et al. 2015; Hiller and Hambrick 2005; Kerfoot 2010; Kets de Vries 1990; Nevicka et al. 2018; Park et al. 2018; Petit and Bollaert 2012; Rosenthal and Pittinsky 2006) have identified three constructs that are related to leader arrogance: narcissism, hubris and pride. The question of whether arrogance is a discrete construct separate from narcissism, hubris and pride has remained largely unanswered. The purpose of this paper is not only to examine the research on workplace and leader arrogance but also to confirm whether arrogance is a separate construct. Below, we provide five arguments supporting that it is but acknowledge that future research is needed to be more definitive.

First, we suggest that narcissism, hubris and pride can be considered distinct from arrogance in that they do not require a social or interpersonal context (Ruvio et al. 2020), requiring only the actor. Johnson et al. (2010) proposed that arrogance is interpersonal, involving at least two people (one being the actor) and manifesting through behaviour experienced by the other individual (the target or observer). Before the behaviour occurs, an actor's self-perception as superior, entitled, elite, better than others or self-important is intrapersonal, remaining a potential antecedent to arrogance.

Second, narcissistic, hubristic, prideful and arrogant behaviours have different desired outcomes or purposes. The desired outcome of narcissistic behaviour is to be admired (Back et al. 2013), that of hubris is to receive benefits at the expense of others (Berger et al. 2020), that of pride is to gain prestige and dominance (Poggi and D'Errico 2011; Tracy and Robins 2007) and that of arrogance is to feel superior to or better than others (Johnson et al. 2010).

Third, the antecedents of arrogance (see Figures S1 and S2 in the supplementary materials) are not necessarily related to personality. They include tenure, industry sector and higher education (Haan, Britt and Weinstein 2007), which are not found in narcissism or hubris. Whereas, arrogance can be observed at the individual, organisational and institutional levels (Borden, Levy and Silverman 2018; Haan, Britt and Weinstein 2007; Zhong et al. 2021), narcissism, as a personality disorder, is experienced and observed at the individual level (Raskin and Hall 1979). Similarly, hubris is an individual ‘endeavour’- that is, an act or acts of behaviour derived from the overconfidence of a person and usually associated with the leader of an organisation (Berger et al. 2020). Pride, as proposed by Tracy and Robins (2007), is also observed through behavioural expression and described as a fundamental human emotion experienced at the individual level. Pride serves the social function of providing information about social status and acceptance, and motivating socially valued behaviours that promote positive feelings. Those feelings may be associated with the individual and their achievements, or the family or social group. Using the term ‘institutional’ in conjunction with pride infers the pride an individual feels in an institution (Wendler 2012) as an extension of their social group, such as feeling proud of the achievements of one’s university or community sports team.

Fourth, arrogant behaviour can be ‘coached out’ (Borden, Levy and Silverman 2018; Johnson et al. 2010). That is, arrogance maybe subject to change through organisational intervention or assuaged through developing virtue (humility) while mitigating vice (Coppola 2023). Narcissism and hubris are, conversely, embedded in the individual (Rosenthal and Pittinsky 2006), responding only to clinical or therapeutic (rather than organisational) interventions (B.W. Roberts et al. 2017).

Fifth, although behaviours or factors observed in one construct may be perceived in another, they may have a different purpose. For example, superiority and entitlement are factors involved in both narcissism (Edershile and Wright 2022) and arrogance (Johnson et al. 2010). However, Johnson et al. (2010) found that arrogance is related to neither self-sufficiency nor authority (factors related to narcissism), suggesting that arrogance and narcissism are different constructs. Similarly, hubris may share the characteristics of overconfidence and overestimation of one’s abilities with arrogance, but these characteristics have a different purpose (Berger et al. 2020). Poggi and D’Errico (2011) argued that superiority is a type of pride that benefits the superior person; however, the superiority associated with arrogance is an inner belief rather than a goal.

Together these arguments provide a foundation for examining how arrogance, hubris, narcissism and pride may differ from one another. This analysis clarifies what each is, leading to their being used accurately, not interchangeably.

Types of Arrogance

Different adjectives, including ‘intellectual’, ‘epistemic’, ‘cognitive’, ‘interpersonal’, ‘institutional’ and ‘consumer’, have been used in the literature to classify and distinguish arrogance. Each is applied to create a clear definition. For example, whereas cognitive arrogance refers to an exaggerated view of one’s intellectual abilities and knowledge manifested in overclaiming knowledge and inflexible opinions in the face of contrary evidence (Kleitman, Hui and Jiang 2019), interpersonal arrogance refers to those who believe they are better than others, who look down upon others, treating them with contempt, disdain, peremptoriness and a lack of consideration (Dillon 2007). Both consumer and workplace arrogance refer to arrogance in the context of a demographic sector (Ruvio et al. 2020), and institutional arrogance is often used to describe the nature of the higher education system in the United States (Haan, Britt and Weinstein 2007). Definitions of arrogance are examined in more detail in the ‘Findings and Theoretical Contribution’ section.

Although there is minimal literature addressing leader arrogance, Johnson et al. (2010) and Cowan et al. (2019) both referred to this type of arrogance as negatively affecting organisations and their workers. Other authors from both scholarly (Borden, Levy and Silverman 2018; Silverman et al. 2012; Toscano, Price and Scheepers 2018) and non-scholarly (Burke 2006; Hicks 2021; Ma and Karri 2005; Van Velsor and Leslie 1995) domains—the latter encompassing professional papers exploring factors involved in leadership and career derailment—also discussed the detrimental effects of leader arrogance.

This is explored next by considering whether leader arrogance is an aspect of harmful leadership, in addition to the work contexts in which detriment might occur.

Leader Arrogance and Harmful Workplace Leadership

In their examination of the dark side of leadership, Mackey et al. (2021) identified 21 styles of destructive leadership. Leader arrogance, by definition, could be a factor in many of those styles given the many descriptors that reflect arrogant behaviour, including disparaging, disrespecting, denigrating, discounting, dismissing, ignoring, dominating, diminishing and disdain. However, it is in the purpose of such behaviour that leader arrogance differs from destructive leadership, as the arrogant leader's primary purpose is to let others know of their superiority. Thus the leader deserves 'more' than anyone else, with the behaviour being the means to achieve that end (Dillon 2007; Tanesini 2018). Second, the consequences of this messaging are unique for the leader, eroding their self-esteem and well-being and in turn workplace relationships, engagement, commitment, satisfaction, performance and brand (Cleary et al 2015; Johnson et al. 2010; Sim and Ling 2020; Toscano, Price and Scheepers 2018; Senyuz and Hasford 2022). Thus, the key difference between leader arrogance and other harmful leadership styles is in the leader's manifested belief of superiority that leads to individual and organisational detriment.

Workplace and Workplace Leader Arrogance

Hareli and Weiner (2000) used attribution theory (Weiner 1985) to examine how 'accounts for success' are related to arrogance and modesty. Johnson et al. (2010) relied on this study when developing the first recognised measure of workplace arrogance - the Workplace Arrogance Scale (WARS). Johnson et al. (2010) found that employees who acted superior were, in fact, not superior because high levels of arrogance are associated with low cognitive ability, task performance and OCBs. They proposed that arrogant behaviours may be a façade to mask incompetence or unfavourable self-evaluations.

Notably, the literature does not sufficiently differentiate between arrogant behaviours occurring in the workplace and those perpetrated by workplace leaders. Both of these terms, however, provide the context for the behaviour. That is, the 'workplace' is defined as 'the site or location where a person works' (*Oxford English Dictionary* n.d.); the 'leader', or the one working in an authorised leader role, is the alleged perpetrator of the arrogant behaviour. Leadership, as Antonakis and Day (2018) pointed out, refers to directing and guiding an organisation's resources to achieve strategic objectives and doing this purposefully in accordance with values, ideals, vision, symbols and exchanges with others. Under this view, leadership or the role of a leader applies throughout, at any level of, an organisation. When we refer to a leader, it is to an individual who has been appointed to that role by their organisation.

For the purposes of this review, there are three contexts in which workplace and workplace leader arrogance may occur. These are (i) a physical location in which work is undertaken and the perpetrator is not in a leadership role, (ii) a physical location in which work is undertaken and the perpetrator is in a leadership role and (iii) when workplace arrogance is attributed to the organisation rather than to a person. Work, in turn, relates to three areas of an organisation: technical, commercial and social (Macdonald, Burke and Stewart 2018). The technical component of work, such as production, creates monetary value for a business; the commercial component includes marketing, sales, business development and accounting; and the social component refers to work in relation to people. In considering the articles for review, we accepted that arrogant workplace behaviours may occur in any of these domains.

Methodology

For our systematic review, we followed Soni and Kodali's (2011) six-step process, as later adapted by Manoharan and Singal (2017). The six steps used in the current review were (i) setting a time horizon, (ii) selecting appropriate databases, (iii) developing the search strategy, (iv) defining the inclusion and exclusion criteria, (v) conducting the search and (vi) extracting and analysing the data.

Only articles published in English between 2000 and September 2023 were included in the electronic database search. The year 2000 was selected as our starting point because of Hareli and Weiner's (2000) findings that arrogance is linked to claims of high, stable ability, irrespective of actual

ability. The search of at least two electronic databases is recommended for systematic literature reviews (Siddaway, Wood and Hedges 2019). Given the minimal literature in the field ascertained from our preliminary searches, we accessed four databases: PsycINFO, Scopus, ProQuest and EBSCO Business Source Complete. The results showed that although the research on workplace and workplace leader arrogance spans a range of disciplines and publications, it has been sporadic. To ensure a comprehensive review search, we also identified secondary sources from reference lists and literature known to the authors (e.g., Eva et al. 2019, p. 112; Manoharan and Singal 2017, p. 79; Siddaway, Wood and Hedges 2019, p. 761).

To ensure the quality and validity of a systematic literature review, the search strategy should meet two criteria: recall and precision (Salvador-Oliván, Marco-Cuenca and Arquero-Avilés 2019). It must incorporate appropriate terms, synonyms and descriptors and combine search techniques in the 'free-text and controlled-language fields, truncating the terms appropriately to retrieve all their variants' (Salvador-Oliván, Marco-Cuenca and Arquero-Avilés 2019, p. 210). The strategy must also account for the different search procedures, requirements and functions of each database (e.g., whereas PsycINFO utilises subject headings, ProQuest does not). A search strategy was initially developed for PsycINFO, then adapted according to the requirements of each of the different databases, including the use of appropriate syntax.

The concepts and terms used in the search strategy were based on an initial review of key articles on workplace and workplace leader arrogance (e.g., Borden, Levy and Silverman 2018; Cowan et al. 2019; Johnson et al. 2010; Kumar, Kang and Chand 2022; Milyavsky et al. 2017; Silverman et al. 2012; Toscano, Price and Scheepers 2018). We created three concept groups and selected terms, including article keywords and relevant subject headings, from the articles identified in PsycINFO.

Only peer-reviewed academic journal articles were considered for the review, thus inclusion criteria identified scholarly articles, literature reviews (systematic reviews and meta-analyses), empirical research (qualitative and quantitative), theoretical and conceptual papers, case studies and essays that examined or discussed workplace and workplace leader arrogance as the purpose, outcome or application of the relevant research or discourse. Grey literature, including commentaries, blogs, books, newspaper and magazine articles, websites and social media, was excluded.

As shown in Figure 1, the search process comprised four stages: (i) an initial database search, including the removal of duplicates (ii) a review of retrieved records for the terms 'arrogance' or 'arrogant', (iii) a scan of abstracts and articles of selected records for their use of the terms 'arrogance' and 'arrogant' and their relevance to this study, (iv) a full review of selected articles to determine whether they 'talked' to workplace and workplace leader arrogance. This process identified 28 articles. Further, we conducted forward and backward snowballing, which can lead to a significantly higher number of relevant articles compared with a database search only (Wohlin et al. 2022). Snowballing resulted in the identification of an additional 14 articles, leading to 42 articles in total for the review.

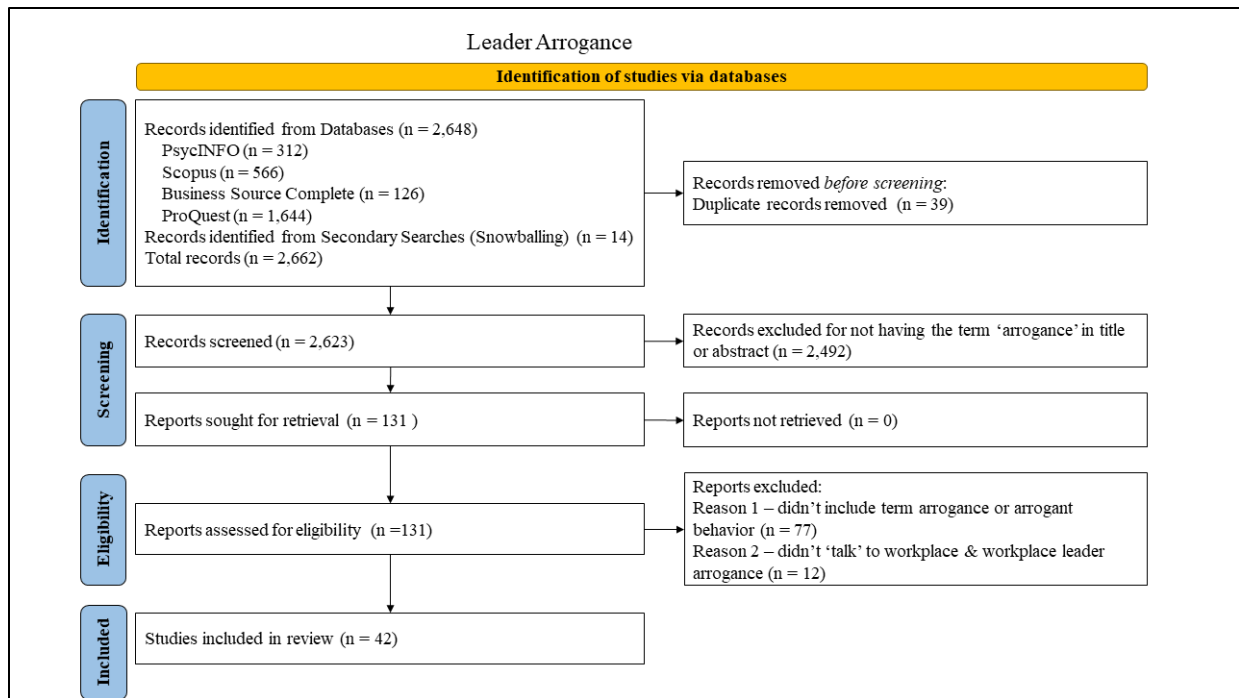


Figure 1. Prisma—Search Process Results adapted from Page et al. (2021)

The extracted data included citation details, research objectives or purpose, theories used and definitions of the term 'arrogance', relevant constructs, trait behaviours, antecedents, outcomes, methods used, sample size and country. Articles were examined for both named and unnamed antecedents and outcomes, which were recorded as written (or as close as possible). A greater level of scrutiny was required to identify unnamed antecedents and outcomes, particularly in nonempirical papers, because these were found to be ancillary to the research aim of the papers in which they were observed.

Of the 42 papers selected for this systematic review, only four were published in the same journal (two in each of *Organizational Dynamics* and *Synthese*), with the remaining 38 being published in different academic journals. These journals ranged across various disciplines, with 14 in psychology, 13 in business and management and 13 in other disciplines. Twenty-eight studies were conducted in the United States; three in the United Kingdom; two each in Australia and Pakistan; and one each in China, Fiji, Malaysia, Nigeria, the Philippines, South Africa and Turkey.

We examined the 42 final papers to determine how many purposefully investigated workplace and workplace leader arrogance. Twenty studies (16 empirical, three conceptual and one essay) had been designed to examine workplace and workplace leader arrogance. Given the 23-year period selected for this systematic review, this means fewer than one study per year, indicating that the research on workplace and workplace leader arrogance is underdeveloped, with only a handful of studies since Johnson et al.'s (2010) seminal research. Twenty-two articles (nine empirical, six conceptual, four essays and three case studies) indirectly examined workplace or workplace leader arrogance, meaning that workplace and workplace leader arrogance was not the primary purpose and, in the case of empirical studies, was not addressed in the research questions.

To understand how antecedents and outcomes were identified for workplace and workplace leader arrogance, an analysis of methods in the articles was undertaken. Of our sample articles, 24 were empirical, eight were conceptual, seven were essays and three were case studies. From these, we identified 53 antecedents (20 in empirical studies, 25 in conceptual papers, seven in essays and one in a case study) and 50 outcomes (30 in empirical papers, 12 in conceptual papers, five in essays and three in case studies). As shown in Table 1, the articles examined arrogance in general as well as cognitive, interpersonal, consumer, epistemic, intellectual, interpersonal, leader, leader-workplace and workplace arrogance.

Table 1. Arrogance Factors × Type

Type of Arrogance	Definition Frequency*	Inner Belief					Behaviours Manifesting from Inner Belief				
		Superiority	Self importance	Unjustified claim Entitlement	Excessive confidence	Inflated ability	Disparaging Denigrating Disdain	Discounting Ignoring	Disrespect	Aggrandising	Other
In general	9	6	2	3	2	1	4	2	1		2
Cognitive	1	1	1	1		1				1	
Consumer	4	3	1	1			1		1		
Epistemic	1										1
Intellectual	1	1									
Interpersonal	1	1	1				1				
Leader	5	3	1	2	2		2				
Leader-workplace	2	2					1				
Workplace	13	9	3	1			4	3	1		1
Times stated in definitions		26	9	8	4	2	13	5	3	1	4

Note:

* Number of definitions x type of arrogance.

1. Numbers within the Table refer to the number of times a 'factor' was mentioned in a definition e.g. superiority was mentioned six times in the nine definitions for 'in general' arrogance.

2. Listed below are studies x arrogance category:

General: Berger (2002); Cowan et al (2019); Godkin & Allcorn (2011); Hareli and Weiner (2000); Hareli, Weiner & Yee (2006); Hareli, Sharabi, & Hess (2011); Jenkins (2015); Milyavsky et al (2017); Zibarras, Port & Woods (2008).

Cognitive: Kleitman, Hui & Jiang (2019).

Consumer: Brown (2012); Ruvio et al (2020); Senyuz & Hasford (2022); Wang, Chow & Luk (2013).

Epistemic: Ford (2009).

Intellectual: Tanesini (2020).

Interpersonal: Dillon (2007).

Leader: Burke (2006); De Clerq, Fatima & Jahanzeb (2021); Ma & Karri (2005); Spector (2003); Toscano, Price & Scheepers (2018).

Leader & Workplace: Borden, Levy & Silverman (2018); Johnson et al (2010).

Workplace: Cleary et al (2015); Coppola (2023); Demirbilek et al. (2022); Friedman & Friedman (2019); Haan, Britt & Weinstein (2007); Hogan & Hogan (2001); Kumar, Kang & Chand (2022); Orunbon, Ibikunle & Lawal (2021); Padua et al (2010); Randolph-Seng &. & Norris (2011); Sim & Ling (2020); Weinstein et al (2010); Zohaib Khan and Batool (2022).

