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# Financial Investment Advisor Professional Arrogance and Performance

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This is to certify that the doctoral dissertation by

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Abstract

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Dissertation Abstract Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

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Abstract

Arrogance in the workplace is a growing area of interest within industrial-organizational psychology. Arrogant employees tend to lack positive interpersonal work relationships, act superior yet have a lower level of cognitive abilities, and have poorer job performance than their less arrogant counterparts, leading to challenging work relationships and overall impact on an organization's ability to meet its objectives. The present study examined professional arrogance measured by the Workplace Arrogance Scale (WARS), a 26 question survey, in relation to the objective outcome measure of a Financial Investment Advisor's (FIA) ranking on the firm's leader board based on *total assets under management* plus revenue. A total of 37 participants who have been in the profession for more than 2 years completed the survey. This study employed a quantitative, correlational research design. The research questions were assessed using linear regression and moderation analyses. Analysis of the data showed no significant predictive relationship between results of the WARS and performance. Gender and professional experience did not moderate the relationship between an FIA's arrogance and their performance. While these findings did not support the hypothesis of a connection between a FIA's assessed arrogance and measured performance, arrogance remains an important construct requiring further study. As workplace arrogance is better understood, it can be screened for by human resources within hiring processes and can be addressed directly by leadership through training and development. Decreased arrogance is likely to lead to more respectful client relationships, leading to customer loyalty and increased revenues for the client, FIA and the financial firm that he/she serves.

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# Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to my family, friends, and colleagues who have been patient, supportive and encouraging of me during this extensive academic journey.

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I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my Dissertation Committee Chairperson, advisor and mentor Dr. James Herndon for his continuous support of my Ph.D. study and journey as a scholar-practitioner. His patience and guidance helped me in understanding how to identify gaps in the literature, how best to structure methodology and then collect data with integrity.

In addition to my dissertation advisor, I would like to thank my other Committee member Dr. John Schmidt; methodologist. Dr. Schmidt provided challenge for a deeper understanding of statistics, the rigor involved in scholarly work and data analysis, and respect for the limitations of research. I would also like to thank Dr. Richard Thompson for his contribution via his role as independent reviewer of my work.

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# Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Over the past 40 years in North America, an increase of immodesty, self-aggrandizement, and ego gratification has taken root (Gibbs, 2009). According to Gibbs (2009), North Americans are living in an “age of arrogance” where the display of such qualities as modesty and humility are seen as weakness (p. 64). Arrogance refers to an exaggerated perspective of and fixed belief in one’s superiority, as evidenced by elevating oneself over others, and by behaving in ways that are entitled in the pursuit of power and status (Johnson, Venus, Lanai, Mao, & Chang, 2010; Silverman, Johnson, McConnell, & Carr, 2012).

The world of work has evolved with an expectation of collaboration of employees and integration of many work functions (Bauer, Cho, Johnson, & Silverman, 2008). The individualistic culture which has been bred in society seems to promote arrogance and is at odds with the expectation within an organizational culture of working within pods, project teams or work groups, empathetically meeting clients’ needs and delivering exceptional client service (Bauer et al., 2008). There is evidence to suggest that the presence of arrogance within work dynamics can create negative outcomes related to individual and group performance, peer relationships, client relationships, and overall organizational health (Bauer et al., 2008; De Silva, 2013; Johnson et al., 2010; Johnson & Chang, 2006; Levine, 2005; Padua, Lerin, Tumapon, & Panares, 2010). Further, research has shown that employees who act superior demonstrate inferior performance compared to their less arrogant peers (Bauer et al., 2008; Johnson et al., 2010). According to Silverman et al. (2012), arrogant employees are not well-liked, place stress on the work environment, and have a negative impact on interpersonal relations. There are also research findings that suggest arrogance may in fact be a helpful tool or approach in some careers or circumstances such as in the sale of luxury items (Wang, Chow, & Luk, 2013).