Empirical research samples were drawn from five countries and from a variety of sectors, including higher education (lecturers, undergraduates and business students), retail, banking, medicine, manufacturing, professional services, government sectors and Amazon Mechanical Turk, an online source of research participants (see Table S2 in the supplementary materials). Within the 24 empirical studies, sample size varied between 13 and 10,305, averaging 427.35; response rates were provided in only seven studies and varied between 57% and 100% (see Table S2 in supplementary materials). Figure S1 (see the supplementary materials) illustrates the antecedents and outcomes of workplace and workplace leader arrogance found in the empirical studies. Of the 20 antecedents found, 11 were related to superiority, which is unsurprising and consistent with earlier works. Others included negative aspects of the self and the work environment. Outcomes focused on leadership, workplace engagement, work environment, individual effects and individual and business performance. Moderators and mediators were observed in five studies (see Figure S1).

Conceptual research (see Figure S2 in supplementary materials) revealed antecedents primarily related to aspects of the self, including self-belief. Outcomes, like that with empirical studies, focused on people, namely the actor and victim; culture in terms of relationships, engagement and climate; and individual, team and organisational performance.

The underlying theories used in the papers included the conservation of resources theory, attribution theory, social contract theory, social identity theory, theory of positive illusions, trait theory, social cognition theory and upper echelons theory. Frameworks included self-concept, management incompetence, personality variables and work performance, metacognition and individual differences, personality disorders, illusory superiority, emotions, agentic competence and interpersonal behaviour, implicit/explicit attitudes, Horney's (1950) model of flawed interpersonal characteristics and social identity theory.

Findings and Theoretical Contribution

As proposed by Post et al. (2020), this systematic review advances theory in three ways: by clarifying the construct, theorising how antecedents to workplace and workplace leader arrogance connect to outcomes, and proposing a working definition of arrogance that represents the many interpretations of workplace and workplace leader arrogance. This work addresses the research questions as to whether workplace and workplace leader arrogance is a discrete construct and how its antecedents and outcomes may inform theory.

The cohesion and development of a research topic is usually demonstrated by how scholars challenge or build on the work of previous researchers. In the case of workplace leader arrogance, only two studies in the psychology and business literature have been regularly drawn upon to advance the construct: Johnson et al.'s (2010) 'Acting superior but actually inferior? Correlates and consequences of workplace arrogance' (95 Google Scholar citations) and Hareli and Weiner's (2000) 'Accounts for success as determinants of perceived arrogance and modesty' (152 Google Scholar citations). Three studies in the field of philosophy are commonly cited: Tiberius and Walker's (1998) 'Arrogance' (81 Google Scholar citations), Dillon's (2003) 'Kant on arrogance and self-respect' (57 Google Scholar citations) and Tanesini's (2016) "'Calm down, dear": Intellectual arrogance, silencing and ignorance' (107 Google Scholar citations).

Implications for Theory

Clarifying the Construct

Clarifying a construct relies on meeting specific conditions. According to Suddaby (2010), these include establishing a clear, precise definition; identifying the contextual conditions in which a construct will or will not apply; explaining the semantic relationship to other constructs; and demonstrating coherence and logical consistency in relation to the overall theoretical argument being made.

We discerned a clear definition of arrogance in the context of the workplace in 37 of the 42 papers reviewed (see Table S1 in the supplementary materials). Our analysis (see Table 1) revealed two elements of arrogance: (i) an inner belief in one's superiority (i.e., being better than others) derived from

an inflated and unjustified sense of self-importance and one's abilities, leading to (ii) disparaging and disrespectful behaviours toward others. This is consistent with the most commonly cited definition of arrogance: 'We view arrogance as a set of behaviors that communicates a person's exaggerated sense of superiority, which is often accomplished by disparaging others' (Johnson et al. 2010, p. 405; see Table S2 in the supplementary materials). We agree with this definition of arrogance, as it incorporates three key factors from the literature: (i) there are a consistent set of unacceptable behaviours experienced and observed by others, (ii) these derive from the actor's sense of superiority and (iii) that sense of superiority is inflated and inconsistent with reality. As suggested by Murdock (1967), it is possible to form a 'modal' model or concept that gathers the key aspects from the literature in a research area for use in future research, and we propose the definition above as a modal model of arrogance.

Johnson et al.'s (2010) definition implies that arrogance exists through both thought and action, differentiating it from similar constructs such as narcissism, which manifests as either thought or action (i.e., it does not have to be enacted or observed to exist). Importantly, although they developed a tool to measure workplace arrogance, Johnson et al. (2010) have defined arrogance generally rather than workplace arrogance specifically. This poses a question about whether arrogance is a single concept contextualised by adjectives (e.g., 'workplace', 'leader', 'interpersonal') or whether different types of arrogance exist.

An argument supporting the former claim may be mounted by comparing the number of times that 'factors' and 'types' of arrogance are mentioned in the definitions (see Table 1). For example, superiority was mentioned in 26 of the 37 definitions, suggesting that most authors view superiority as a key element of arrogance. In particular, it suggests that arrogant individuals possess a covert sense of superiority, accurately captured by the phrase 'knows what's best for you' (Dillon 2003 p. 191). The arrogant individual's sense of superiority may be attributable to an overestimation of their abilities, which, although ungrounded in reality, has the underlying purpose of addressing deficiencies in self-worth and self-esteem. According to Tanesini (2018), the arrogant person needs to feel superior to others to preserve a sense of self-worth, which is built on being better than others. These individuals interpret others' abilities and achievements as a threat to their self-esteem. This may also manifest as high self-esteem (Cowan et al. 2019), which is consistent with conveying a sense of superiority.

Consistent with the notion of superiority (i.e., being superior implies being more important than others), self-importance was observed eight times across five types of arrogance and, notably, three times in workplace arrogance (Dillon 2007). Unsurprisingly, given arrogance derives from the word *arrogatus*, meaning to seize or claim without justification or to make undue or unwarranted claims (Jenkins 2015), unjustified claims and entitlement arose eight times. According to Dillon (2003), making unjustified claims means assuming a right to which one is not entitled or 'appropriating' (p. 108) without just reason. This may occur from failing to engage in critical reflection or to be rational (Dillon 2007), leading to an inflated sense of one's abilities and importance. Arrogance may also arise from a sense of entitlement. Johnson et al. (2010) found a positive relationship between entitlement—a subscale of Emmons's (1984) Narcissistic Personality Inventory (NPI) and reflected in items such as, 'I will never be satisfied until I get all that I deserve'—and arrogance. R.C. Roberts and Wood (2003) have also referred to arrogance as an illicit claim of entitlement (in the sense that it is undeserved) derived from the presumption of superiority.

Discounting and ignoring others emerge in behaviours such as not listening, ignoring others and not admitting failure (Cowan et al. 2019; Hogan and Hogan 2001). Discounting others reflects superiority—the arrogant person knows best, so they do not need to listen to others (Cowan et al. 2019). Not admitting failure further reflects the perception of feeling superior to others (Tanesini 2018), which makes admitting a mistake incongruent and means that any error must be somebody else's fault (Hogan and Hogan 2001).

The contextual conditions under which arrogance occurs are unclear because of the limited research on arrogance as a construct or theory. Arrogance is associated with a range of antecedents and outcomes as well as with similar constructs, particularly narcissism, hubris and pride, as discussed earlier. The following addresses this issue, concluding with a focus as to why narcissism is different to arrogance.

Research to date shows that the overriding factor possessed by arrogant individuals is an inner sense of superiority, reflected in their unjust claims and inflated sense of entitlement, self-importance and abilities (Cleary et al. 2015; Haan, Britt and Weinstein 2007; Hareli, Weiner and Yee 2006; Johnson et al. 2010; Kleitman, Hui and Jiang 2019). Some scholars suggest that the key driver of this sense of superiority is a low or fragile self-esteem. This masks a low sense of self-worth and may appear as high self-esteem (Cowan et al. 2019; Demirbilek, Keser and Akpolat 2022; Dillon 2007; Johnson et al. 2010; Padua et al. 2010; Ruvio et al. 2020; Tanesini 2018). It is also suggested that the context or operating environment may contribute to arrogant behaviours (Cowan et al. 2019; Haan, Britt and Weinstein 2007).

The negative effects of workplace arrogance include challenges for arrogant leaders (De Clercq, Fatima and Jahanzeb 2021; Johnson et al. 2010; Toscano, Price and Scheepers 2018), personal difficulties for actors and their victims (Godkin and Allcorn 2011; Hareli, Sharabi and Hess 2011; Johnson et al. 2010), diminished engagement in the workplace (Borden, Levy and Silverman 2018; Hogan and Hogan 2001; Sim Poh Thong and Ling 2020; Toscano, Price and Scheepers 2018; Weinstein et al. 2010), a negative work environment (Cleary et al. 2015; De Clercq, Fatima and Jahanzeb 2021; Ford 2009; Friedman and Friedman 2019; Levine 2005) and reduced individual and organisational performance (Cleary et al. 2015; Duarte 2006; Eckhaus and Sheaffer 2018; Friedman and Friedman 2019; Johnson et al. 2010; Kleitman, Hui and Jiang 2019; Kumar, Kang and Chand 2022; Ma and Karri 2005; Padua et al. 2010; Randolph-Seng & Norris 2011; Ruvio et al. 2020; Senyuz and Hasford 2022; Spector 2003).

Two key studies have advanced the study of arrogance: Cowan et al. (2019) investigated arrogance from a cross-disciplinary perspective, and Johnson et al. (2010) investigated it from a workplace perspective. Both groups of researchers recognised that further research was required to generate a clearer understanding of arrogance and its consequences, but little has occurred since.

As has been discussed, two common aspects of arrogance are displayed in the workplace: (i) an inner belief in one's superiority, which is then manifested as (ii) unacceptable behaviour. Without further information or context, this description could also be perceived as a result of narcissism, hubris or pride. Of the 42 articles selected for this review, 13 addressed the relationship between arrogance and narcissism.

Five key factors differentiate the two constructs. First, arrogance is less 'clinical' than narcissism, which is typically assessed using Raskin and Hall's (1979) NPI (or a derivative of it). Arrogance certainly has conceptual ties with narcissism through factors such as superiority, entitlement and vanity (Milyavsky et al. 2017) but it is unrelated to other NPI dimensions such as self-sufficiency and authority (Borden, Levy and Silverman 2018; Johnson et al. 2010). Johnson et al. (2010) have suggested that a work-based measure would be a better predictor of organisational phenomena associated with arrogance compared with a general measure for narcissism (such as the NPI), implying that arrogance is narrower than narcissism. Further, Milyavsky et al. (2017) have observed that arrogant behaviour is only one of nine clinical symptoms of narcissistic personality disorder.

Second, arrogance has been posited as more social in nature than narcissism (Johnson et al. 2010), although Dillon (2007) has argued that it is possible to be arrogant in the absence of others—as demonstrated by a person arrogating abilities they do not have and undertaking tasks beyond those abilities when others are not present. Johnson et al.'s (2010) point, however, is that narcissism does not have to manifest as a behaviour, whereas arrogance, by definition, only exists in behavioural form (see Table S1 in the supplementary materials).

Third, the instruments used to measure arrogance and narcissism differ significantly, reflecting the different composition of each. As has been noted, narcissism is typically measured using the NPI, in which 12 (of 54) items represent arrogance or superiority, or through its shortened 16-item version, which excludes any measure of arrogance (Kleitman, Hui and Jiang 2019). In contrast, arrogance has been measured using customised instruments such as the WARS (Borden, Levy and Silverman 2018; De Clercq, Fatima and Jahanzeb 2021; Johnson et al. 2010; Sim Poh Thong and Ling 2020), the Consumer Arrogance Scale (Ruvio et al. 2020), self-designed arrogance tests (Orunbon, Ibikunle and Lawal 2021) or a range of tests that include the NPI along with measures of modesty, extroversion, self-esteem, openness and optimistic bias (Kleitman, Hui and Jiang 2019).

Fourth, arrogance has been viewed as a trait of narcissism or an attitude or behaviour contributing to narcissism (Cowan et al. 2019; Godkin and Allcorn 2011; Johnson et al. 2010; Kleitman, Hui and Jiang 2019; Levine 2005), with Senyuz and Hasford (2022) also having referred to arrogance as a marker of trait narcissism. These studies indicate that arrogance is a factor of, not a replacement for, narcissism. Finally, confirming our earlier argument, the objectives of narcissism and arrogance differ. The objectives of narcissism are, for instance, to be admired and loved by others but, for arrogance, they entail being better than or superior to them (Kleitman, Hui and Jiang 2019; Ruvio et al. 2020; Tanesini 2018).

The terms 'hubris' and 'arrogance' are also often used interchangeably. For example, in their examination of the Enron collapse, Eckhaus and Sheaffer (2018) initially point out the blatant hubris in the top management team but later refer to the culture of arrogance and greed in that same team. Six of the 42 articles examined hubris. The common theme across these articles (Cowan et al. 2019; Eckhaus and Sheaffer 2018; Johnson et al. 2010; Ruvio et al. 2020) is that hubris, in the work and managerial context, is composed of an exaggerated confidence and belief in oneself along with contempt for others and a belief that one is not accountable in the face of their judgements. As a cognitive bias reflected in an unrealistic overconfidence and a lack of acceptance of failure, hubris results in high risk-taking activity and an overestimation or disproportionate view of one's ability to succeed, resulting in significantly negative consequences. Arrogance, conversely, is about believing in one's superiority and demonstrating this through unacceptable behaviour.

Eight of the 42 papers discussed pride, the key ones being by Milyavsky et al. (2017) and Demirbilek, Keser and Akpolat (2022). Milyavsky et al. (2017) explored pride through the work of Tracy and Robins (2007), who categorised the construct into authentic and hubristic pride, both of which are considered positive self-conscious emotions elicited by one's achievements. However, these categories differ with respect to how an individual comes to them. Whereas with authentic pride, for example, success is attributed to effort (internal, unstable and controllable), with hubristic pride, success is attributed to ability (internal, stable and uncontrollable). Milyavsky et al. (2017) have pointed out that this perspective is similar to Hareli and Weiner's (2000) conceptualisation of arrogance but have suggested that arrogance is a broader concept than pride because it includes other behaviours such as dismissal. Milyavsky et al. (2017) have further suggested that hubristic pride may be tantamount to arrogance based on the traits (e.g., arrogant, conceited, smug) used to measure this form of pride. However, 'conceited' and 'smug' are not used in the measurement of arrogance, as demonstrated by the WARS (Johnson et al. 2010).

Demirbilek, Keser and Akpolat (2022) drew on the work of Poggi and D'Errico (2011) to explore the link between pride and arrogance, arguing that arrogance may be considered a type of pride in which the desire for superiority leads to dominant and irrational behaviours. However, Poggi and D'Errico (2011) have discussed superiority in terms of goal-oriented behaviours, contending that superiority with respect to arrogance is about belief. Although pride and arrogance may be related, they differ in that the former is an emotion and the latter is a behaviour. Arrogance is one of several traits used to measure hubristic pride, thus cannot itself be pride. Finally, although pride includes the goal of superiority, this is different to having a predetermined belief that one is superior.

In summary, these arguments drawn from our systematic review findings demonstrate that arrogance is related to narcissism, hubris and pride in different ways, but that it stands alone as a construct. The confusion between these various constructs arises from imprecision of language and misunderstanding of the role of arrogance (e.g., as a contributing factor to a construct rather than being that construct). It also arises from attributing the same purpose to arrogance as is typical of these other terms, a move that overlooks the following distinctions: feeling superior (arrogance) versus desiring admiration (narcissism), being overconfident (hubris) or being socially valued (pride).

The Conceptual Framework of Workplace and Workplace Leader Arrogance

Thematic analysis is a method used to identify, analyse and report on patterns or themes in a set of data (V. Braun and Clarke 2006; Castleberry and Nolen 2018; Daffy and McMurray 2015). We manually applied this method to both the conceptual and empirical articles selected for this systematic review to

develop a conceptual framework of workplace and workplace leader arrogance. Thematic analysis was based on our interpretation of the authors' use and expressed intention of their antecedents and outcomes.

Although this study did not set out to identify behaviours, the systematic literature review did reveal 161 behaviours that were reduced to 39 after the removal of duplicates and similarity grouping. Earlier, the notion of severity was used to organise such behaviours (Burns and Pope 2007), however, a more effective way of understanding differences in these behaviours may be in the concept of intentionality i.e. the ability to think and implement self-formulated goals (Magalhaes & de Araujo 2023). Low intentionality might explain annoying behaviours an actor engages in, and may not be aware of, such as 'acting superior', whereas high intentionality involving a formulated goal e.g. to harm another, may clarify why an actor engages in more hurtful and directed behaviour, such as belittling another. This concept may be thought of in terms of a continuum i.e. from low to high intentionality, and the different arrogant behaviours placed along it. It has not, to our knowledge, been used to explain workplace and workplace leader arrogance, and provides a useful direction for future research.

Conceptual Literature

The identified antecedents were organised into themes of 'self', 'self-belief' and 'external factors'. Guided by Leary and Tangney's (2011) *Handbook of the Self and Identity*, we subdivided the 'self' theme into self-protection, self-esteem, self-doubt, self-worth and the ideal self, and 'self-belief' into superiority and entitlement. 'External factors', with two antecedents, was not subdivided.

Leary and Tangney (2011) have proposed that the 'self' comprises three psychological processes: 'attention' (directing one's conscious attention to oneself), 'cognition' (conscious thought about one's current state, situation, attributes, roles, memories and imaginings) and 'regulation' (attending to and thinking about oneself in the present and future, enabling regulation of one's actions). Underpinning these three processes is the human capacity for reflexive thinking—the ability to make oneself the object of one's thinking. Our list of antecedents echoes this interpretation of the self; that is, the ability to reflect and then regulate, to act in autonomous, self-directed ways (Baumeister and Vohs 2011). Leary and Tangney (2011) have also considered the roles of emotion (e.g., shame, guilt, embarrassment) and motivation (e.g., self-enhancement, self-verification), concluding that although emotions are not part of the self, they may be considered outcomes of people's reflections on themselves. Similarly, following self-reflection, people may be motivated to engage in self-deception to feel better about themselves; to construe or manipulate information to create a more useful self-image or present themselves as 'better'; or to respond to threats, negative feelings and insecurity about their self-worth and fragile self-esteem by becoming smug and superior (Tanesini 2018).

According to Leary and Tangney (2011), whereas the antecedents of self-protection and self-esteem are active, meaning the arrogant actor takes action to deal with unpalatable situations, the antecedents of self-doubt are more passive, suggesting the actor is aware of unpleasant circumstances but does not act on them. Self-worth entails the inordinate valuing of the self in relation to others, which Dillon (2007) has argued results in the actor denying or disregarding what others do or have to contribute. Finally, with respect to the antecedents of the ideal self, the actor distorts or manipulates information (e.g., overestimating information and their abilities) to create an image of who they want to be (Boyatzis and Akrivou 2006).