## Background

Early arrogance research involved the study of subjects detecting or perceiving the arrogant behaviors of others (Haan, Britt, & Weinstein, 2007; Padua et al., 2010). Hareli and Weiner (2000), and Hareli, Weiner, and Yee (2006) reported that study participants perceived others as arrogant when they attributed personal successes to a characteristic such as intelligence that was stable and deemed outside of individual control. Hareli and Weiner (2000) also found that an individual was labelled as arrogant when he/she assigned his/her success to a desirable trait. They found perception of arrogance was unrelated to the individual's actual achievement or success.

Hann et al. (2007) conducted a study on arrogance in a higher education setting. The high level of intelligence typically present in colleges and universities, and the hierarchical nature of the organizational structure, lent themselves to the examination of perceived levels of arrogance across distinct segments. The study involved 500 business students in an effort to gain an understanding of how the presence of arrogance is perceived in business, nonbusiness (professional), and academic environments, and included study groupings of students, professors of differing levels of tenure, deans, directors, and higher level executives (Haan et al., 2007). The student participants' perceptions indicated that college/university administrators ranked in the top 10 of arrogant categories behind politicians, lawyers, entertainers, athletes, managers, and physicians; in that order (Hann et al., 2007).

Johnson et al.'s (2010) development of the Workplace Arrogance Scale (WARS) made the study of arrogance more systematized and objective. Johnson et al. conducted four independent validation studies, in their efforts to design a standardized measure of arrogance. Through self and other ratings, the studies showed a positive correlation between arrogance and measures of dominance and entitlement, along with a negative correlation with agreeableness and humility; a negative association between arrogance and interpersonal workplace behavior, and that arrogance is related to low cognitive ability, low self-esteem, and poor task performance results (Johnson et al., 2010). One key limitation within this set of studies is that performance related findings for Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) and task performance were subjective in nature. In defense of their findings, Johnson et al. (2010) cited the real-world role that subjective findings play in the workplace, as these types of ratings are very often used within organizations in the decision-making processes involved in hiring, firing, and promotions.

## Problem Statement

Arrogance has been defined as a powerful construct where one person holds him/herself superior to another, while holding the other person in a diminished role, state or capacity (Johnson et al., 2010; Padua et al., 2010; Silverman et al., 2012). In the workplace, arrogant behaviors are witnessed as bucking the system and operating by one's own personal agenda, social, emotional and intellectual posturing, blaming others for mistakes and assuming no contribution or accountability, closing off to the suggestions and ideas of others, and disrespecting and demeaning others (Johnson et al., 2010; Marks, 2012; Padua et al., 2010; Silverman et al., 2012). Early arrogance research involved study subjects rating the target groups based on perceived presence of arrogance (Haan et al., 2007). Additional arrogance perception research found that an individual's perceived arrogance was not related to actual success factors but was instead associated with the attribution of success to desirable causes that are internal, stable and uncontrollable (Hareli & Weiner, 2000; Hareli, Weiner, & Yee, 2006). Research on arrogance occurring in the workplace that has employed the WARS found that constructs such as entitlement, trait anger, and dominance were positively associated with arrogance and that arrogance was negatively correlated with agreeableness and humility (Johnson et al., 2010). Past research used subjective perceptions of arrogance as the outcome measure, and follow-on studies used the WARS as an objective measure correlated with subjective outcome ratings (Johnson et al., 2010).

Although research has shown that arrogance in general is not related to reality-based success factors (Hareli & Weiner, 2000; Hareli et al., 2006), and arrogant behavior specific to the workplace is related to low cognitive ability and low scores in task performance (Johnson et al., 2010), the arrogance-performance relationship has yet to be examined using an objective performance outcome index (Silverman et al., 2012). Across four studies conducted by Johnson et al., the mean age of all participants was 29.5 years, participant types ranged from full-time students with some work experience or working part-time, to participants who were employed full-time, the average tenure of study participants was 22 months, on average less than 18% of participants were categorized as professionals, the remainder being employed in retail, and manufacturing, and the majority of participants (approximately 63%) were female (Johnson et al., 2010). Thus, noted limitations within existing research include how arrogance relates to performance for populations of full-time employed professionals over 30 years of age, who have worked for greater than 2 years in their roles.

## Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to assess the relationship between arrogance and job performance in a professional setting, with participants who have been in their roles for more than 2 years, using an objective measure of performance specific to their profession and industry. This study examined the impact of professional arrogance on Financial Investment Advisor (FIA) performance in providing financial investment services. FIAs are responsible for managing portfolios referred to as their *total assets under management* that contain the total of all dollars they have invested for their clients (Financial Dictionary, 2016; Kolakowski, 2015; PriceMetrix Insights, 2013). This study examined arrogance as one personal characteristic that may impact a FIA's professional relationships, and performance as objectively measured by his/her total assets managed figure referred to as *total assets under management* plus the revenue generated from investments by the individual FIA. The intent of the study was to add to the organizational literature examining arrogance by measuring arrogance in a group of professional participants and relating this construct to an objective outcome measure critical to the livelihood of the FIA and the viability of the organization.

**Research Questions and Hypotheses**

The following research questions and associated hypotheses were proposed to address the identified gap in the literature:

RQ1: What is the relationship between a FIA's assessed professional arrogance and the objective index of his/her performance?

$H_0$1: There is no significant relationship between a FIA's professional arrogance as assessed by the WARS and the objective index of his/her performance.

$H_a$1: There is a significant relationship between a FIA's professional arrogance as assessed by the WARS and the objective index of his/her performance.

RQ2: How is the relationship between a FIA's assessed professional arrogance and their objective index of performance moderated by their years of professional experience?

$H_0$2: The relationship between a FIA's professional arrogance assessed by the WARS and the objective index of their performance is not moderated by their years of professional experience.

$H_a$2: The relationship between a FIA's professional arrogance assessed by the WARS and the objective index of their performance is moderated by their years of professional experience.

RQ3: How is the relationship between a FIA's assessed professional arrogance and the objective index of the FIA's performance moderated by gender?

$H_0$3: The relationship between a FIA's assessed professional arrogance and the objective index of the FIA's performance is not moderated by gender.

*H*a3: The relationship between a FIA's assessed professional arrogance and the objective index of the FIA's performance is moderated by gender.

**Theoretical Framework**

This study was rooted in Padua et al.'s (2010) Arrogance-Competence Theory framework. The theorists suggested that arrogance in the workplace is driven by an internal mechanism to be perceived as superior to others who the individual views as inferior to him or her (Padua et al., 2010). Golson's (2007) Arrogance-competence grid plots intelligence on one axis and arrogance on the other, while Padua et al.'s theory outlines the relationships within organizations between three variables: arrogance, competence, and productivity. Padua et al. asserted a relationship between competence and arrogance, whereby arrogant individuals are less competent than their nonarrogant peers. According to this theory, productivity is positively correlated with competence and negatively correlated with arrogance (Padua et al., 2010).

Padua et al. (2010) employed Golson's competence-arrogance grid outcomes and applied a deductive approach to develop their theory. The five axioms Padua et al. used in developing and testing their theory were: "people build their axioms from different foundations", "all people have the potential for arrogant tendencies but it is normally not their chief feature", "arrogance is a compensatory mechanism to keep one's self-esteem artificially inflated or intact", "organizations, in general, benefit from a mix of proper levels of arrogance and high levels of competence", and "job competence is directly related to a person's cognitive intelligence keeping the emotional quotient constant" (pp. 70-82). The five propositions underscoring the theory are "there will be arrogant personalities in the academe", "those with arrogant personalities in the academe mainly build their arrogance from their own perceived intellectual superiority and work related experiences", "those identified as arrogant in the academe are most likely to have negative experiences with respect to their esteemed intelligence in the past or have been excessively exposed to positive reinforcements on their perceived intellectual superiority in the past", "every person in the academe has an (*arrogance, competence*) mix", and "highly intelligent people with high arrogance score are more likely underachieving in the workplace" (Padua et al., 2010, pp. 83-85).