The self-belief theme comprises the antecedent subthemes of being better than others (superiority) and being owed something by them (entitlement). Again, using Leary and Tangney's (2011) propositions, these subthemes appear to involve attention, cognition and regulation. That is, superiority—where one has a sense, belief and assumption of being better than others—requires the actor to think (attention), experience their self (cognition) and choose to act consistently in accordance with their beliefs (regulation). Entitlement mirrors this in that decisions are usually made in the actor's interest, such as laying claim to things without justification, assuming entitlement or believing that only they know the truth. This supports the proposition that arrogant actors seek to create the conditions in which others will perceive them as better.

The final theme, ‘external factors’, comprises both institutional and societal factors, indicating that workplace and workplace leader arrogance may manifest not only in people but in organisations or society more broadly. The conceptual literature demonstrates that the antecedents of arrogance derive from people’s responses to an unfavourable self-view, resulting in them embellishing how they see themselves and how they want others to perceive them.

Using the same approach as for antecedents, we grouped outcomes into themes. Three emerged: ‘people’ (divided into subthemes of ‘actors’ and ‘victims’), ‘culture’ (divided into ‘relationships’, ‘engagement’ and ‘climate’) and ‘performance’ (divided into ‘individuals’, ‘teams’ and ‘organisations’). Concerning people, both actors and victims experience adverse outcomes. However, for the protagonist, because of an incorrect valuation of self and others, arrogance also corrupts their ability to make moral choices (i.e., distinguish right from wrong; Dillon 2007). For the victim, although workplace arrogance can lead to denigration and disrespect (Cowan et al. 2019; Dillon 2007), oppression may also inadvertently occur through assumptions made by those in privileged professional positions. Such assumptions, reinforced by the institution, amount to institutional arrogant perception (i.e., the arrogance originating from ignorance; Ford 2009).

Culture-related outcomes are indicative of a fractured workplace in which undermining behaviours and lack of cohesion result in members being concerned about their own interests instead of those of the team or organisation (Macdonald, Burke and Stewart 2018; Schein 1990). Research findings show that this leads to reduced engagement, job commitment, job satisfaction and increased employee turnover. Additionally, if the workplace climate is toxic and one in which people are bullied (Cleary et al. 2015; Dillon 2007; Sim Poh Thong and Ling 2020), the effectiveness of senior organisational leaders becomes questionable. This is because it is the job of senior management—or the Board, if relevant—to establish an organisation’s behavioural and business values (Schein 1990) and its desired culture (Burke 2006; Ma and Karri 2005; Macdonald, Burke and Stewart 2018; McGill et al. 2021).

It is unsurprising that unacceptable workplace behaviours negatively affect job performance and, hence, organisational outcomes (Macdonald, Burke and Stewart 2018). Based on our findings, Figure S2 (see the supplementary materials) shows that these negative effects range from the individual to the organisational levels through poor decision-making, reduced productivity, leadership failure, ineffective teams, impeded service delivery and loss of competitive advantage, leading to business destruction.

Empirical Literature

From our thematic analysis of the empirical data, we developed a framework that demonstrates the relationship between the antecedents and outcomes of workplace and workplace leader arrogance. As shown in Figure S1 (see the supplementary materials), whereas the antecedents are personal characteristics and the work environment, the outcomes are people, culture and business. In addition, we identified the perception and response of the arrogant behaviour target as moderating outcomes of that behaviour, and actor competence, manner and behavioural consistency, humility, and detriment to the target, as mediating it. That is, arrogant behaviour was perceived in relation to those factors.

In their research on individual differences in cognitive and metacognitive arrogance, Kleitman, Hui and Jiang (2019) identified arrogance through dispositional measures representing positive self-views (i.e., extroversion, narcissism, self-esteem, optimistic bias and openness), along with a strong negative loading from the modesty facet of agreeableness. This indicates that low modesty and high extroversion, narcissism, self-esteem, optimistic bias and openness create a feeling of superiority to others. This is reflected in the personal characteristics subtheme of believing oneself to be better than others (Friedman and Friedman 2019; Hareli, Weiner and Yee 2006; Johnson et al. 2010; Milyavsky et al. 2017), exaggeration of one’s incumbent qualities and importance (Hareli and Weiner 2000; Kleitman, Hui and Jiang 2019), a sense of entitlement (Hogan and Hogan 2001) and an inflexible worldview or dogmatism (Kleitman, Hui and Jiang 2019). Consistent with conceptual studies, self-doubt (i.e., low self-esteem, incompetence and insecurity) is present in the empirically derived antecedents (Demirbilek, Keser and Akpolat 2022; Johnson et al. 2010). This accords with the view that negative self-perception can instigate arrogant behaviour as a defence against low self-worth (Tanesini 2018).

The work environment theme includes work systems, industry environment and leader behaviours as all having the potential to induce arrogant behaviours in others (Borden, Levy and Silverman 2018; Haan, Britt and Weinstein 2007; Kumar, Kang and Chand 2022). Humans tend to reflect the values and decisions of those in authority (managers and leaders) in the culture they have created (Macdonald, Burke and Stewart 2018). If the culture is perceived as arrogant, arrogance may then be observed in the behaviours, systems and symbols of the organisation and its leaders (Borden, Levy and Silverman 2018; Kumar, Kang and Chand 2022; Macdonald, Burke and Stewart 2018). For example, Haan, Britt and Weinstein (2007) have referred to the arrogance of college administrators in the United States who contend that ‘ordinary’ people cannot understand that colleges differ from other types of organisations—this difference informs the need to continually increase tuition rates. This implies that the ordinary person has an inferior intellect, thereby making college administrators and colleges superior to them (and justifying increased tuition). This suggests elitism on the part of the college administrators, an attribute Coppola (2023) also found to be systemic in the cultures of musical educational institutions. This finding advances the idea that arrogance can be attributed to a collective, as well as to individuals. Roe (2023) has also argued that collective epistemic arrogance could be explained in sub-agential groups using adherence to social norms, and Tanesini (2023) has explained intellectual arrogance as a trait of individuals, groups and corporations using social identity theory. This is novel ground and a path for future research.

The empirical studies reveal that the relationship between arrogant behaviours and outcomes is affected by five moderator variables and three mediator variables (see Figures 2, and Figure S1 in supplementary materials). A feature of the moderator variables is that they originate from the targeted individual and determine the degree of the moderating effect on arrogant leader behaviours (Galinsky & Ku 2004). In other words, it is the targeted individual’s positive perceptions of self and the organisation (Borden, Levy and Silverman 2018; Kumar, Kang and Chand 2022) and their ability to deal with and recover from difficult events (De Clercq, Fatima and Jahanzeb 2021) that largely determine the outcomes of arrogant leader behaviours. For example, employee resilience levels influence the degree to which arrogant leader behaviour impacts employees’ perceptions of inconsistency in leader actions (De Clercq, Fatima and Jahanzeb 2021). Finally, Hareli, Weiner and Yee (2006) demonstrated that honesty can moderate perceptions of arrogance in the context of achievement, depending on whether the claimed reason for success involves ability (less honest) or effort (more honest).

Two studies demonstrated the mediating effect of employees’ self-perceptions on the outcomes of leader arrogance: one concerning the feedback environment (Borden, Levy and Silverman 2018 and the other concerning employees’ perceptions of inconsistent leader behaviour (De Clercq, Fatima and Jahanzeb 2021). A third study found humility mediated the relationship between personal and socialised need for power and workplace arrogance, with counterproductive work behaviours (Khan and Batool 2022). Importantly, the first two studies (Borden, Levy and Silverman 2018; De Clercq, Fatima and Jahanzeb 2021) demonstrate that the outcomes of arrogant behaviour may depend on the targeted person’s perceptions of the arrogant actor. These findings have important implications for dealing with leader arrogance because any interventions to mitigate negative outcomes must account for the experiences and perceptions of victims.

As has been mentioned, the outcomes of workplace and workplace leader arrogance are divided into the three themes of people, culture and business. The people theme shows that the consequences of workplace and workplace leader arrogance are often visible for victims (e.g., low morale and burnout) but opaque for actors (e.g., being less admired, liked and respected by others, judged as deserving failure or lower self-esteem). We divided the outcome theme of ‘culture’ into leadership, engagement, individual performance and work environment. Organisational culture theory points to the role of leaders in creating culture and how cultural phenomena ‘penetrate all of the aspects of daily life’ (Schein, 1991 p. 313; cf. Macdonald, Burke and Stewart 2018), including how people work together, how they perform and the work environment. This is reflected in subordinates’ responses to leader arrogance (e.g., engaging in bad-mouthing and behaviours that undermine leader–member relationships; De Clercq, Fatima and Jahanzeb 2021) and diminished work relationships (Toscano, Price and Scheepers 2018), feedback issues, decreased morale and increased burnout (Borden, Levy and Silverman 2018), lower job commitment and

satisfaction (Sim Poh Thong and Ling 2020) and the alienation of followers (Hogan and Hogan 2001). With respect to individual performance, Johnson et al. (2010) have found that poor task performance is an outcome of arrogant behaviour, whereas Zibarras, Port and Woods (2008) identified that arrogance is correlated with risk-taking and rebelliousness, although the latter are also viewed as aspects of innovation. In terms of the work environment, Khan and Batool (2022) have demonstrated that workplace arrogance predicts counterproductive work behaviours such as production deviance, withdrawal, sabotage, abuse and theft.

In the business category, business performance outcomes include lower levels of OCBs (Johnson et al. 2010; Kumar, Kang and Chand 2022), disrupted decision-making processes (Kleitman, Hui and Jiang 2019) and knowledge-hiding behaviours by employees (Kumar, Kang and Chand 2022). Customer outcomes were mostly observed in the consumer arrogance literature. Distinct from other contexts, customer-related outcomes of arrogant behaviour may be positive or negative. For example, early in the consumer's relationship with a business, workplace arrogance may have a positive effect by eliciting positive word of mouth about products. In contrast, arrogant messaging and behaviours by salespeople may be perceived as detrimental if the brand is unknown to the consumer (Ruvio et al. 2020; Senyuz and Hasford 2022; Wang, Chow and Luk 2013).

Coppola's (2023) paper concerning the effects of arrogant behaviour on musicians (only the third qualitative study of workplace arrogance) examined the lived experience of victims and revealed two key findings, trauma and loss, unreported by quantitative studies. The significance for future research is that a qualitative approach may be better positioned to understand the personal effects of arrogance in the workplace.

The contribution of our systematic review to theory is the development of a framework that connects the antecedents of workplace and workplace leader arrogance to its outcomes (see Figure 2). Both the conceptual and empirical sources show that whereas antecedents are mostly related to the arrogant actor, outcomes are mostly related to people, culture and organisational performance. Although the antecedents derived from conceptual papers focus on the self, those derived from empirical studies focus on broader personal characteristics. This difference may reflect the nature of the methods because, unlike conceptual studies, empirical studies require the use of measurable variables. Further, our framework adds to the literature beyond antecedents and outcomes by identifying the scope and severity of behaviours they trigger and effect.

Taken together, the antecedents from conceptual and empirical studies suggest that workplace and workplace leader arrogance stem from a negative self-view. This drives the individual to create an ideal self by enhancing what they do, believing they are superior to others, and enacting this through unacceptable behaviours. These behaviours may be moderated by how the victim perceives and responds to them and mediated by the feedback environment, and humility and behavioural consistency of the leader. The outcomes of workplace and workplace leader arrogance suggest that even though it may involve few people, it has the potential to escalate and negatively affect the culture and performance of an organisation and the people within it. Consequently, the proposed conceptual framework (see Figure 2) may help organisations anticipate potential behavioural issues and their effects, making it useful as a diagnostic tool to inform both recruitment and performance management systems.

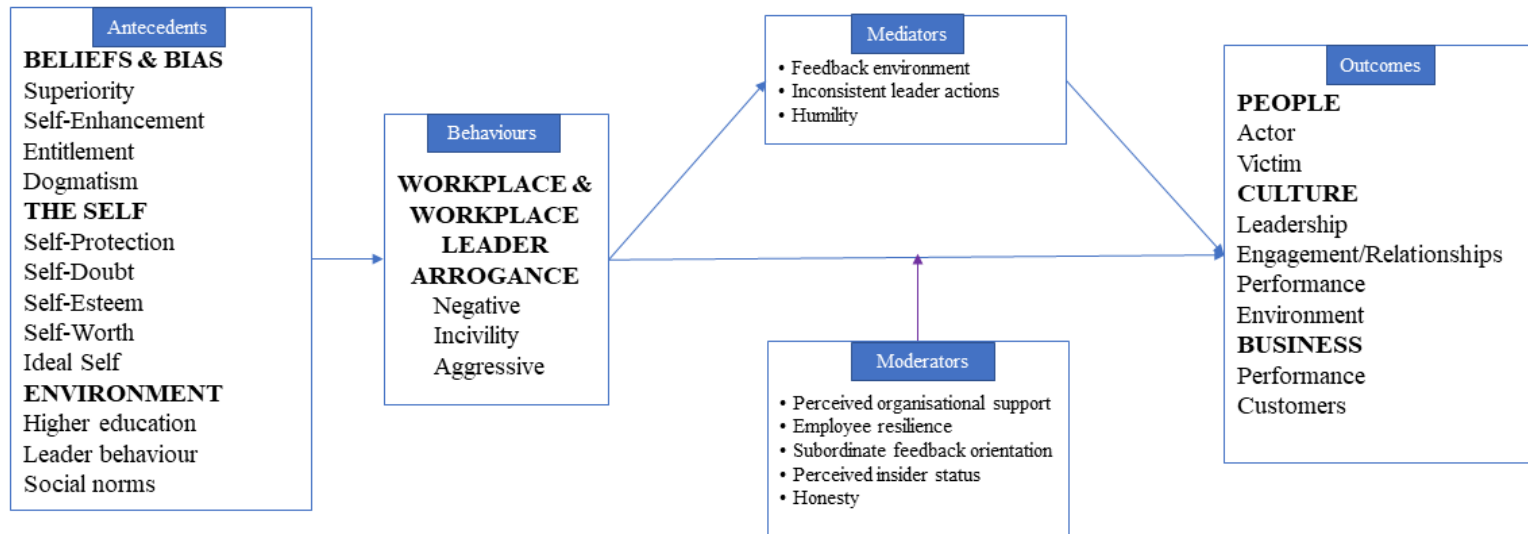


Figure 2. Proposed Conceptual Framework of Antecedents and Outcomes of Workplace and Workplace Leader Arrogance

Further to the earlier proposition that arrogance may have beneficial outcomes, we acknowledge there is little, if any, evidence of positive consequences of workplace and workplace leader arrogance except in the field of consumer arrogance regarding improved customer outcomes and relationships.

Implications for Future Research

Given its potential detrimental effects on organisations, workplace and workplace leader arrogance requires more research—beginning with our finding that workplace and workplace leader arrogance is preceded by an inner belief of superiority and an inflated sense of self. A key concern in many of the papers selected for this review is whether arrogance is, in fact, narcissism, hubris or pride in disguise. We have presented an argument as to why this may not be the case, but there is benefit in confirming this and establishing arrogance as its own construct by examining how problematic arrogance is managed in organisations.

The early analysis of arrogance factors by arrogance type (see Table 1) revealed that superiority is the most common factor or theme across most definitions and types of arrogance. Taken together with the analysis of antecedents, this suggests that ‘types’ of arrogance may be a result of simply contextualising the arrogant behaviour under study (Tanesini 2023). Supporting this idea is that two other themes—‘self-importance’ and ‘unjustified claims and entitlement’—shown to be components of the arrogant actor’s inner beliefs, derive from the presumption of superiority. If this proposition is correct, scholars and researchers who examine arrogance will all be operating under the same definition of arrogance—an inner belief of superiority manifested as unacceptable behaviours—but will apply it to different contexts.

If this assessment is accurate, it provides a new view of arrogance—that it is essentially the same behaviour, with any differences reflecting the context in which it occurs. In the current study, ‘workplace and workplace leader’ is the context for the arrogant behaviour. The definitions and antecedents of arrogance in the articles selected for this review point to this possibility. Further, the factors leading to workplace or workplace leader arrogance and the effects of arrogant leaders continue to be fertile research topics. A starting point may be to generate a deeper understanding of the relationship between leader arrogance, self-esteem and self-worth and identify when arrogance becomes problematic. Future research could investigate how arrogance may be attributed to groups or collectives and institutions, as Coppola (2023), Roe (2023) and Tanesini (2023) have suggested.

Banks et al. (2022) have raised the question as to what leadership might be like and how it might be studied in the new digital era, particularly with the recent increase in working from home facilitated by the COVID-19 pandemic. This has led to the advent and study of leadership in a virtual world, which, for the context of this paper, leads to the question as to how leader arrogance might manifest when leader–member interactions are virtual—that is, can leader arrogance occur when there is no direct person-to-person contact? This is a timely direction for future research, and one which could contribute to the advancement of leadership theory.

The potential positive effects of workplace and workplace leader arrogance is a fertile area for investigation given that current research on consumer arrogance (Brown 2012; Senyuz and Hasford 2022; Wang, Chow and Luk 2013) shows some initial encouraging effects from arrogant behaviour. Along with Peters (1990) and Sutton (2003), Schinckus (2017) and Zibarras, Port and Woods (2008) argue that arrogance may possess some potential positive social consequences. In addition, the Steve Jobs example mentioned earlier points to the idea of beneficial and functional, or constructive, arrogance—a potentially ground-breaking research direction that also affects the field of leadership behaviour. A consideration in this endeavour is Sutton’s (2003) proposition that beneficial arrogance arises from the actor ignoring the advice, or perspectives, of ‘naysayers’, and moving singularly, if necessary, to achieve their goal. Assuming there are potential benefits for an organisation from arrogant behaviour, future research should examine whether and how those benefits can be managed while ensuring no unacceptable detrimental effects. Thus, investigating positive outcomes from arrogance would provide further clarity to a poorly understood behaviour.

Implications for Practice

We found that arrogant behaviour occurring in a workplace not only leads to negative outcomes, but may also have a compounding effect—that is, a single arrogant behaviour may not be a contained event. To explain, if an outcome of leader arrogance was that employees bad-mouthed or gossiped about their leader (De Clercq, Fatima and Jahanzeb 2021), would that affect relationships, workplace culture or performance? Would a poor feedback environment created by an arrogant leader only lead to burnout or could it manifest into an intention to leave the organisation (Borden, Levy and Silverman 2018)? Would treating team members of a top management team arrogantly lead to an enhanced or diminished relationship with their CEO (Toscano, Price and Scheepers 2018)? What other effects would such changed relationships have on that business? To answer these questions, we propose that workplace arrogant behaviour does not stand in isolation, rather having flow-on effects to people, performance and workplace culture (Borden 2017; Borden, Levy and Silverman 2018; Macdonald, Burke and Stewart 2018; McGill et al. 2021; Silverman et al. 2012).

Our conceptual framework demonstrates the themes and linkages that can be used to predict potential outcomes if arrogant behaviour is left to its own devices. This framework may also provide a platform for organisational interventions that, among other solutions, include coaching the arrogant actor (Johnson et al. 2010) or informing the design of systems such as organisational recruitment and performance management (De Clercq, Fatima and Jahanzeb 2021). Indeed, it is a leader's work to address unacceptable behaviour (Macdonald, Burke and Stewart 2018), maintain a psychologically safe workplace (Edmondson 2003) and create a positive culture (Macdonald, Burke and Stewart 2018; Schein 1990) that builds organisational performance.

Conclusion

We have systematically reviewed the literature on workplace and workplace leader arrogance published over 23 years. The review revealed (i) a clear definition of arrogance as experienced in the workplace or enacted by workplace leaders; (ii) arrogance as a construct distinct from but related to narcissism, hubris and pride; and (iii) the antecedents and outcomes of arrogance. Significantly, this review has advanced the theory in two ways: (i) by clarifying the arrogance construct and (ii) by developing a predictive model that captures the antecedents, behaviours and outcomes of workplace and workplace leader arrogance. This model may be useful for future researchers and actual organisational situations.

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Declaration of Interest

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

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Note: References marked with an Asterix were included in the Systematic Literature Review

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8.4 Paper 2 Findings

Paper 2, which builds on, and extends the Paper 1 key findings, commences with the proposed conceptual framework of workplace and workplace leader arrogance that incorporates antecedents, behaviours, and outcomes. Firstly, the systematic literature review while emphasising individual and contextual factors as shown in Paper 2's Figure 2, examines the self-in-depth so as to better understand aspects of the actor that lead to arrogant behaviour.

Second, is the identification of an extensive number of LA behaviours and outcomes accomplished through the systematic literature review and together with antecedents from Paper 1, established the foundation for the study of LA in the thesis. Third, is the refinement of the systematic literature review as a disciplined and effective method in identifying key literature, and fourth is the development and refinement of arrogance as a discrete construct.

8.5 Summary

Papers 1 and 2 demonstrate the relationship between LA and arrogance antecedents, behaviours and outcomes. The thesis extends that field of research by identifying the relationship between LA and IWB thereby addressing current gaps in the literature. Future studies could examine the contextual factors of LA, and beyond the bounds of the current thesis, examine the relationship between LA, creativity and positive outcomes for organisations and their leaders, as it is in the proposition that creativity can arise from arrogance (see Thesis Section 1.1) that an opportunity for future research exists. The impact of LA on the next generation of leaders is that by better understanding leadership antecedents, behaviours and outcomes, leaders can be better informed of the effect of their behaviour that potentially impacts on work relationships and performance.

The findings from Paper 1 identifying the antecedents to leader arrogance as being individual and contextual, laid the foundation for Paper 2 that examined LA antecedents, behaviours and outcomes. This work evolved further in the thesis by investigating LA in relation to IWB, and in doing so found that LA leads to innovative behaviours when leaders have a compelling business vision, behave in accord with that vision and provide perceived benefit that outweighs their arrogant behaviour. Further findings that demonstrate how the thesis contributes to the ongoing evolution of the study into the LA field, include that nine

from 160 arrogant behaviours accounted for a significant proportion of the thesis data with dominance as the primary behaviour. This finding may contribute to isolating LA and arrogance as a concept, while in practice it may assist leaders to self-identify problematic behaviour. In addition, the thesis revealed that LA may be explained by the concept of intention to harm, as a continuum, with self-focussed behaviour and little intention to harm another at one end, and at the opposite (aggressive) end an increasing intention to harm others as targets. Building on this, the thesis explained how anger, located at the aggressive end, may be triggered by poor self-concept. These findings provide pathways for researchers to address future LA and arrogance research in order to continue furthering the understanding, of the LA concept.

Lastly, it is important to note that although research in the field of LA and arrogance has been relatively silent in recent times, the work is ongoing as the thesis will yield further publications and contributions to the field. In addition, the thesis is demonstrating impact on the current and upcoming leaders internationally because as a consequence of the second paper, the author was informed that its content and findings will be incorporated into the organisational studies curriculum of a United Kingdom university, thereby providing substance to the reinvigoration of arrogance and arrogant leader behaviour as a meaningful and valuable scholarly endeavour.

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Appendices

Table A1. Leader Arrogance Antecedents, Behaviours & Outcomes Extracted from SLR Articles and Data

Category	Antecedent (52)	Author
State – those conditions and contexts that may facilitate arrogant behaviour.		
Environment	1. Society’s need for leaders	Cowan et al 2019.
	2. Tenure system	Haan, Britt & Weinstein 2008.
	3. Higher education environment (institutional)	Haan, Britt & Weinstein 2008
	4. Institutional arrogant perception - culturally assumed knowledge of others and relationship with them	Ford 2009.
	5. Leader arrogance	Borden, Levy & Silverman 2018; Kumar et al 2022.
	6. Social norms	Roe 2023.
	7. Abrogation of boardroom responsibilities	Duarte 2006.
	8. Working environment*	Cooper 2011.
Individual - inflated opinion of abilities, traits, accomplishments compared to objective truth (Cowan et al, p. 427).		
Self-Confidence	9. Unfounded self-confidence	Padua et al 2010.
	10. High confidence	Kleitman, Hui & Jiang 2019.
	11. Overconfidence*	McCall 2009.
Self-Protection	12. A maladaptive strategy to protect the self	Padua et al 2010.
	13. Protect against threats to the ego	Coppola 2023.
	14. A persona to hide all of the above in adulthood.	Padua et al 2010.
	15. Inordinate valuing of the self (over-valuing)	Tanesini 2018.
	16. The need for the self to be uniquely good and therefore uniquely worthy	Levine 2005.
Self-Esteem	17. The personal value of illusion of control - low self-esteem at an implicit, unconscious level being overridden (masked) by a high level of self-esteem at an explicit level together (p. 453).	Cowan et al 2019.
	18. Defensive high self-esteem	Tanesini 2018.
	19. Desire to feel good about oneself	Coppola 2023.
Self-Doubt	20. Insecurities and low self-esteem	Coppola 2023; Cleary et al 2015.

	21. A constant fear and sense of insecurity	Padua et al 2010.
	22. Early negative experiences	Padua et al 2010.
	23. A sense of inferiority	Cleary et al 2015.
	24. Low self-esteem	Demirbilek, Keser, & Akpolat 2022; RE Johnson et al 2010.
	25. Perceived incompetence or unfavourable self-evaluations	RE Johnson et al 2010.
	26. Underlying insecurity	Hogan & Hogan 2001.
Distortion	27. Resistance to new information about one's limits (C3)	Cowan et al 2019.
	28. Keeping one's self-esteem artificially inflated or intact	Padua et al 2010.
	29. Inflated view of self	Cleary et al 2015.
	30. Misconceptions about the nature of self, life or others	Padua et al 2010.
	31. Distorted information and limitations in abilities (C1)	Cowan et al 2019.
	32. Overestimation about one's information and abilities (C2)	Cowan et al 2019.
	33. Excessive levels (hyper) of core self-evaluations (CSE) i.e. amalgam of self-esteem, self-efficacy, locus of control, and emotional stability (p. 436).	Cowan et al 2019.
	34. Pluralistic ignorance i.e., poor group decisions due to strong social group identity	Randolph-Seng & Norris 2011.
Self-Enhancement	35. Self (and/or) status enhancement	Tanesini 2023; Milyavsky et al 2017.
	36. Unreasonably elevated views of themselves (values self-excessively)	Kleitman, Hui & Jiang 2019.
	37. Claiming high ability	Hareli & Weiner 2000.
Dogmatism	38. A fixed view of the world	Kleitman, Hui & Jiang 2019.
Comparative - inflated opinion of abilities, traits, accomplishments compared to others (Cowan et al, p. 427).		
Superiority / Elitism	39. Sense of superiority	Cleary et al 2015.
	40. Belief or assumption of superiority (C5)	Cowan et al 2019.
	41. Inflated self-esteem reflects a socially undesirable attitude of superiority over others	Kleitman, Hui & Jiang 2019.
	42. To be better than others	Milyavsky et al 2017.
	43. Illusory superiority bias	Ruvio et al 2020.
	44. Elitism (elitism, deification, discipline, professional regard)	AS Berger 2002; Friedman & Friedman 2019;

	45. Actor attributing success to qualities desired, but not enjoyed, by others	Haan, Britt & Weinstein 2008.
	46. Rules don't apply to them*	Hareli & Weiner 2000.
Entitlement	47. Exaggerated expectations of what is due	Cook, Patel & O'Rourke 2019; Hiltzik 2014; Krugman 2001.
	48. Lays claim to things without warrant, knowing they should not	Hogan & Hogan 2001.
	49. Presumes entitlement or truth	Dillon 2007.
	50. A sense of entitlement	Dillon 2007.
Self-Importance	51. Failure to consider the perspective of others (C4)	Cleary et al 2015.
	52. Conceited beliefs about their own importance (moved from self-enhancement due to Barra (Bennett 2014)	Cowan et al 2019.
		Kleitman, Hui & Jiang 2019.

Category	Behaviours (160)	Author
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Negative - 'disrespectful and undermines or violates the value/dignity of an individual. It is behaviour that harms individuals and organisations' (Burns & Pope, 2007, p.300).

Acting Superior	1. Attitudes of self-superiority or self-importance	Cleary et al 2015.
	2. Continuous attribution (bragging)	Demirbilek, Keser, & Akpolat 2022.
	3. Convey being better than others	Hareli & Weiner 2000.
	4. Exaggerated sense of superiority	De Clercq, Fatima & Jahanzeb 2021.
	5. Expressing superiority in a social context	Ruvio et al 2020.
	6. Expressing that they have more knowledge	Demirbilek, Keser, & Akpolat 2022.
	7. Feeling (claiming) privilege in decision making	Demirbilek, Keser, & Akpolat 2022.
	8. Implication of superiority	Demirbilek, Keser, & Akpolat 2022.
	9. Prioritise personal goals	Demirbilek, Keser, & Akpolat 2022.
	10. Rank oneself in the top position	Demirbilek, Keser, & Akpolat 2022.
	11. Sees oneself privileged	Demirbilek, Keser, & Akpolat 2022.
	12. Sees oneself superior	Demirbilek, Keser, & Akpolat 2022.
	13. Thought they had all the answers	Burke 2006.
	14. When things go right it is because of their efforts but when they go wrong, it is someone else's fault (blame others) (p. 49).	Hogan & Hogan 2001.

	15. You think you're right and everyone else is wrong (p. 93).	Burke 2006.
	16. Display superiority and disparage rivals	Senyuz & Hanford 2022.
	17. High confidence, lack modesty, feel superior to others, and dogmatic (p. 502).	Kleitman, Hui & Jiang 2019.
	18. Believes that s/he knows better than everyone else in any given situation (p. 427).	RE Johnson et al 2010.
	19. Uphold / promote their superiority, distinctiveness or uniqueness	Roe 2023.
Adamant	20. Insist on one's ideas and decisions	Demirbilek, Keser, & Akpolat 2022.
Aloof	21. Aloof	Burke 2006.
Arrogate	22. Arrogate	Jenkins 2015.
	23. Arrogate entitlements	Tanesini 2018.
	24. Assume knowledge of another	Ford 2009.
	25. Lay claim to or appropriate without warrant and despite good reasons not to (p. 107).	Dillon 2007.
	26. Making inexplicit assumption, unarticulated taking for granted, implicit expectation, a matter of presumption, of taking something as fact before the fact without questions of reasons, evidence, warrant, or justification ever even arising (p. 108).	Dillon 2007.
	27. Assume a right they don't have	Roe 2023.
Avoids	28. Ignoring one's failures	Demirbilek, Keser, & Akpolat 2022.
	29. Refer errors and failures to other factors (external attribution)	Demirbilek, Keser, & Akpolat 2022.
	30. Resists new information about one's limits (C3) (p. 430).	Cowan et al 2019.
	31. Isn't willing to take credit for success as well as blame for failure (p. 427).	RE Johnson et al 2010.
	32. Doesn't take responsibility for own mistakes	RE Johnson et al 2010.
Confront	33. Loath to listen to opinions that challenge their way of thinking (p. 267).	Cleary et al 2015.
Criticises	34. Quick to attack the research of others	Friedman & Friedman 2019.
	35. Criticizes others	RE Johnson et al 2010.
Demanding	36. Demanding	Hogan & Hogan 2001.
	37. Makes unrealistic time demands on others	RE Johnson et al 2010.
Dogmatic	38. Dogmatic, unwilling to have honest discussions	Friedman & Friedman 2019.
	39. Lack modesty, feel superior to others, and dogmatic (p. 502).	Kleitman, Hui & Jiang 2019.

	40. Self-aggrandising behaviours/attitudes and the other capturing rigid, dogmatic thinking (p. 482).	Kleitman, Hui & Jiang 2019.
Knowledge-hiding	41. Reluctant to share negative information to maintain superior self-perception and social image	Ruvio et al 2020.
Not Listening	42. Closed to listening	Demirbilek, Keser, & Akpolat 2022. Burke 2006.
	43. Listen badly, would not accept advice/suggestions	
	44. Loath to listen to opinions that challenge their way of thinking	Cleary et al 2015.
	45. Unwilling to listen to others' opinions, ideas, or perspectives	RE Johnson et al 2010.
Initiate	46. Willing to take the initiative to get projects moving	Hogan & Hogan 2001.
Self-enhance	47. Attribute success to oneself	Demirbilek, Keser, & Akpolat 2022.
	48. Attribution to a title (emphasis)	Demirbilek, Keser, & Akpolat 2022.
	49. "Bigging" themselves up.	Tanesini 2018.
	50. Brag about superior abilities	Ruvio et al 2020.
	51. Brag over student achievements	Demirbilek, Keser, & Akpolat 2022.
	52. Compare oneself to colleagues	Demirbilek, Keser, & Akpolat 2022.
	53. Emphasise one's worthiness/indispensability	Demirbilek, Keser, & Akpolat 2022.
	54. Emphasise personal talents (personal attribution)	Demirbilek, Keser, & Akpolat 2022.
	55. Exaggerating one's achievements	Demirbilek, Keser, & Akpolat 2022.
	56. Expect to be treated as VIP, and thus experience common treatment as a slight.	Tanesini 2018.
	57. Draw attention by referring to hierarchical relationship	Demirbilek, Keser, & Akpolat 2022.
	58. Instrumentalising one's colleagues	Demirbilek, Keser, & Akpolat 2022.
	59. Instrumentalizing one's institution	Demirbilek, Keser, & Akpolat 2022.
	60. Make others feel that one (self) is valuable	Demirbilek, Keser, & Akpolat 2022.
	61. Overestimate their capabilities	Cleary et al 2015.
	62. Over-estimated their control and under-estimated obstacles	Burke 2006.
	63. Overly optimistic expectations, self-enhancing attributions and unfittingly favorable self-evaluations (p. 502).	Kleitman, Hui & Jiang 2019.
	64. Showcase their inflated sense of self, while at the same time dismissing the achievements of others (p.267).	Cleary et al 2015.

	65. Self-aggrandising behaviours/attitudes and the other capturing rigid, dogmatic thinking (p. 482).	Kleitman, Hui & Jiang 2019.
	66. One-upmanship	Coppola 2023.
	67. Listing accolades	Coppola 2023.
Self-important	68. Sees him/herself as being too important for some tasks	RE Johnson et al 2010.
	69. Doesn't put organizational objectives before his/her personal agenda	RE Johnson et al 2010.
	70. Minds doing menial tasks	RE Johnson et al 2010.
	71. Doesn't realize that it does not always have to be 'his/her way or the highway'	RE Johnson et al 2010.
	72. Takes him/herself too seriously	RE Johnson et al 2010.
Self-regard	73. Lacking self-awareness	Coppola 2023.
	74. Selfishness	Coppola 2023.
	75. Territoriality	Coppola 2023.

Incivility - 'rude or disrespectful/discourteous behaviour with ambiguous intent which may or may not be defined as bullying by those who experience / witness it' (Burns & Pope, 2007, p.300)..

Blame	76. When things go right it is because of their efforts but when they go wrong, it is someone else's fault (blame others) (p. 49).	Hogan & Hogan 2001.
Condescend	77. Addressing women condescendingly	AS Berger 2002.
	78. Believes that he or she is surrounded by people who are too dim or jealous to recognize professional superiority (p. 267).	Cleary et al 2015.
	79. Condescend	De Clercq, Fatima & Jahanzeb 2021.
Deceive	80. Actions don't match words	De Clercq, Fatima & Jahanzeb 2021.
	81. Get away with "papering the cracks"	Duarte 2006.
	82. Say the right words, show appropriate compliance, will watch passively as leader fails when in fact they could help (p. 81).	Padua et al 2010.
	83. Doesn't promise to address subordinates' complaints with every intention of working to resolve them (p. 427).	RE Johnson et al 2010.
	84. Exhibits different behaviors with subordinates than with supervisors (p. 427).	RE Johnson et al 2010.
	85. Take more credit than is warranted or fair (p. 49).	Hogan & Hogan 2001.
	86. Betray*	Johnson 2008.
Denigrate	87. Denigration of others (C6)	Cowan et al 2019.

Diminish	88. Derogates	Senyuz & Hasford 2022.
	89. Diminish	Tanesini 2018.
	90. Discourage collaboration	Friedman & Friedman 2019.
	91. Emphasize other's shortcomings and faults	Friedman & Friedman 2019.
	92. Emphasizing inadequacies of others	Demirbilek, Keser, & Akpolat 2022.
	93. Diminish or humiliate	Tanesini 2018.
	94. Undermine*	Forbes & Watson 2010.
Disdain	95. Treats them contemptuously, disdainfully, peremptorily, or without consideration, making it clear that he views them as less important, less worthy than his very important, very great self (p. 103).	Dillon 2007.
Dismiss	96. Dismissive behaviour	Milyavsky et al 2017.
	97. Dismissiveness of others	Cleary et al 2015.
	98. Showcase their inflated sense of self, while at the same time dismissing the achievements of others (p.267)	Cleary et al 2015.
Disparage	99. Abuse or critical of subordinates	AS Berger 2002.
	100. Disparage	Friedman & Friedman 2019.
	101. Display superiority and disparage rivals	Senyuz & Hasford 2022.
	102. Insulting	Demirbilek, Keser, & Akpolat 2022.
Disrespect	103. Lack of proper respect	AS Berger 2002.
	104. Not respecting colleagues and their opinions (p.84).	Demirbilek, Keser, & Akpolat 2022.
Distort	105. Avoiding being blamed (p.84).	Demirbilek, Keser, & Akpolat 2022.
	106. Seeing the blame in others (p.84).	Demirbilek, Keser, & Akpolat 2022.
	107. Not admitting one's mistakes and inadequacies (p.87).	Demirbilek, Keser, & Akpolat 2022.
	108. Refuse to acknowledge failure, errors or mistakes	Hogan & Hogan 2001.
	109. Self-deceived and pompous	Hogan & Hogan 2001.
	110. Unaware of deficiencies and lack expertise needed to perform well, resistant to any evidence that contradicts their impression of the world and their faulty perceptions of their competence (p. 502).	Kleitman, Hui & Jiang 2019.
	111. Very sensitive to threats; alert to respond to them and tend to misclassify some unthreatening situations as threats (p. 219).	Tanesini 2018.