## Nature of the Study

To address the identified gap in the literature, I employed a quantitative research design, with FIA participants employed by a professional financial services firm. The dependent variable (DV) was the participant's *total assets under management* figure plus the revenue generated from investments by the individual FIA. The independent variables (IVs) were the participant's degree of arrogance as established by the WARS, gender, and tenure. The DV, the objective measure of the FIA's *total assets under management* plus the revenue generated from investments by the individual FIA, were sourced from the financial investment firm's records via an established, trusted source within the company. The IV, degree of arrogance, was obtained from the WARS as an objective measurement tool. Gender was measured as a nominal variable and years of professional experience was measured as a continuous variable. Participants were asked to provide their job tenure in years via a fill-in-the-blank response.

A sample of convenience was secured of FIAs working within a financial services firm. A target number of 77 volunteers, based on effect size analysis, was sought for participation in this study. The WARS, a validated and reliable tool (Johnson et al., 2010; Silverman et al., 2012), was used to yield an arrogance score for each FIA participant. The demographic data of gender and tenure/years of professional FIA experience were obtained via participant responses to demographic survey questions. The research questions were investigated and hypotheses tested through a quantitative research approach. A quantitative approach was appropriate for the purpose of this study to allow for the collection and analysis of data via the quantitative methods of linear regression, moderation analyses and ANOVA for ancillary analyses. Objective measures were examined, using a survey design, along with the categorical, dummy coded, and continuous variables through linear regressions within primarily a correlational study design.

## Definitions

*Client:* The customer of a professional service agent such as an accountant, financial advisor, or lawyer (Business Dictionary, 2016).

*Client Retention:* Client retention is used as an assessment of client loyalty to their service provider (PriceMetrix Insights, 2013). Client retention is critical to performance and business outcomes because satisfied clients hold their business and assets with their professional services agent and are more likely to refer others to their professional contact (Business Dictionary, 2016)

*Financial Investment Advisor (FIA):* "A professional who helps individuals manage their finances by providing advice on money issues such as investments, insurance, mortgages, college savings, estate planning, taxes and retirement, depending on what the client requests. Some financial advisors are paid a flat fee for their advice, while others earn commissions from the investments they sell to their clients" (Investopia.com, 2016).

*Professional Service:* Services provided to clients by a formally educated and certified professional such as accounting, legal, financial, and medical professionals (Business Dictionary, 2016).

*Revenue:* Revenue is the term used for financial services income earned from brokerage fees and commissions earned from investments (Investopia.com, 2018).

*Total assets under management:* A common phrase in financial firms referring to a client list and the associated dollar value of investments for each client (Kolakowski, 2015). According to Financial Dictionary (2016), *total assets under management* is defined as "a financial advisor's or salesman's list of clients and the amount of money each one generates. This term is used most frequently in brokerages or investment advisory firms". The *total assets under management* is a statement of all clients in a FIA's portfolio and the sum total of their associated dollar value based on invested assets (citation). The total sum of all assets is the objective measure of FIA performance (PriceMetrix Insights, 2013).

*Workplace Arrogance Scale (WARS):* A self-report tool containing 26 items measured using a five-point Likert; a=0.93 (Johnson et al., 2010; Silverman et al., 2012).

## Assumptions

For the purpose of this study, it was assumed that there would be enough variance in the total of each FIA's *total assets under management* figure plus the revenue generated from investments made by the FIA and that arrogance would be detected within the pool of volunteer FIA participants. It was also an assumption that participants would answer the survey questions honestly without concern for the promotion of social desirability (see Edwards, 1953). From an industry perspective, it was assumed that the financial services firm would be willing to share confidential data within a blind system with this researcher.

## Scope and Delimitations

Historically, arrogance has been studied via observations, and study subjects' perceptions of others' arrogance (Haan et al., 2007; Hareli & Weiner, 2000; Hareli et al., 2006). Recent research has utilized the WARS, an objective measure of arrogance, and examined relationships between arrogance and subjective assessments of task performance and OCB (Johnson et al., 2010). To date, there is no reporting in the arrogance literature of the examination of the arrogance-performance relationship using an objective performance outcome index (Johnson et al., 2010; Silverman et al., 2012; S. Silverman, personal communication, October 12, 2014).