	112. Over sensitive to the mistakes of others	Demirbilek, Keser, & Akpolat 2022.
	113. Ignore their (own) faults and mistakes	Demirbilek, Keser, & Akpolat 2022.
Inconsiderate	114. Isn't considerate of others' workloads	RE Johnson et al 2010.
	115. Show no empathy	Roe 2023.
Ignore	116. Failure to consider the perspective of others (C4) (p. 430).	Cowan et al 2019.
	117. Failure to pause, listen, and share a friendly word or two (p.145).	AS Berger 2002.
	118. Ignoring (disregarding)	Demirbilek, Keser, & Akpolat 2022.
	119. Indirect communication	Demirbilek, Keser, & Akpolat 2022.
	120. Kept on lecturing, thus enraging others	Eckhaus & Sheaffer 2018.
	121. Not addressing oneself to somebody	Demirbilek, Keser, & Akpolat 2022.
	122. Wilfully ignore the less privileged	Roe 2023.
	123. Makes decisions that impact others without listening to their input (p. 427).	RE Johnson et al 2010.
	124. Does not find it necessary to explain his/her decisions to others (p. 427).	RE Johnson et al 2010.
	125. Doesn't give others credit for their ideas	RE Johnson et al 2010.
Obdurate	126. Difficult to influence	Burke 2006.
Overbearing-manner	127. Overbearing	Hogan & Hogan 2001.
Shun	128. Closed to criticism	Demirbilek, Keser, & Akpolat 2022
	129. Ignore us, render us invisible, stereotype us, leave us completely alone, interpret us as crazy - all of this while we are in their midst (p. 51).	Ford 2009.
	130. Unwillingness to accept responsibility for wrongdoing	Duarte 2006.
	131. Doesn't welcome constructive feedback	RE Johnson et al 2010.

Aggressive - behaviour with the clear intention of harming the target. This is seen as being less common than negative behaviour in general or incivility in particular, but it is always classed as bullying' (Burns & Pope, 2007, p.300).

Belittle	132. 'Bash' and belittle	Friedman & Friedman 2019.
	133. Belittle their rivals, mock their presence	Ma & Karri 2005.
	134. Belittling	Demirbilek, Keser, & Akpolat 2022.
	135. Belittles his/her employees publicly (p. 427).	RE Johnson et al 2010.
	136. Shoots down other people's ideas in public (p. 427).	RE Johnson et al 2010.

Dominate	137. Dominate using their position & title	Demirbilek, Keser, & Akpolat 2022.
	138. Being in and/or exercising control*	Aksinaviciute 2014; Kantor & Streitfeld 2015; Krugman 2001; Lopatto 2021.
	139. Dominance	Roe 2023.
	140. Manipulation; patronising behaviour; sexism	Coppola 2023.
	141. Asserts authority in situations when s/he does not have the required information (p. 427).	RE Johnson et al 2010.
	142. Bullying*	Dundes, Buitelaar & Streiff 2019; Love 2011; Brown & Peterson 2022; Hartung 2014; Hoffman 2015; Hamburger 2002; Jennings 2003; Kawamoto & Yamamoto 2000; Marks 2013; Spott 2018;
	143. Coerce*	Sims & Brinkman 2003; Steinwart & Ziegler 2014; Stolberg 2015; Ward 2002.
Hostile	144. Uses non-verbal behaviors like glaring or staring to make people uncomfortable (p. 427).	RE Johnson et al 2010.
	145. Criticizes other employees in a threatening manner (p. 427).	RE Johnson et al 2010.
	146. Can't get others to pay attention without getting emotionally 'heated up' (p. 427).	RE Johnson et al 2010.
	147. Gets angry when his/her ideas are criticized (p. 427).	RE Johnson et al 2010.
	148. Discredits others' ideas during meetings and often makes those individuals look bad (p. 427).	RE Johnson et al 2010.
	149. Interpret any challenge as an affront (p. 214).	Tanesini 2018.
	150. Aggression – cuts people off; yells; emotional/social hostility	Coppola 2023.
Humiliate	151. Diminish or humiliate	Tanesini 2018.
	152. Humiliating and abasing others	Tanesini 2018.
Offend	153. Offend	Wang 2013
	154. Deny other's perspectives	Roe 2023.
	155. Obnoxious* – (“most definitely a jerk at times) a stupid, irritating, or deliberately obnoxious person (OED)	Groth 2012; Spott 2018.
Oppress	156. Oppress subordinates	Padua et al 2010.

	157. Sexism	Coppola 2023.
	158. Patronisation	Coppola 2023.
Punish	159. Attempt to put others in a difficult position	Demirbilek, Keser, & Akpolat 2022.
Sadistic behaviour	160. Extremely nasty, abrasive individuals	Friedman & Friedman 2019.
Category	Outcome (63)	Author
Psychosocial – impact experienced at personal level		
Adverse Actor Impact	1. Reduced admiration for the actor	RE Johnson et al 2010.
	2. Poor perceptions of the actor in terms of likeability, respect & being deserving of failure	RE Johnson et al 2010.
	3. Cynical views held about quality of leader’s decision-making	De Clercq, Fatima & Jahanzeb 2021.
	4. Lowers actor’s self-esteem	RE Johnson et al 2010.
	5. Bad mouth (gossip about) leaders	De Clercq, Fatima & Jahanzeb 2021.
	6. Leader’s downfall / failure	Burke 2006 Cleary et al 2015; Ma & Karri 2005.
	7. Inability to tell right from wrong (actor)	Dillon 2007.
	8. Actions taken against the individual by the organisation	Godkin & Allcorn 2011.
	9. Reduced well-being for actor	Hareli & Weiner 2000; RE Johnson et al 2010.
	10. Removal from role*	Allen 2022; Bates 2015; Brown & Peterson 2022; Cusack 2001; Johnson 2008; Lewis 2013; Williams 2022.
	11. Lost reputation*	Bates 2015.
	12. Criminal prosecution*	Cusack 2001; Boostrom 2011; Heschl 2015. Trevino & Brown; Williams 2022;
Adverse Others Impact	13. Been denigrated/disrespected	Cowan 2019; Dillon 2007.
	14. Intention to leave	Borden, Levy & Silverman 2018.
	15. Impact on students can be lack of critical thinking	Friedman & Friedman 2019.
	16. Reduced well-being for employees	Hareli & Weiner 2000; RE Johnson et al 2010.

	17. Fear*	Lopatto 2021.
	18. Trauma	Coppola 2023.
	19. Feelings of worthlessness and powerlessness	Coppola 2023.
	20. Self-blame	Coppola 2023.
	21. Lost opportunities	Coppola 2023.
	22. Acute actual or potential loss*	Aley 2011; Crossan, Seijts & Furlong 2024; Malone 2021; Spector 2003; Williams 2022.
Beneficial 'Actor' impact	23. Current & past behaviour causes them to consider their legacy*	Hofman 2015.
	24. Achieving goals through their demeanour	Gray 2016; Marks 2013.
	25. Learning humility*	Cooper 2011.
Beneficial 'Others Impact	26. Inspires others to do great work*	Delaney & Spoelstra 2022; Gray 2016; McCracken 2011.

Material - costs for employees, organizations, society at large

Eroded relationships	27. Difficulties in leader-employee relationships through undermining behaviour	De Clercq, Fatima & Jahanzeb 2021.
	28. Diminished work relationships	Toscano, Price & Scheepers 2018.
	29. Undermined work relationships	Dillon 2007.
	30. Alienation of followers	Hogan & Hogan 2001.
Compromised engagement	31. Feedback environment rated less favorably (p.359).	Borden, Levy & Silverman 2018.
	32. Report engaging in less feedback seeking (p.359).	Borden, Levy & Silverman 2018.
	33. Experience lower levels of morale and higher levels of burnout than with non-arrogant leaders (p.359).	Borden, Levy & Silverman 2018.
	34. Lower engagement, cohesiveness, collaboration, consensual decision-making	Toscano, Price & Scheepers 2018.
	35. Lower job commitment and satisfaction	Sim 2020.
	36. Low levels of OCB	RE Johnson et al 2010; Kumar et al 2022;
Toxic Work Environment	37. Counter-productive work behaviours	Zohaib Khan & Batool 2022.
	38. Bullying and toxic workplaces	Cleary et al 2015.
	39. Oppression of others	Ford 200
	40. Humiliation of colleagues	Cleary et al 2015.

Poor Individual Performance	41. Poor task performance	RE Johnson et al 2010.
	42. Poor decision-making	Randolph-Seng & Norris 2011.
Poor Business Performance	43. Reduced Productivity	Padua et al 2010.
	44. Commercial loss*	Cooper 2011; Johnson 2008; Waters 2007.
	45. Impeded service delivery	Cleary et al 2015.
	46. Increased staff turnover	Cleary et al 2015.
	47. Undermined cohesiveness of workplace	Dillon 2007.
	48. Creating ineffective teams	Cleary et al 2015.
	49. Disrupted decision-making processes	Kleitman, Hui & Jiang 2019.
	50. Knowledge hiding behaviour by employees	Kumar et al 2022.
Business Damage	51. Corruption and deceit	Levine 2005.
	52. Damage to reputation	Friedman & Friedman 2019.
	53. Business destruction through loss of competitive advantage	Ma & Karri 2005.
	54. Corporate and business fraud & failure	Eckhaus & Sheaffer 2018.
	55. Corporate failure	Spector 2003.
	56. Financial failure/loss*	Grayson 2018.
Detriment to brand	57. Arrogant messages are detrimental to consumer attitudes unless they are current users of a brand (p.114).	Senyuz & Hasford 2022.
	58. Essentially when salespeople behave arrogantly the customer explicitly reacts negatively if new to the brand	Wang, Chow & Luk 2013.
	59. Boycotting the brand*	Murdock 2020.
	60. Deficient business decisions*	Allen 2022; Boudreau 2013; Brown & Peterson 2022; Cooper 2011; Evans 2013; Newcomer & Stone 2018; PR News 2011; Trevine & Brown 2004; Williams 2022.
Potential Benefits	61. Triggering people's sense of consumer arrogance will intensify their word-of-mouth intentions & communication (p.1117).	Ruvio et al 2020.
	62. Arrogance considered a positive trait during initial stages of a relationship but ineffective in the long-term	Senyuz & Hasford 2022.

63. Innovation characteristics including risk-taking
and rebelliousness

Zibarras , Port &
Woods 2008.

Table A2. IWB Antecedents, Behaviours & Outcomes Extracted from SLR Articles and Data

Categories	Antecedent (56)	Authors
Organisation		
HR Practices & Systems	1. Ability-enhancing HR practices - a model for understanding the relationship between human resource management (HRM) and success	Saleem, et al 2023.
	2. Green hard and soft talent management – ‘a strategy by which organizational leaders attempt to ensure the right talent is systematically attracted, nurtured and retained’ (p. 697).	Odugbesan et al 2023
	3. Motivation-enhancing HR practices - rewards, performance-based compensation, work-life balance, and giving feedback aimed at maximising willingness of workers to invest in production of innovations.	Saleem et al 2023.
	4. Opportunity-enhancing HR practices - allows staff to demonstrate advanced knowledge and practical actions.	Saleem et al 2023.
	5. Rewards – can be material, social, career-related or task characteristics.	Desrumaux et al 2022.
Work Organisation	6. High-performance work practices (HPWPs) - HR practices intended ‘to enhance workforce performance’ (p. 793).	Farrukh et al 2022.
	7. Job autonomy - extent to which employees perform tasks independently and directly participate in decision-making (p. 732).	Fadi Youssef, Garanti & Emeagwali 2021.
	8. Job crafting - employee-initiated changes in the task, relation and cognitive boundaries of work and job demands and resources (Khan et al, p. 1041).	Khan et al 2022; Al Wali 2023.
	9. Minimal autonomy - fails to enable others to act.	Miklaszewicz 2023
	10. Person-job Fit - compatibility between people and the work or tasks.	Abualoush et al 2022.
	11. Work flow activities - three-dimensional conceptualization of work-related flow: pleasure, intrinsic motivation, and absorption (p. 4).	Coun et al 2021.
Organisation Practices	12. Artificial intelligence - knowledge and ability to implement is fundamental to the growth of a firm in today’s rapidly transforming digitalized world (p. 698).	Odugbesan et al 2023.
	13. Corporate Social Responsibility - business’s actions and policies that consider stakeholders along with the economic, societal, and ecological operations.	Gao et al 2021; N Ahmad et al 2021.

	14. Economic sustainable performance - concerned with organizational practices aimed at generating economic value through pursuit of financial and non-financial objectives (p. 6).	Faulks et al 2021.
	15. Organizational Readiness to Learn and Change - associated with leadership, sustainable development, digital capabilities, and innovation through dealing with organizational systems and variables (p. 5).	Faulks et al 2021.
Productive Climate & Culture	16. Creative innovation environment - an environment deliberately constructed to foster unplanned encounters, collaboration and innovation.	Isaacson 2012; Kantor 2015; Mint 2023.
	17. Psychological safety –belief that one will not be punished or humiliated for speaking up with ideas, questions, concerns, or mistakes, and the team is safe for interpersonal risk taking.	Mansoor et al 2021; Edmondson 2003.
Unproductive Climate & Culture	18. Dysfunctional workplace culture - arrogance and aggression; do nothing (in response to crises); cutthroat and secretive; poisonous describes the organisational dysfunction.	Brown & Peterson, 2022; Colvin 2014; Davies & Chun 2009; Dishman 2015; Flores 2021; Fortune Editors 2016; Gershon & Alhassan 2017; Grover 2007; Lieberman 2005; Malone 2021; Myatt 2015; Santora 2020; Sims & Brinkman 2003; Smith 2013; Spector 2003.
	19. Conforming stagnating environment - lacking vision, or innovation; afraid to make mistakes; set up to fail; conformist culture.	Hartung 2014; Dvorak 2013; Smith 2013; Stolberg 2016; Wohl 2016.
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Leadership Style		
Contextual Leadership	20. Ambidextrous leadership - ability to foster both explorative and exploitative behaviors in followers by separate and combined effects of opening and closing leader behaviors. Uses transformational leadership when facing a dynamic environment and transactional leadership when facing a stable environment (Akinci et al 2022, p. 1).	Akinci et al 2022; Kousina & Voudouris 2023.
Control Leadership	21. Autocratic/authoritarian leadership – exercising absolute control with little input from others.	Brown & Peterson, 2022; Flores 2021; Hechl 2015; Johnson 2008; Kawamoto & Yamamoto 2000; Malone 2021; Sims

		& Brinkman 2003; Weinberger & Leskin 2020; Yeung 2023.
	22. Despotic Leadership - stops creativity and demotivates employees resulting in less innovative work behavior; cause numerous problems for employees; disturbs; well-being of workforce and exhausts employees' emotions (p. 2).	Mehmood et al 2023.
	23. Directive leadership - centralizes decision making, implying that the formal leader issues instructions and commands to employees and assigns collective goals (p. 2).	Coun et al 2021.
	24. Transactional Leadership - goal oriented and emphasizes on how to set objectives, and its further monitoring and regulating outputs.	Yeung 2023.
Collaborative Leadership	25. Empowering leadership - instils trust, strengthen bond and organizational commitment, and increases followers' authority and autonomy and their perceived locus of control and accountability for organizational sustainability (Faulks 2021 p. 3).	Coun et al 2021; Faulks et al 2021.
	26. Inclusive leadership - inclusive leaders ensure that employees participate in decision-making since they enhance the ability of employees to create new and novel ideas.	AlMulhim & Mohammed 2023; Bataineh et al 2022; Mansoor et al 2021.
	27. Paradoxical leadership - aims at balancing the contradictory and conflicting demands within an organization, and is characterized as "both/and" leading style and cognitive basis rather than "either/or" (p. 2853).	Kundi, Aboramadan & Abualigah 2023.
	28. Servant leadership - a style of leadership in which corporate leaders serve and help others to achieve different development opportunities, prepare subordinates for their best, and, ultimately, support their organization in achieving organizational success (Ahmad et al 2021, p. 5).	Dayanti & Yulianti 2023; Fadi Youssef, Garanti & Emeagwali 2021; Khan et al 2021; Khan et al 2022; N Ahmad et al 2021; Shailja, Kumari & Singla 2023; Vuong 2023.
Inspirational Leadership	29. Transformational leadership - idealized influence (e.g., charismatic role modelling), inspirational motivation (e.g., articulating an evocative organizational vision), intellectual stimulation (e.g., promoting creativity and innovation) and individualized consideration (e.g., coaching & mentoring) (Tan, Van Dun & Wilderom 2021, p. 698).	Bracht et al 2023; Garg, Attree & Kumar 2023; Khan, Khan & Ahmed 2021; Khaola & Musiiwa 2021; Lin 2023; Mayastinasari & Suseno 2023; Mubarak et al 2021;

		Odugbesan et al 2023; Rafique et al 2022; Tan, Van Dun & Wilderom 2021.
	30. Charismatic Leadership- marked by a captivatingly optimistic vision of the future, an exceptionally high confidence level, and adept communication skills (p. 1).	Malone 2021.
	31. Entrepreneurial Leadership - a style that stimulates, strengthens and encourages employees to innovate, and recognise opportunities in highly complex, turbulent, uncertain and competitive business environments (Abualoush et al 2022, p. 4).	Abualoush et al 2022; Hussain et al 2023.
	32. Digital leadership - a style of leadership that is a combination of transformation leadership style and the use of digital technology (p. 1527).	Erhan, Uzunbacak & Aydin 2022.
Relational Leadership	33. Leader member exchange - a relationship-based approach to leadership that focuses on a dyadic (two way) relationship between the followers and leaders.	Bracht et al 2023; Dar, Kundi & Soomro 2023; Desrumaux et al 2022; Mustafa et al 2023; Zuberi & Khattak 2021.
	34. Identity leadership - a core assumption of the identity leadership model is that leadership does not occur in a social vacuum but, rather, leadership happens within a particular group and within a specific social context (p.352).	Bracht et al 2023.
	35. Relational leadership - a process-based leadership that emphasizes social dynamism between leaders and subordinates to increase employee performance, trust, and satisfaction (p. 3).	Kim 2022.
Values Leadership	36. Humble Leadership - promote open mindedness in accepting novel ideas; admit own shortcomings, have the enthusiasm to learn from others and create an all-encompassing organisational ambiance (p. 711	Al Wali, Muthuveloo & Teoh 2022.
	37. Authentic leadership - A form of leadership that values the leader and builds the legitimacy of the leader through honest relationships with the followers (Gao et al 2021, p. 5).	Bai et al 2022; Bracht et al 2023; Brunetto, Kominis & Ashton-Sayers 2023; Gao et al 2021.
	38. Ethical Leadership - an approach to leading people in way that promote and endows innovation and opportunity recognition for achieving entrepreneurial goals of organisations.	Arijanto, Suroso & Indrayanto 2022; Asif et al 2023; Musenze & Mayende 2023;

Ineffective Leadership	39. Deficient leadership – unable to produce desired behaviours and outcomes; lack of empathy*	Iqbal et al 2020; Jia et al 2022. Dundes, Buitelaar & Streiff 2019; Epstein-Reeves 2010; Johnson 2008; Kanter 2010; Wohl 2016.
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Leader Characteristics

Leader Attributes - a quality or property of a person (APA)	40. Proactive personality - the extent to which individuals take the initiative to improve their current circumstances (Zuberi 2021 p. 666); comparatively established propensity to shape changes that occur in environment variation - looks at the situational scenario as an opportunity that leads them to perform in a complex situation (Bai et al 2022 p. 2); stable tendency to affect environmental change (Mubarak et al 2021 p. 990). Personal Initiative - self-starting, anticipatory, long-term oriented, and persistent work behaviors (p. 3465-3466).	Bai et al 2022; Mubarak et al 2021; Zuberi & Khattak 2021. Mustafa, Hughes & Ramos 2023.
	41. Positive Core Values – internalised moral perspective	Gao et al 2021; Walsh 2021.
	42. Risk tolerance - a person must fail in order to innovate successfully.	McAndrew 2021; Miklaszewicz 2023.
Productive Leader Behaviour – a response to external or internal stimuli	43. Employee engagement - A positive work-related cognitive process defined by vitality, devotion, and assimilation; supervisors... devote more time to employees by providing information and rewards such as empowerment and appreciation, leading to positive perceptions of work and a greater level of employee engagement (Mustafa et al, p. 585).	Contreras, Soria-Barreto & Zuniga-Jara 2022; Jia et al 2022; Mulligan et al 2021; Mustafa et al 2023; Mutmainnah et al 2022; Kundi, Aboramadan & Abualigah 2023.
	44. Knowledge sharing - an exchange of information and skills in the organization	Rafique et al 2022; Haider et al 2023.
	45. Managerial support - the degree to which employees feel supported by their managers	Contreras, Soria-Barreto & Zuniga-Jara 2022; Kennedy 2016; Wertlauffer 2000.
	46. Opening leader behaviour - supports followers to break up routines and challenge the status quo; come up with new ideas at work (p. 4).	Akinci et al 2022.
	47. Psychological empowerment - employees' higher intrinsic motivation to perform a task indicated through four cognitive dimensions i.e.	Garg, Attree & Kumar 2023; Khan, Khan & Ahmed 2021.

	competence, self-determination, meaning and impact (Garg, Attree & Kumar 2023, p. 132).	
	48. Supervisor-subordinate guanxi - a trait that establishes appropriate behaviors and where each party cares for the other (p. 2).	ud din Khan et al 2023.
	49. Task significance and feedback - extent to which an identifiable piece of work affects, or is important to, others within or outside the organization; feedback is the information about responses to a service or a product, a person's performance of a job that is used as a basis for improvement (p. 669).	Zuberi & Khattak 2021.
	50. Work dignity - comprises elements like respectful participation, competency and contribution, equality, intrinsic value and overall dignity attitudes	AlMulhim & Mohammed 2023.
Unproductive Leader Behaviour	51. Idea inhibition – practices designed to constrain new idea generation*	Smith 2013.
	52. Knowledge-hiding - choosing to withhold information and intentionally holding back requests for knowledge from colleagues (p. 1051).	Mubarak, Khan & Osmadi 2022.
	53. Micro-managing - had a hand in most every detail; involved in the minutest details; continuously checks employee's work.	Downes, Russ & Ryan 2007; Fortune Editors 2016; Hamilton 2017; Jackson 2005; Miklaszewicz 2023; Smith 2013; Soliere, Felo & Hodowanitz 2008; Stolberg 2016; Ward 2003.
	54. 'Risk averse'- avoid novelty, eliminate variety, dismiss ideas that challenge the status quo, and focus on elaborate plans and execution infrastructures* (p. 2).	MacCormack et al 2013.
	55. Job stress - experience of a person required to deviate from normal or self-desired functioning at the workplace due to unexpected constraints (p. 2).	Rafique et al 2022
Leader incivility	56. Workplace incivility - low-intensity deviant behavior with ambiguous intent to harm the target; social mistreatment in organizations depicting in the uncivil behavior of supervisors with subordinates or behavior of coworkers with one another (p. 3).	Mehmood et al 2023

Category	Behaviour (40)	Author
Generation		
Senses opportunities for change or improvement	1. Wonders how things can be improved (p.29).	de Jong & den Hartog 2010.
	2. Looks for opportunities to improve an existing process, technology, product, service or work relationship (Kleysen & Street 2001, p. 293); Identifying problems in current processes (Tuominen & Toivonen 2011 p. 411).	Kleysen & Street 2001; Tuominen & Toivonen 2011.
	3. Searches out new technologies, processes, techniques, and/or product ideas (Janssen 2000, p. 292) / Searches out new working methods, techniques or instruments (de Jong & den Hartog 2010, p. 29)	de Jong & den Hartog 2010; Janssen 2000.
	4. Pays attention to issues that are not part of his daily work (de Jong & den Hartog 2010, p. 29) /pays attention to non-routine issues in your work, department, organization or the market place (Kleysen & Street 2001, p. 293)	de Jong & den Hartog 2010; Kleysen & Street 2001 .
	5. Keeping up with structures and processes in the organization (p. 1257).	Messman & Mulder 2020.
	6. Keeping up with the latest developments in the organization (p. 1257).	Messman & Mulder 2020.
Finds potential opportunities	7. Identifying opportunities in the marketplace, how market opportunities could be linked to firm's skills and the unfulfilled needs of a current customer (Tuominen & Toivonen 2011, p. 411) / Recognizes opportunities to make a positive difference in your work, department, organization, or with customers (Kleysen & Street 2001, p. 293).	Kleysen & Street 2001; Tuominen & Toivonen 2011.
Creates idea/solutions in response to perceived opportunities or problems	8. Generates ideas or solutions to address problems (Kleysen & Street 2001, p. 293) / Generates original solutions for problems and finds new approaches to execute tasks (de Jong & den Hartog 2010, p. 29) / Creating new ideas for difficult issues (Janssen 2000, p. 292) / Inventing ways to improve processes (Tuominen & Toivonen 2011, p. 411) / Exchanging ideas for concrete changes at work with close colleagues and discussing one's own ideas for changes with close colleagues (Messman & Mulder 2020, p. 1257).	De Jong 2010; Janssen 2000; Kleysen & Street 2001; Messman & Mulder 2020.
Builds on existing ideas and data	9. Applying something new in a customer project, which leads to new ideas (p. 411).	Tuominen & Toivonen 2011.

	10. Evaluating the initial idea, reflecting on the idea with colleagues, management's evaluation of the business potential of the idea (p. 411).	Tuominen & Toivonen 2011.
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Promotion		
Takes the risk to support new ideas	11. Takes the risk to support new ideas (p. 293).	Kleysen & Street 2001.
Mobilizes support for innovative ideas	12. Mobilizes support for innovative ideas (Janssen 2000, p. 292) / Attempts to convince people to support an innovative idea; making important organizational members enthusiastic for innovative ideas (de Jong & den Hartog 2010, p. 29) / Tries to persuade others of the importance of a new idea or solution; presenting information and ideas to colleagues, selling the idea for management; pushes idea forward so that they have a chance to become implemented (Kleysen & Street 2001, p. 293) / Recruiting colleagues for actively supporting the realization of an idea (Messman & Mulder 2020, p. 1257).	de Jong & den Hartog 2010; Janssen 2000; Kleysen & Street 2001; Messman & Mulder 2020; Tuominen & Toivonen 2011.
Investigates and secures funds needed to implement new ideas.	13. Investigates and secures funds needed to implement new ideas (p. 14).	Choi, Kang & Choi 2021.
Acquires approval for innovative ideas	14. Acquires approval for innovative ideas (idea promotion) (p. 292).	Janssen 2000.
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Implementation		
Develops and prepares an idea or solution for implementation	15. Defines problems more broadly in order to gain greater insight into them (p.293).	Kleysen & Street 2001.
	16. Specifying the original idea by ideating solutions to smaller problems related to the innovation (p.293).	Tuominen & Toivonen 2011.
	17. Using a 'raw' idea to solve a customer problem/within the organisation (p.293).	Tuominen & Toivonen 2011.
	18. Looking for possible solutions (e.g., software), collecting customer feedback based on customer trials, searching for skilful people (p.293).	Tuominen & Toivonen 2011.
	19. Mobilising resources to development, presenting the idea in seminars, pushing the process forward (p.293).	Tuominen & Toivonen 2011.
	20. Puts effort in the development of new things (p.29).	de Jong & den Hartog 2010.

	21. Works the bugs out of new approaches when applying them to an existing process, technology, product or service (p. 293).	Kleysen & Street 2001.
	22. Tests-out ideas or solutions to address unmet needs (p.293).	Kleysen & Street 2001.
	23. Experiments with new ideas and solutions (p.293).	Kleysen & Street 2001.
	24. Identifying problems/opportunities in the launched service (p. 411).	Tuominen & Toivonen 2011.
	25. Generating ideas about how the novelty could be improved or utilised in other contexts (p. 411).	Tuominen & Toivonen 2011.
Evaluates the viability of an idea or solution	26. Evaluating the idea and the concept, simulating the ideas, verifying the new model (p. 411).	Tuominen & Toivonen 2011.
	27. Evaluates the strengths and weaknesses of new ideas (p. 293).	Kleysen & Street 2001.
	28. Evaluating received feedback, writing new tools or instructions, simulating new methods (p. 411)	Tuominen & Toivonen 2011.
Organises implementation	29. Contributes to the implementation of new ideas (p.29).	de Jong & den Hartog 2010.
	30. Implements changes that seem to be beneficial (p. 293).	Kleysen & Street 2001.
	31. Develops adequate plans and schedules for the implementation of new ideas (p.14).	Choi, Kang & Choi 2021
	32. Selling the idea to the customers/organisation (marketing) (p. 411).	Tuominen & Toivonen 2011.
	33. Using the novelty in organisational processes or in customer projects (p. 411).	Tuominen & Toivonen 2011.
Realisation - turns intention into reality	34. Transforming innovative ideas into useful applications (idea realization) (p. 292).	Janssen 2000.
	35. Introducing innovative ideas into the work environment in a systematic way (idea realization) (p. 292).	Janssen 2000.
	36. Evaluating the utility of innovative ideas (idea realization) (p. 292).	Janssen 2000.
	37. Systematically introduces innovative ideas into work practices (p.29).	de Jong & den Hartog 2010.
	38. Incorporates new ideas for improving an existing process, technology, product or service into daily routines (p. 293).	Kleysen & Street 2001
	39. Thinking carefully about the goals that should be attained through the realization of an idea (p. 1257).	Messman & Mulder 2020.

40. Systematically reflecting on experiences gained during the realization of an idea (p. 1257). Messman & Mulder 2020.

Category	Outcomes (12)	Author
Business	1. Acquires new knowledge (p.29).	de Jong & den Hartog 2010.
	2. Actively contributes to development of new products / services (p.29).	de Jong & den Hartog 2010.
	3. Acquires new groups of customers (p.29).	de Jong & den Hartog 2010.
	4. Visits/maintains contacts with external clients (p.29).	de Jong & den Hartog 2010.
	5. Makes suggestions to improve current products or services (p.29).	de Jong & den Hartog 2010.
	6. Job performance (p.716).	Al Wali, Muthuveloo & Teoh 2022
	7. Project success (p.1056).	Mubarak, Khan & Osmadi 2022.
	8. Sustainable economic performance (p. 20)	Faulks et al 2021
Work	9. Produces ideas to improve work practices (p.29).	de Jong & den Hartog 2010.
	10. Acquires new knowledge (p.29).	de Jong & den Hartog 2010.
	11. Optimises the organization of work (p.29).	de Jong & den Hartog 2010.
	12. Adaptive performance (p.28).	Bataineh et al 2022

Note:

1. The antecedents identified in the IWB systematic literature review differ from those of leader arrogance in that they extend beyond aspects of the individual to include features of organisations, theories, constructs and models. This has required additional information about antecedents to inform more fully what is meant by them. That information is drawn from the IWB systematic review literature.
2. All antecedents, behaviours and outcomes added from the data have been marked with an asterisk*

Table A3. New LA and IWB Items Originating from Data Added to SLR Extracted Antecedents, Behaviours and Outcomes

Leader Arrogance				
Category	New Item	Case	Authors	Total Entries
	Antecedent			
Environment	Working environment	Hastings; Holmes (2); Lay	Cooper 2011; Crossan, Seijts & Furlong 2024; Spector 2003.	4
Self-Confidence	Overconfidence	Musk	McCall 2009.	1
Superiority/elitism	Rules don't apply to me	Holmes; Gates; Jobs; Kalanick; Pincus	Cook, Patel & O'Rourke 2019; Isaacson 2012; Krugman 2001; Smith 2013, Watts 2019.	5
	Behaviour			
Deceive	Betray	Fiorina	Johnson 2008.	1
Diminish	Undermine	Eisner	Forbes & Watson 2010.	1
Dominate	Being in and / or exercising control	Bezos; Gates; Holmes(2); Pincus	Aksinaviciute 2014; Kantor 2015; Krugman 2001; Lopatto 2021.	5
Dominate	Bullying	Eisner; Jobs; Blankenship; Kalanick; Gates; Lay; Bezos; Ellison; Balmer; Scrushy; Holmes	Brown & Peterson 2022; Hartung 2014; Hofman 2015; Hamburger 2002; Jennings 2003; Kawamoto & Yamamoto 2000; Love 2011; Marks 2013; Spott 2018; Stolberg 2015; Ward 2003.	11
Dominate	Coerce	Jobs; Lay (2)	Sims & Brinkman 2003; Steinwart & Ziegler 2014.	3
Offend	Obnoxious	Jobs; Kalanick	Groth 2012; Spott 2018.	2
	Outcome			
Adverse actor impact	Removal from role	Fiorina; Hayward; Heins; Hebblethwaite;	Allen 2022; Bates 2015; Brown & Peterson 2022;	7

		Holmes; Kalanick; Nasser	Cusack 2001; Johnson 2008; Lewis 2013; Williams 2022.	
	Lost reputation	Hayward	Bates 2015.	1
	Criminal Prosecution	Holmes; Scrushy; Kozlowski; Ebbers; Blankenship	Cusack 2001; Boostrom 2011; Heschl 2015; Trevino & Brown 2004; Williams 2022.	5
Adverse 'Others' impact	Fear	Holmes; Mayer	Folk 2022; Myatt 2015.	2
	Acute actual or potential loss	Holmes(4); Jobs; Lay	Aley 2011; Crossan, Seijts & Furlong 2024; Malone 2021; Spector 2003; Williams 2022.	6
Beneficial 'actor' impact	Current & past behaviour causes them to consider their legacy	Gates	Hofman 2015.	1
	Achieving goals through their demeanour	Bezos; Musk	Gray 2016; Marks 2013.	2
	Learning humility	Hastings	Cooper 2011	1
Beneficial 'others' impact	Inspires others to do great work	Jobs(2); Musk	Delaney & Spoelstra 2022; Gray 2016; McCracken 2011.	3
Poor business performance	Commercial loss	Hastings; Nardelli (2); Ballmer; Fiorina	Cooper 2011; Johnson 2008; Waters 2007.	4
Business Damage	Financial failure/loss	Eisner; Heins; Hastings; Hayward; Kalanick; Murdock; Nardelli; Scrushy; Winterkorn; Zuckerberg	Brown & Peterson 2022; Cooper 2011; Forbes & Watson 2010; Grayson 2018; Humphrys 2011; Jennings 2003; Lewis 2013; Murdock 2020; Roberts & Rogers 2018; Waters 2007.	10
Detriment to Brand	Boycotting the brand	Zuckerberg	Murdock 2020.	1
	Deficient business decision	Hastings; Ballmer; Cook	Allen 2022; Boudreau 2013;	10

(2); Murdoch; Zuckerberg; Kalanick (2); Hebblethwaite; Holmes; Ebbers
Brown & Peterson 2022; Cooper 2011; Evans 2013; Newcomer & Stone 2018; PRNews 2011; Trevino & Brown 2004; Williams 2022.