This study was delimited to recruited participants who hold the title of FIA who have been in their role for greater than 2 years. Given that all participants were recruited from one company and one specific industry, it is possible that study results might not be generalizable to all applicants in all industries. Demographic data such as gender and age were collected, and the descriptive statistic of age was analyzed, however it was not included as an independent variable given that tenure/experience is highly correlated with age.

## Limitations

One limitation of the study is that the participants were all recruited from the same company. This method of recruitment could have proven to be limiting if many of the participants had the same objective performance index; a similar total sum of their clients' dollar investments in addition to revenue generated from investments. If multiple individuals are sampled from the same organization, it is possible that their objective indices could match. This lack of high variability in scores could be responsible for issues with the regression analyses not being able to predict relationships if all or many of the participants have the same objective index.

An additional limitation might have been the self-report nature of the measurement tool. Although self-report surveys are common tools in the social and behavioral sciences, there is the possibility that data can be skewed based on single source bias such as social desirability (intentionally presenting oneself in a favorable light) (Edwards, 1953; Harrison, McLaughlin, & Coalter, 1996). The lack of multisource survey responders could have led to skewed study results (Cook & Campbell, 1976).

## Significance

Arrogance has been cited as a contributing factor to breakdowns in work related relationships (Johnson et al., 2010; Marks, 2012; Silverman et al., 2012). The display of arrogant behaviors can impact the development, performance, and success of the arrogant individual, other employees, and their professional contacts (Johnson et al., 2010; Padua et al., 2010; Silverman et al., 2012). Arrogance can promote a breakdown of work teams in the absence of citizenship behaviors instead of fostering a climate of positive social interactions, collaboration, and cooperation (Johnson et al., 2010; Silverman et al., 2012). Behaviors resulting from a breakdown in social interactions in the work environment are believed to contribute to the creation of a toxic work environment where connection, satisfaction, innovation, and productivity are diminished (Johnson et al., 2010; Padua et al., 2010; Silverman et al., 2012). The study of arrogance in professional settings is important due to the overall impact low performing individuals lacking in OCB can have on an organization, given that organizational success is highly dependent upon its human resources (Johnson et al, 2010; Sheth & Sisodia, 2005; Silverman et al., 2012; Padua et al., 2010).

The impact of arrogance in the workplace comes with a high cost related to individual and organizational outcomes. In most professional service industries, there are high stakes associated with performance and results (Sheth & Sisodia, 2005). Undesirable behaviors of employees could potentially impact a company's client base if they express dissatisfaction and terminate their relationship with the organization. According to Johnson et al. (2010) and Padua et al. (2010), arrogant employees typically are not aware of their impact on others, or on the organizational bottom line. Given that arrogance is a misrepresentation of oneself masking inadequacies and a lack of competence, arrogant employees identified through a performance management process incorporating the WARS, might have an opportunity to be redirected toward development of contributory behaviors yielding positive outcomes (Johnson et al., 2010; Padua et al., 2010; Silverman et al., 2012).

If professional services organizations can identify employees scoring high in arrogance, their human resources and learning and development departments may be afforded opportunities for interventions to be developed and implemented that will focus on improving core skills and competencies (Johnson et al., 2010; Silverman et al., 2012). Ultimately, the goal of organizations is to maintain a high level of productivity toward achieving their goals and objectives and meeting their bottom line. Arrogant behaviors in the workplace, that lead to lower levels of performance, can clearly undermine an organization's productivity efforts, and its ability to meet company objectives.

A retrospective look at financial systems shows that during the Great Depression many families lost their savings, became desperate, and survived on rations (Gounaris & Prout, 2009; Hamowy & Conigliaro, 2016). The 2008 crash of the stock market was marked by massive unemployment, record levels of debt, and repossession of real estate (Gounaris & Prout, 2009; Hamowy & Conigliaro, 2016). These types of profoundly impactful financial events have left scars in the psyches of personal funds investors and fear of loss and risk aversion have run rampant in the minds and souls of financial services clients (Gounaris & Prout, 2009; Hamowy & Conigliaro, 2016). Based on historic events, the relationship people have established with money, and the compromised profile of the financial services professional, FIAs must sell themselves to clients as trustworthy and capable of effectively managing their clients' money (Gounaris & Prout, 2009; Hamowy & Conigliaro, 2016; PriceMetrix Insights, 2013). They must also strategically sell investments that will bring about the greatest gain for the FIA and for their clients (Hamowy & Conigliaro, 2016; PriceMetrix Insights, 2013). Establishing, maintaining and nurturing client relationships in order to retain the client and their investments is a key activity and contributor to FIA productivity, performance and overall success (PriceMetrix Insights, 2013). There may be personal, individual characteristics that have a material impact on the FIA's ability to connect with clients and retain their business, which has an overall impact on the size of the FIA's *total assets under management* and their ability to derive revenue from investments made on behalf of clients.