Total = 94

Innovative Work Behaviour

Antecedent				
Work Organisation	Minimal autonomy	Musk	Miklaszewicz 2023	1
Productive Climate & Culture	Creative innovation environment	Barra; Bezos(2); Eisner(3); Iger; Jobs(5); Lay	Aley 2011; Colvin 2014; Mint 2023; Grover 2007; Kantor 2015; Kennedy 2016; Isaacson 2012; Sims & Brinkman 2003; Wertlauffer 2000.	13
Unproductive Climate & Culture	Dysfunctional workplace culture	Barra; Bezos; Ebbers; Eisner; Ellison(2); Holmes(3); Iger; Kalanick; Lay(3); Murdoch; Pincus; Winterkorn(4); Mayer	Brown & Peterson, 2022. Colvin 2014; Davies & Chun 2009; Dishman 2015; Flores 2021; Fortune Editors 2016; Gershon & Alhassan 2017; Grover 2007; Lieberman 2005; Malone 2021; Myatt 2015; Santora 2020; Sims & Brinkman 2003; Smith 2013; Spector 2003.	21
	Conforming stagnating environment	Ballmer(3); Blankenship(3); Pincus	Dans 2013; Hartung 2014; Dvorak 2013; Smith 2013; Stolberg 2016; Wohl 2016;	7
Control leadership	Autocratic/authoritarian leadership	Ellison; Fiorina; Holmes(4); Lay; Mayer; Scrushy; Zuckerberg	Brown & Peterson, 2022. Flores 2021; Hechl 2015; Johnson 2008; Kawamoto &	10

			Yamamoto 2000; Malone 2021; Sims & Brinkman 2003; Weinberger & Leskin 2020; Yeung 2023.	
Inspiring Leadership	Charismatic leadership	Holmes	Malone 2021.	1
Ineffective Leadership	Deficient leadership	Blankenship(2); Fiorina; Hayward	Dundes 2019; Epstein-Reeves 2010; Johnson 2008; Kanter 2010; Wohl 2016.	4
Leader Attributes	Risk tolerance	Hastings; Musk(2)	McAndrew 2021; Miklaszewicz 2023.	2
Unproductive Leader Behaviour	Idea inhibition	Pincus	Smith 2013;	1
	Micro-managing	Blankenship; Eisner(3); Musk; Pincus; Scrushy; Winterkorn;	Fortune Editors 2016; Downes, Russ & Ryan 2007; Hamilton 2017; Jackson 2005; Miklaszewicz 2023; Smith 2013; Soliere, Felo & Hodowanitz 2008; Stolberg 2016; Ward 2003.	8
	Risk averse	Heins; Zaslav	MacCormack et al 2013.	2
				70
				164

Table A4. Documents and Data Segments x Cases

Case	Document Numbers	Data Segment Numbers	Average Segments per Document	Range of Data Segments in MAXQDA	Detriment	Removed from Role	Criminal Conviction	Business Damage	Brand Detriment
Bernie Ebbers	3	21	7.0	6-8	Y	Y - C	Y	Y	Y
Bill Gates	4	20	5.0	2-7				Y	
Bob Iger	4	18	4.5	2-10					
Carly Fiorina	3	25	8.3	1-20	Y	Y - P		Y	
David Zaslav	3	14	4.7	1-7					
Dennis Kozlowski	3	7	2.3	0-6	Y	Y - C	Y		
Donald Blankenship	4	13	3.3	1-5	Y	Y - C	Y		
Elizabeth Holmes	13	72	5.5	1-14	Y	Y - C	Y	Y	Y
Elon Musk	3	21	7.0	1-14					
Jacques Nasser	3	9	3.0	1-4	Y	Y - P			
Jeff Bezos	6	84	14.0	3-34					
Kenneth Lay	4	33	8.3	3-13	Y	Y - C	Y	Y	
Larry Ellison	3	24	8.0	2-19					
Marissa Mayer	4	20	5.0	2-10	Y	Y - P		Y	
Mark Pincus	3	18	6.0	2-8	Y	Y - B			
Mark Zuckerberg	5	18	3.6	1-6				Y	Y

Mary Barra	4	11	2.8	2-3	Y				
Martin Winterkorn	5	13	2.6	1-4	Y	Y - B		Y	
Meg Whitman	3	10	3.3	3-4	Y	Y - P			
Michael Eisner	6	43	7.2	1-16				Y	
Peter Hebblethwaite	4	14	3.5	0-8	Y			Y	Y
Reed Hastings	3	19	6.3	1-9				Y	Y
Richard Scrushy	4	22	5.5	1-8	Y	Y - C	Y	Y	
Robert Nardelli	3	14	4.7	2-9	Y	Y - P		Y	
Rupert Murdoch	5	10	2.0	1-4	Y			Y	Y
Steve Ballmer	3	9	3.0	1-5					
Steve Jobs	12	74	6.2	0-24	Y	Y - B			
Tim Cook	3	9	3.0	2-4				Y	Y
Tim Armstrong	5	11	2.2	0-4	Y	Y - P			
Thorsten Heins	5	6	1.2	0-3	Y	Y - P		Y	
Tony Hayward	5	24	4.8	1-7	Y	Y - P		Y	
Travis Kalanick	9	39	4.3	0-10	Y	Y - B		Y	Y
Multiple	1	0	0.0	6					
	148	745	5			18	6	18	8

Note:

1. The case labelled 'Multiple' was one document that provided data segments across three different cases. The data segments have been included in the individual case counts, but the document maintained separately.
2. Y – C (Criminality); Y– P (Performance); Y – B (Behaviour)
3. Cases highlighted in yellow indicate that this outcome was generally known, but not included in the data.

Table A5. Code Allocation

	Leader Arrogance			Innovative Work Behaviour				
	Number of Codes	Number of Zeros	Segments	Number of Codes	Number of Zeros	Segments	Segments	% of Total
Codes < Six								
Antecedent	8	4	12	10	5	9	21	
Behaviour	22	3	62	8	6	4	66	
Outcome	5	1	7	6	4	4	11	
Subtotal	35	8	81	24	15	17	98	13
Codes > Six								
Antecedent	3		35	6		183	218	
Behaviour	16		263	4		46	309	
Outcome	7		97	6		23	120	
Subtotal	26		395	16		252	647	87%
All Codes								
Antecedent	11		47	16		192	239	
Behaviour	38		325	12		50	375	
Outcome	12		104	12		27	131	
Total	61		476	40		269	745	100

Table A6. Preliminary Pilot Study Case List

Domain	Body / Organisation	Role	Issue(s)	Key Persons
Business				
	Theranos	CEO	Wire fraud	Elizabeth Holmes
	British Petroleum	CEO	Deepwater	Tony Hayward
		Well-site	Horizon Oil-well	Donald Vidrine
		Leader	Disaster	
	Enron	CEO	Financial	Kenneth Lay
			Collapse	
	US Investment Securities	CEO	Ponzi Scheme	Bernie Madoff
	Korean Airlines	Vice president	Nut rage incident	Heather Cho (Cho Hyun-ah)
	Apple	CEO	Leadership style	Steve Jobs
	Facebook (Meta)	CEO	Leadership style	Mark Zuckerberg
	National Australia Bank	CEO	Banking Royal Commission	Andrew Thorburn
	National Australia Bank	Chair	Banking Royal Commission	Dr Ken Henry
	Tesla; Twitter; Space X	Owner	Leadership	Elon Musk
	VW	CEO	Diesel scandal	Martin Winterkorn
	World Economic Forum - Davos	Founder	Operations	Klaus Schwab
Government				
	United States	US Chief Medical Adviser	COVID-19 Management	Dr Andrew Fauci
	Victorian Government	Victorian Chief Medical Officer	COVID -19 Management	Dr Brett Sutton
Politics				
	United States	President	Leadership style	George Bush
	United States	President	Leadership style	Barack Obama
	United States	President	Leadership style	Donald Trump
	United States	President	Leadership style	Joe Biden
	United States	Presidential Candidate	Leadership style	Hillary Clinton
	France	President	Leadership style	Jaques Chirac
	UK	Prime Minister	Leadership style	Theresa May

UK	Prime Minister	Leadership style	Boris Johnson
UK	Ex-Health Minister	COVID -19 Management	Matt Hancock
SA	President	Leadership style	Nelson Mandela
New Zealand	Ex-Prime Minister	Leadership style	Jacinda Ahearn
Australia	Ex-Prime Minister	Leadership style	Paul Keating
Australia	Ex-Prime Minister	Leadership style	John Howard
Australia	Prime Minister	Leadership style	Kevin Rudd
Australia	Prime Minister	Leadership style	Julia Gillard
Australian	Prime Minister	Leadership style	Malcolm Turnbull
Australian	Prime Minister	Leadership style	Tony Abbott
Australian	Prime Minister	Leadership style	Scott Morrison
Australian	Prime Minister	Leadership style	Anthony Albanese
Australia	Victorian Premier	Leadership style	Daniel Andrews
Australia	Western Australian Premier	Leadership style	Mark McGowan
Australia	Ex-NSW Premier	Leadership style	Gladys Berejiklian
Australia	Queensland Premier	Leadership style	Annastacia Palaszczuk
Israel	President Israel Supreme Court		Aharon Barak
India			Narendra Modi

Sport

Cricket Australia	Board & CEOs	Management	The Board
Cricket Australia	Board & CEOs	Management	James Sutherland
Cricket Australia	Board & CEOs	Management	Kevin Roberts
Cricket Australia	Board & CEOs	Management	Nick Hocking
Canterbury-Bankstown Dolphins Rugby League	General Manager Coach		Phil Gould Wayne Bennett
AFL (Aussie Rules)	Essendon Board Member		Kevin Sheedy
AFL (Aussie Rules)	Ex-CEO		Andrew Demetriou

Collingwood Football Club	Ex-CEO	Eddie McGuire
Australian Rugby	Ex-Coach	Michael Cheika
Australian Rugby Union	Coach	Eddie Jones
NFL (Gridiron)	Retired player	Tom Brady
NBL (Basketball)	Player	LeBron James
Soccer	Player	Cristiano Ronaldo
Boxing	Boxer	Floyd Mayweather
Professional Cycling	Cyclist	Lance Armstrong
Soccer	Player	Maradona

Religion

Catholic Church	Head	Pope Francis
Tibet	Spiritual Leader	Dalai Lama
Catholic Church	Priest	George Pell
Hillsong	Founder	Brian Houston
Scientology		Tom Cruise

The Arts

Actors		Will Smith
Musicians		Kanye West
		Adam Levine
		Bruce Springsteen
		The Who
Writers		Hillary Mantel
		JK Rowling
		John Irving
		Steven King
		Dan Brown

Hospitality

Chefs		Rick Stein
		Gordon Ramsay
		David Chang

Table A7. Study Articles Purpose and Findings

Authors	Purpose & Findings
Leader Arrogance	
Hareli & Weiner (2000)	Perceptions of arrogance and modesty can be explained by the causal dimensions underlying success accounts that are internal to the person, stable over time, and uncontrollable. Arrogance was associated with perceiving the communicator as conveying the message of being better than others. Attributing success to one's own abilities is to establish superiority over others.
Hogan & Hogan (2001)	Arrogant persons with high scores expect to be liked, admired, respected, attended to, praised, complimented, and indulged. Their entitlement, excessive self-esteem, and an expectation of success that often leads to real success. They expect to succeed at everything they undertake.
Berger (2002)	The author is proposing that arrogance is a function of the regard in which the profession is held, the special knowledge a physician has that the patient may not and how much the patient is reliant on the physician to get well.
Spector (2003)	This was a paper that considered the role of HRM policies in Enron's collapse. The enacted value system of high arrogance and low transparency, policies and practices contributed to Enron's failure.
Levine (2005)	Proposes that arrogance is an antecedent (as is greed) to corruptive behavior
Ma & Karri (2005)	Examined the different triggers that lead to a company's destruction including arrogance, demonstrating the impact arrogance can have on a business, making the point that arrogance can be observed through the complacent decision-making of its leaders due to their continued success and thus perceived superiority over rivals.
Burke (2006)	The paper identified common causes of failure and possible remedial actions. Leaders that fail behave in ways reflective of their personality that limit or derail their careers. These flaws include arrogance, aloofness, perfectionism, insensitivity, selfishness and betraying the trust of others.
Duarte (2006)	Analysis of the collapse of an Australian insurance company in the late 1990s, early 2000s. The perception of arrogance, along with hubris, was particularly targeted at Rodney Adler "Adler is portrayed as a 'shonk' and 'corporate cowboy'. He is also described as arrogant and delusional, in his unwillingness to accept responsibility for his wrongdoings".
Hareli, Weiner & Yee (2006)	The present research also indicates that inferences of modesty and arrogance are sensitive to the type of the communicated account as well as to the real cause for the outcome, assuming this is known to the perceiver.
Dillon (2007)	This essay aims to show that arrogance corrupts the very qualities that make persons, persons. The corruption is subtle but profound, and the key to understanding it lies in understanding the connections between different kinds of arrogance, self-respect, respect for others and personhood.
Haan, Britt & Weinstein (2007)	Based on this research, particular trouble spots are the high levels of arrogance for graduate business students, top college administrators (executive level, deans, and department chairs), and male business students. Results revealed that graduate students are more arrogant than current college faculty.

Zibarras, Port & Woods (2008)	This paper has identified dysfunctional traits positively related to innovative characteristics, encompassing risk-taking and rebelliousness. Arrogance has been found to be associated with innovation characteristics i.e. 'motivated to change and challenging behavior' and as part of the 'Moving Against People' factor.
Ford (2009)	This paper approaches arrogance from the perspective of different social positioning and culture i.e. arrogance emerges based on one's class, gender, ethnicity and able-bodiedness and the consequence in people being treated differently, unfairly. The author applies this issue to the teaching profession and calls it arrogant perception.
Johnson et al (2010)	This article presents findings from four studies. In Studies 1 and 2, the authors developed the Workplace Arrogance Scale (WARS). Study 3 revealed satisfactory agreement between self-and other-ratings of arrogance; arrogance was negatively related to self-and other-rated task performance. Study 4 suggested arrogance negatively related to cognitive ability and self-esteem.
Padua et al (2010)	There is a relationship between competence and arrogance developed through argument and mathematical modelling, not research. There is a relationship between arrogance and self-esteem.
Weinstein et al (2010)	The paper examines the perceived presence of arrogance within specific occupational groups.
Godkin& Allcorn (2011)	In this article, we provide a model illustrating factors that may give rise to such organizational resistance to destructive arrogant narcissism.
Hareli, Sharabi & Hess (2011)	The present research investigated the influence of knowledge about a person's modesty or arrogance on people's expectations regarding that person's emotional reactions to success and failure. Arrogance and modesty reflect the extent to which someone is likely to publicize their ability.
Randolph-Seng & Norris (2011)	This paper demonstrated that poor group decisions due to strong social group identity leads to pluralistic arrogance i.e. where false consensus and pluralistic ignorance at the group level work together and in which group members create an inaccurate implicit theory about the group's beliefs, sensitivities, and preferences.
Brown (2012)	This study examined the effect of corporate arrogance on consumers' attitudes toward the brand and on their purchase intentions toward the product. This work suggests that companies need to be especially careful about utilizing arrogance in their advertising because it may generate the opposite effect than what was intended.
Wang, Chow & Luk (2013)	This article uses a dual attitudes perspective to show how service employee arrogance affects customers' attitudes and purchase intentions toward luxury brands in emerging markets. Experimental findings show that arrogance produces dual attitudes, with positive implicit attitudes exerting a stronger influence than unfavorable explicit attitudes on purchase intentions.
Cleary et al (2015)	In this paper, we have highlighted how arrogance and self-serving attitudes can undermine the cohesiveness of workplaces, and undermine teamwork and professional relationships. It is important to consider the impact of arrogance on the workplace and its potential to impact negatively on staff, as well as consumers' interactions and outcomes.

Jenkins (2015)	This article explores how structural factors associated with the profession and organization of medicine can constrain internal medicine residents, leading them to sometimes limit or terminate treatment in end-of-life care in ways that do not always embrace patient autonomy. It examines why residents sometimes arrogate decision-making for themselves re life-sustaining treatment.
Toscano, Price, & Scheepers (2016)	The study finds that, as predicted, arrogant CEOs adversely impacts TMT engagement, cohesiveness, collaboration and consensual decision-making. Thus, the higher the level of CEO arrogance, the lower the levels of positive TMT attitudes. The study intriguingly also finds that CEOs who displayed humility also negatively influenced the attitudes of the TMT.
Milyavsky et al (2017)	This paper focused on dismissive behavior, in particular, the conditions under which a person who dismissed advice would be perceived as arrogant - the advisee's competence and the manner in which he or she dismissed the advice. Results suggest people may commit arrogant faux pas because they erroneously expect that their expertise will justify their dismissive behavior.
Borden, Levy, & Silverman (2018)	Subordinates with more arrogant supervisors reported less favorable feedback environment perceptions, and subsequently, lower levels of feedback seeking, morale, and higher levels of burnout. Perceived organizational support and feedback orientation were identified as significant moderators in these relationships. Subordinates were less vulnerable to the negative outcomes of leader arrogance when they experienced higher levels of perceived organizational support. Finally, subordinates with favorable feedback orientations exhibited lower levels of feedback seeking in the face of the unfavorable feedback environments associated with arrogant leaders.
Eckhaus & Sheaffer (2018)	Refers to a 'culture of arrogance and greed' in Enron's top management team and to the behavior of Jeffrey Skilling (Enron's CEO). "With Enron's fall, Skilling did not abandon his trademark arrogance, and instead of declining to exercise the Fifth Amendment by remaining silent, he kept on lecturing, thus enraging legislators concerning the intricacies of accounting rules.
Tanesini (2018)	In this paper I explain why anger is a common manifestation of arrogance in order to understand the effects of arrogance on debate. I argue that superbia is a vice of superiority characterised by an overwhelming desire to diminish other people in order to excel and by a tendency to arrogate special entitlements for oneself, including the privilege of not having to justify one's claims.
Cowan et al (2019)	Arrogance is studied from a cross-disciplinary viewpoint; proposing three types of arrogance (individual, comparative, antagonistic) and six components contributing to them each logically related to the next, progressing from imperfect knowledge and abilities to unrealistic assessment of them, an unwarranted attitude of superiority over others, and related derisive behavior.
Friedman & Friedman (2019)	This paper addresses the impact of arrogant (and other dysfunctional) behavior within academia i.e. on those who work in academia. It 'calls out' a range of behaviors within the arrogance umbrella including disparaging, belittling and denigrating colleagues based on publication standards the antagonist has set.
Kleitman, Hui & Jiang (2019)	This paper showed that while arrogant individuals were as confident as competent individuals, this confidence was not justified by their performance and ability. Moreover, Arrogance positively predicted higher bias, confidence, prediction and evaluation estimates, but not actual performance on a decision task.

- De Clerq, Fatima & Jahanzeb (2020) This study explains the process by which significant changes may take place in how organizations operate in the presence of arrogant leadership: their employees start to believe that their leaders are inconsistent in their actions, and the employees, in turn, engage in negative gossip behavior about these leaders.
- Ruvio et al (2020) This study investigated the social phenomenon of consumer arrogance—the propensity to broadcast one’s superiority over others in the consumption domain. Building on the theory of positive illusions, we examine how and under what conditions triggering people’s consumer arrogance prompts their positive and negative word-of-mouth communication.
- Sim J& Ling (2020) This is a study about the relationship of arrogance leadership, job commitment and job satisfaction in HE organisations in Sarawak. Findings showed that arrogance leadership exists in higher educational organisations, and there are significant relationships between arrogance leadership with job commitment and job satisfaction among the lecturers.
- Orunbon, Ibikunle, & Lawal (2021) This study examined the relationship between arrogance leadership, teachers’ job satisfaction and organisational commitment in HE. Findings indicated a negative, nonsignificant relationship between arrogance leadership and teachers’ job satisfaction and a positive, nonsignificant relationship between arrogance leadership and organisational commitment.
- Kumar, Kang & Chand (2022) This study predicted that an arrogant leader will positively affect employees' knowledge hiding behavior and are an impediment to progress and building sustainable relationships but can be moderated through perceived insider status (PIS). The result shows that PIS significantly reduced the positive impact of a leader's arrogance (AL) on knowledge hiding behavior.
- Demirbilek et al.(2022) This study examined the arrogance orientations of academicians. Findings revealed four arrogance dimensions of individuality, comparison, contempt, and discrediting, indicating they affects the academic organization climate negatively and feeds on individuality.
- Senyuz & Hasford (2022) In the current research, the authors explore how differences in romantic motives influence consumer responses to arrogance in persuasive communications. Individuals with a relationship formation motive were shown to have more favourable attitudes and higher purchase intentions towards products and brands that emphasize arrogance in their marketing messages.
- Zohaib Khan & Batool (2022) Findings suggested that managers who display arrogance have a high need for personalized power and were likely to engage in CWBs (abuse toward others, production deviance, sabotage, theft, and withdrawal). Workplace place arrogance and the personalized need for power are significant predictors of counterproductive work behaviors in corporate managers.
- Coppola (2023) The purpose of this phenomenological study was to investigate how egotism was experienced in the lives of 15 musicians and music professionals. Four themes materialized: (a) self-preservation, (b) other-relegation, (c) elitism, and (d) interpersonal harms. The essence of the phenomenon surfaced as the social negotiation of power.
- Roe (2023) The context of this paper focuses on male (white and the privileged) arrogance. Group arrogance consists in nothing more than enough group members being arrogant people. (p32). Social norms therefore offer a distinct way for us to understand the “qua-talk” (in the capacity of; as being.) relating to sub-agential groups like men and the privileged.