The more effective a FIA is at building and maintaining client relationships, the greater the likelihood of him/her retaining clients and their professional efforts will comprise the FIA's *total assets under management* and associated revenue generated from investments as performance metrics (PriceMetrix Insights, 2013). A FIA's *total assets under management* grows based on the number of clients gained and retained and the amount of their assets (PriceMetrix Insights, 2013). Satisfied clients will stay with their FIA and refer other clients to him/her (PriceMetrix Insights, 2013). If arrogance is an impediment to building and nurturing good relationships, then a FIA's *total assets under management* can be detrimentally impacted due to the loss of clients (PriceMetrix Insights, 2013). In a general sense, the human and organizational condition can be positively impacted through gaining a deeper understanding of arrogance in the workplace and application of learnings, strategies, and tools that can serve as an antidote to arrogance. Study findings were intended to contribute to positive social change on the levels of organization, individual (employee and client), and productivity/financial impact.

## Summary and Transition

The purpose of this current study was to examine the relationship between professional arrogance and job performance using an objective, validated survey tool. This chapter discussed the background, purpose, problem statement, and significance of the study. The research questions and hypotheses, theoretical framework, key definitions, and nature of the study were also presented. Finally, I concluded the chapter with discussions regarding assumptions, limitations, scope and delimitations, and significance.

Study participants were FIAs; the IVs were their gender, tenure, and degree of arrogance as established by the WARS and the DV was the total dollar value of the FIA's *total assets under management* plus the revenue generated from client invested dollars made by the FIA. *Total assets under management* represents the sum of client assets within a FIAs portfolio (Kolakowski, 2015). This chapter contained a summary of the meaning of arrogance, and an overview of arrogance studies using subjective and objective measures. An introduction to the theoretical framework for understanding arrogance related to an individuals' level of competence was presented, along with implications of past research supporting the selection of variables and the methodology that were used in this current study. The development studies for the WARS were summarized and the variables in the current research detailed.

Chapter 2 provides a deeper understanding of the meaning of arrogance, a review of the history of research on the topic of arrogance and a comparison of arrogance to related constructs such as narcissism and humility. Through an in-depth review of the literature, the impact of arrogance on individual and organizational outcomes, and its impact in professional settings is overviewed. The possibility of arrogance having potential positive impact is also explored. Finally, an introduction to the theoretical framework for understanding arrogance related to an individuals' level of competence is presented, along with a presupposition of the impact of arrogance on organizational productivity.

Chapter 3 provides information regarding the variables involved in examining the research questions and present the reliability and validity of the WARS tool to be used as an objective measure of arrogance. The rationale for employing a quantitative research design is discussed along with a review of the DV FIA *total assets under management* and the associated revenue metric, and the IVs of arrogance, gender and tenure. Detailed information to better understand the role of FIA study participants is provided in addition to how they were recruited for the study. The plan for analyzing data via the use of linear regression and moderation analyses is presented, with the chapter concluding with a discussion of threats to validity and ethical considerations of the study.