Tanesini (2023) This article argues the framework of attitudes helps to understand how arrogance can be a trait of individuals, of members of social groups, and of corporations. A doxastic account is promising for institutional arrogance, since beliefs can be non-metaphorically attributed to institutions. The attitudinal account is at explanatorily more powerful than its most common alternatives.

Innovative Work Behaviour

Iqbal et al (2020) This study investigated the direct and indirect influence of ethical leadership on employee innovative work behavior, examining the intervening role of individual variables such as thriving at work and attitudes towards performing well in this relationship. Findings supported the hypothesized model, where direct and dual mediation were tested.

Ahmad et al (2021) The current survey validated that CSR engagement of a hospital at the level of the employee helps to enhance the innovative behavior of employees at the workplace. CSR-E positively relates to EIB in the context of the healthcare sector of Pakistan. Results confirmed that CSR-E and SL are both positively related to IWB.

Coun et al (2021) The present study investigated remote (home) working, leadership, and innovation in times of COVID-19 and found a positive relationship was found between empowering leadership and innovative work-behavior and was furthermore shown to be significant, second results suggest a negative relationship between directive leadership and innovative work-behavior.

Bou Reslan, Garanti & Emeagwali (2021) This study aims to peruse the underlying effect of servant leadership (SL) on innovative work behavior (IWB) and employee knowledge sharing behavior (KSB), directly and through the mediating effect of job autonomy and results disclose that SL can promote IWB and KSB directly and through mediating effects of JA.

Faulks et al (2021) The study examined the sustainable economic performance of companies during the COVID-19 pandemic. The relationships between empowering leadership, innovative work behavior, organizational readiness to change, and sustainable economic performance were assessed. Findings suggest that IWB and organizational readiness to learn have a direct influence on sustainable economic performance, and empowering leadership impacts innovative work behavior but not sustainable economic performance.

Gao et al (2021) The purpose of the current study was to test the relationship of CSR and IWB with the mediating effect of authentic leadership. Results confirm that CSR positively relates to IWB while authentic leadership partially mediates this relationship.

Khan, Khan & Ahmed (2021) The purpose of study is to examine the mediating role of psychological empowerment between the leader characteristics of transformational leadership and emotional intelligence with employee innovative work behaviour. Finding show that psychological empowerment is important mediator between the relationships of emotional intelligence and transformational leadership with innovative work behavior. However, transformational leadership found to be positively affecting psychological empowerment and innovative work behaviour.

Khan et al (2021) This study aims to ascertain the role of servant leadership in inducing flow at work and intends to explore the mediating role flow at work plays in relating servant leadership to IWB. Servant leadership is related to flow at work. Additionally, flow at work is related to IWB. Finally, flow at work mediates the relationship between servant leadership and IWB.

Khaola & Musiiwa (2021)	The purpose of this study is to examine if the effects of transformational leadership on IWBs are moderated by affective commitment and organisational justice. The results not only revealed the importance of transformational leadership as a key determinant of IWB but also, more importantly, the boundary conditions (level of affective commitment and perceived justice) under which such leadership may have maximum impact on employee IWBs.
Mansoor et al (2021)	This study aims to investigate the role of inclusive leadership in fostering employee innovative work behavior. Additionally, this study also investigates the mediating role of psychological safety. The findings of the study depicted a positive relationship between inclusive leadership and IWB, while mediation of psychological safety was also established.
Mubarak et al (2021)	This study aims to assess the relationship between proactive personality and innovative work behaviour. Findings show that a proactive personality had a positive influence on innovative work behavior directly as does work engagement.
Mulligan et al (2021)	This study addresses the quality of leader–member relationships and their relevance for innovation in the workplace. Findings suggested that mindfulness and engagement could be characteristic mechanisms of high-quality LMX that helps to facilitate innovation.
Tan, Van Dun & Wilderom (2021)	The literature shows that transformational leadership induces innovative employee behaviour, But the mediating mechanisms between Asian organizational leaders and their followers have rarely been empirically examined. Results showed that TFL is related to IWB, and innovation readiness was significantly and strongly related to IWB
Zuberi & Khattak (2021)	The purpose of this paper is to understand how proactive personality and leader member exchange can derive innovative work behavior, in employees of telecommunication industry, by increasing task feedback and task significance. Our findings show that LMX and proactive personality were positively related with innovative work behavior.
Abualoush et al (2022)	The purpose of this study is to clarify the effects of entrepreneurial leadership (EL) on innovative work behaviour (IWB). Findings indicate that knowledge sharing (KS) mediates the effects of EL on innovative work behaviour. In addition, EL has a direct effect on IWB, KS has a direct effect on IWB and KS has a direct effect on IWB.
Akıncı et al (2022)	This study investigates the separate and combined effects of ambidextrous leadership dimensions (i.e., opening and closing leader behaviors) on innovative work behavior. Opening leader behavior was positively related to IWB, closing leader behavior had no significant effect on it and the combined effect of ambidextrous leadership was positively related to IWB.
Arijanto, Suroso & Indrayanto (2022).	This research examined the influence of ethical leadership (EL)and motivation on innovative work behavior (IWB) with Friendly Relationship Knowledge Sharing in Small and Medium Enterprises (SME) as the mediating variable. Findings suggest EL has a positive and significant effect on IWB and the higher the motivation, the higher the IWB of SME employees.
Bai et al (2022).	The purpose of the study is to investigate the impact of authentic leadership and proactive personality on innovative work behavior. Results indicate that authentic leadership has a positive and significant effect on proactive personality. Meanwhile, findings show that proactive personality has a significant impact on innovative work behavior.

Contreras, Soria-Barreto & Zuniga-Jara (2022)	This research proposes a model of innovative work behaviour in women that work in Latin America B Corps, hypothesizing that this behaviour can be influenced by managerial support. Results show that managerial support has effects on innovative work behaviour, both direct and through employees 'work engagement.
Desrumaux, Dose, & Chaumon (2022)	This study examines whether rewards and efforts act as mediators between leader-member exchange (LMX) and two dependent variables: well-being at work and innovative work behaviors (IWB); We examine how LMX is linked to IWB and well-being at work. Results indicated that LMX was significantly linked to IWB and psychological well-being at work.
Bataineh et al (2022)	The major purpose of this research is to analyse the nexus between inclusive leadership (IL) and adaptive performance (AP) among private hospital nurses in Jordan using innovative work behaviour (IWB) as a mediating variable. The outcomes show that IL has a direct and significant predictive effect on AP, and an indirect predictive effect through innovative work behaviour.
Erhan, Uzunbacak & Aydin (2022)	This research aims at demonstrating the relationship between digitalization of leadership and innovative work behavior. Results show that the employees' perceptions of digital leadership have a positive and significant effect on all dimensions of an employee innovative work behavior.
Farrukh et al (2022)	This study investigates the role of high-performance work practices (HPWPs) and psychological capital (H.E.R.O) in employee innovative work behavior. Results indicate a positive impact of HPWPs on EIB.
Jia et al (2022)	This study investigates the relationship between ethical leadership (EL), work engagement (WE), well-being, and innovative work behavior (IWB). Results confirm that EL positively influences the IWB, and there is positive and significant relationship between WE and IWB.
Al Wali, Mutheveloo & Teoh, (2022).	The study aims to examine the relationship between innovative work behaviour (IWB) and JP amongst physicians in Iraq public hospitals. Findings indicate that IWB has a positive relationship with JP, whilst CSE and HL are significant determinants of IWB amongst physicians in Iraq public hospitals.
Khan et al (2022)	The study examines the mediating role of psychological empowerment and job crafting between servant leadership and innovative work behavior. Servant leadership was found to be related to psychological empowerment, job crafting and innovative work behavior.
Kim (2022)	This study explores the influence of supervisors' relational leadership on the contexts in which subordinates are drawn to innovative work behaviors. Results showed that the perception of supervisors' relational leadership was positively related to employees' performance in innovative work behaviors over time.
Mubarak, Khan & Osmadi (2022)	This study examined the consequences of knowledge hiding. Results showed that knowledge hiding was significant for IWB and IWB was significant for project success, and IWB significantly mediates the relationship between knowledge hiding and project success.
Mutmainnah et al (2022)	This study examined Managing innovative employee behavior as an integral component of sustainable organizational development. Results show that directive leadership has a positive and significant impact on continuance commitment, and continuance commitment has a positive and significant influence on innovative work behavior.

Rafique et al (2023)	This study explores the impact of pandemic job stress (PJS) and TL on employees' IWB through knowledge sharing (KNS), while focusing on the importance of innovations for organizational survival and growth. Results demonstrate that PJS positively impacts employees' IWB, negating the negative relationship between job stress and IWB found in previous studies.
AlMulhim & Mohammed, (2023)	This study investigates the mediating role of workplace dignity (WD) in the relationship between inclusive leadership and innovative work behavior (IWB) as well as the moderate role of workplace inclusion (WI) in said relationship. Inclusive leadership has a favorable impact on IWB, and enhances WD. WD has a favorable impact on IWB.
Alwali (2023)	This study determines the effects of high-involvement work practices (HIWPs) and servant leadership (SL) on job crafting (JC), and investigates the effect of JC on IWB. HIWPs and SL had significant effects on JC, while JC has a significant relationship with IWB. It also shows that JC has a significant mediating role in the relationship between HIWPs and IWB.
Asif et al (2023)	This research investigated the influence of ethical leadership (EL) on employee's IWB. The relationship between EL and employee IWB is mediated by job crafting (JC), with the moderating role of self-leadership (SL). It found that EL is positively linked with IWB and JC. Subsequently, the study also found that job crafting (JC) is significantly related to IWB.
Bracht et al (2023)	We propose an integrated model connecting four types of positive leadership behaviors, two types of identification (as mediating variables), and followers' innovative work behavior (FIB). Results indicate that perceived LMX quality was the strongest relative predictor of FIB and authentic, identity and transformational leadership all predicted FIB.
Brunetto, Kominis & Ashton-Sayers (2023)	This paper examines whether authentic leadership provides the resources employees need to build their psychological capacities and well-being so that they can embrace organisational change and engage in innovative work behaviour (IWB) within non-profit organisation(NPO). Results show that Authentic leadership behaviour is associated with IWB.
Dar, Kundi, & Soomro (2023)	This study aims to examine the link between leader–member exchange (LMX) and employee innovative work behavior (IWB) by using employee job crafting as a mediator. Findings suggest a significant positive relationship between (i) LMX and job crafting dimensions and (ii) job crafting dimensions and employee IWB.
Dayanti & Yulianti (2023)	This study aims to examine the relationship between servant leadership and knowledge sharing on innovative work behavior, and explores the mediating role of creative self-efficacy on innovative work behavior. Results show that servant leadership and knowledge sharing have a significant positive effect on innovative work behavior.
Garg, Attree & Kumar (2023)	This study examined the association between managers' transformational leadership style and employees' IWB through psychological empowerment. We found that by adopting a transformational leadership style, managers can encourage employees' IWB, and employees' psychological empowerment is positively related to the IWB of the employees.
Hussain et al (2023)	We examined the impact of entrepreneurial leader(ship) (EL) on IWB with moderating role of Islamic Work Ethics (IWE. Results of SEM demonstrate that EL significantly influences the IWB of employees in SMEs. Similarly, IWE also shows a significant effect on the employees' IWB.

Musenze & Mayende (2023).	This study aims to investigate the moderating role of perceived organizational support in the relationship between ethical leadership and IWB among public university academic staff. In general, the present findings suggest that ethical leadership is associated with IWB via perceived organization support.
Khan et al (2023)	We examined the direct link between supervisor-subordinate guanxi and employee work behaviors (innovative work behavior and work engagement) by investigating the moderating effect of trust in the supervisor and the mediating effect of psychological empowerment. Results showed that Supervisor-subordinate guanxi significantly and positively affects IWB
Kousina & Voudouris (2023).	This study examined whether the exhibition of ambidextrous leadership (AL) by managers fosters innovative behavior and whether psychological ownership feelings mediates this. We found that the interaction of opening and closing behaviors affects employees' innovative performance such that IWB is highest when both opening and closing behaviors are high.
Lin (2023)	This study explores the underlying mechanisms and boundary conditions that explain the association between transformational leadership and innovative work behavior of frontline employees. Results indicated that transformational leadership had a positive impact on innovative work behavior.
Mayastinasari & Suseno (2023)	This study examined the role of Transformational Leadership on Innovative Work Behavior, and Transformational Leadership on Knowledge sharing and Knowledge sharing on Innovative Work Behavior of Public Organizations in the digital era. Results concluded that transformational leadership had a significant positive effect on innovative behavior.
Mehmood et al (2023)	This study examined the role of negative events (Workplace Incivility (WPI]) and leadership (Despotic Leadership [DL]) on the IWB of employees with the mediating role of Psychological Well-being (PsyWB) and moderating role of Perceived Organizational Support (POS). Results showed PsyWB mediated the relationship among DL, WPI, and IWB.
Mustafa et al (2023)	The study examined the relationship between leader-member exchange (LMX) and IWB with the mediating role of employee engagement and moderating role of self-efficacy. Results indicate that LMX is positively linked with IWB while employee engagement mediates the relationship between LMX and IWB. Self-Efficacy was shown to positively correlate with LMX.
Mustafa, Hughes & Ramos (2023)	This study examines whether middle-managers' personal initiative mediates the relationship between the four dimensions of their psychological empowerment (PE) and their IWB. Results showed two dimensions of PE - meaning and impact which were found to have significant direct effects on IWB. Personal Initiative had a positive direct impact on IWB.
Odugbesan et al (2023)	This study investigates the significance of green talent management (TM) and its influence on employees' IWB together with the moderating roles of transformational leadership (TL) and artificial intelligence (AI). Findings show that green hard and soft TM exerts significant influence on employees' IWB and TL and AI significantly impacted employees' IWB.
Saleem et al (2023)	This study examined the relationship among high-performance work systems (HPWS), IWB, knowledge sharing (KS), and inclusive leadership (IL). Results show the significant effect of ability, motivation & opportunity (AMO) on IWB, the mediation of KS between the AMO model and employee IWB. IL significantly moderates the relationship between KS and employee IWB.

- Shailja, Kumari & Singla (2023) This paper investigates the effect the servant leadership on innovative work behaviour (IWB). Findings revealed that servant leadership positively influences IWB. Additionally, IWB can be augmented with the presence of individual ambidexterity.
- Haider et al (2023). This study tests the impact of ambidextrous leadership (AL) on IWB with the mediating role of knowledge sharing (KS) and the moderating role of innovativeness as a project requirement (IAPR). Result revealed that AL has a significant and positive effect on KS but negative effect on IWB at the workplace. KS proved to be a potential mediator AL and IWB.
- Vuong (2023) This study investigates the effects of servant leadership (SL) on job performance and notes the mediating role of innovative work behaviour and the moderating role of public service motivation. Findings indicated SL -> IWB was supported, IWB was found to be positively related to job performance.
- Kundi, Aboramadan & Abualigah (2023) This study examined the relationships between paradoxical leadership and employee in-role and extra-role performance outcomes. It was found that paradoxical leadership influences employee in-role (job performance) and extra-role (innovative work behavior and voice behavior) performance directly and indirectly through employee work engagement.

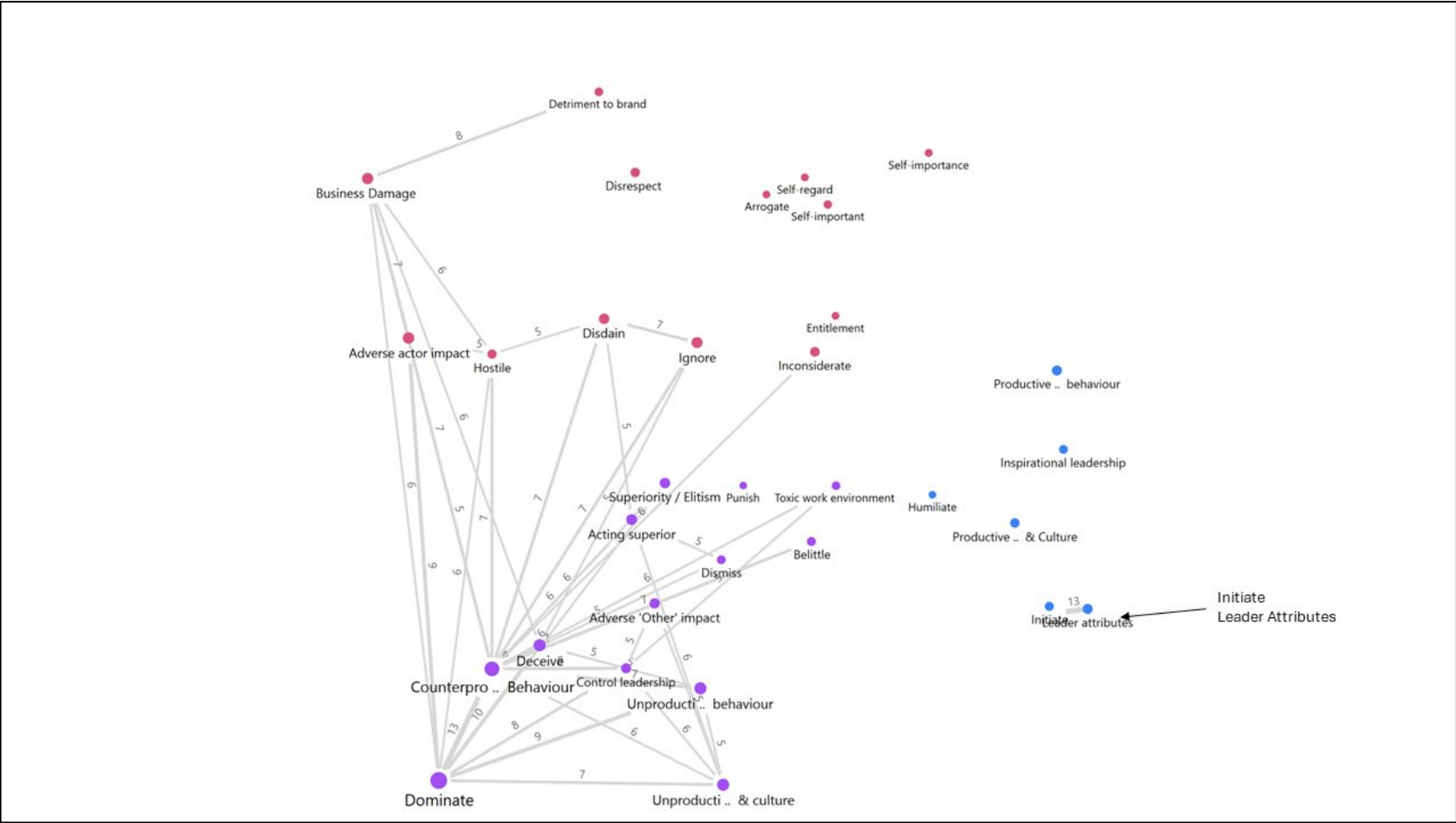


Figure A1.LA (Antecedents, Behaviours & Outcomes) – IWB Antecedents Relationship