# Chapter 2: Literature Review

## Introduction

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship of arrogance to job performance in a professional services firm. To date, few articles have examined the construct of arrogance using objectives measures and none have correlated arrogance with an objective performance index. In order to demonstrate as full a scope of the literature as possible, the review includes some articles published greater than 20 years ago. Peer-reviewed articles specific to arrogance, its measurement, leadership, and the impact of arrogance in the workplace were collected with a focus on the past 7 years. I used Google Scholar and Thoreau multidata base search for a broad review of resources for each subject area. The following targeted databases were used PsycExtra, PsycINFO, PsycARTICLES, ProQuest, Social Sciences Citation Index and Business Source Compete. Search key words and phrases used were *arrogance, professional arrogance, arrogance measurement, Workplace Arrogance Scale, narcissism, pride, hubris, confidence, overconfidence, humility, modesty, financial investment advisor*, and *single source self-report data.* Articles were downloaded and saved to a folder and subsequently categorized into subtopic folders.

Over 254 sources were collected, and 174 have been used in this dissertation. These resources were collected over a period of 4.5 years with regular bimonthly searches for any additions to the databases. Articles were categorized according to topic and then highlighted and tabbed based on subtopics. As many peer-reviewed articles and papers presented at professional conferences as possible have been included in this review, in addition to book chapters and internet resources. The most useful databases were PsycExtra and Business Source Complete. I contacted Dr. Silverman, coauthor of three critical, foundational papers in the study of professional arrogance, via email for assistance in procuring a 2012 publication I had not been able to locate otherwise. Dr. Silverman responded with a reply email attaching the 2012 publication I had cited and had been unable to locate.

## Arrogance

Arrogance is powerfully presented in modern media and is prevalent within the political arena, academic community, and business professions (Haan et al., 2007; Johnson et al., 2010; Padua et al., 2010). This construct has been defined as an exaggeration of and chronic belief in one's superiority demonstrated through entitlement behaviors, and claims of rank and power resulting in an elevation of the offending individual over others (Bauer et al., 2008; Johnson et al., 2010; Kowalski, Walker, Wilkinson, Queen, & Sharpe, 2003; Leary, Bednarski, Hammon, & Duncan, 1997; Padua et al., 2010; Silverman et al., 2012). Morf and Rhodewalt (2001) have suggested that when individuals see themselves as superior to others, it is perhaps a way of crafting a palatable self-image. Excessive claims of self-importance, and a simultaneous denigration of others and their contributions are classic hallmarks of arrogance (Hareli & Weiner, 2000; Kowalski et al., 2003; Leary et al., 1997). Ma and Karri (2005) described the extreme form of arrogance as someone perceiving themselves as omnipotent and invincible. Perhaps the most intriguing feature of this construct is that the arrogant individual believes his/her inflated self-perception and positioning of self over others is entirely justified (Johnson et al., 2010; Millon, 1981). This perception does not easily budge despite evidence to the contrary (Johnson et al., 2010; Millon, 1981). A lack of self-awareness is characteristic of the arrogant individual (Millon, 1981).

Historic world events, such as the crumbling of the Roman Empire, have been anecdotally attributed to "leadership arrogance" (Padua et al., 2010, p. 77). Gregg and Mahadevan (2014) have examined intellectual arrogance and intellectual humility from an evolutionary perspective. According to Gregg and Mahadevan, arrogance is rooted in the basic Darwinian position of survival of the fittest in which the victor is lauded as superior over the fallen or the captive.

In early writings about arrogance, Bion (1958) pronounced arrogance a "psychological catastrophe" (p. 278). Shapiro (1965) studied neurotic personality types and suggested that arrogance was an ego defense mechanism that protected against personal deficits and insecurities. Therefore, arrogant behavior appears to occur on an unconscious level as a mechanism for defending against ego insults, and compensating for one's own shortcomings (Bauer et al., 2008; Johnson et al., 2010).

Arrogance has been studied in relation to the construct of self-esteem. Emmons (1984) found that narcissistic individuals scored high on a measure of self-esteem and extrapolated that arrogant individuals would likely score similarly, given arrogance is a sub-trait of narcissism. Ryan (1983) provided a contradictory perspective suggesting that high self-esteem is associated with humility which is the opposite of arrogance, and therefore arrogance is not associated with high self-esteem. Clinical implications of arrogance were studied by Matussek, Luks, and Seibt (1986), who found that unipolar depressed study participants were more likely to present as emotionally distant, passive aggressive and arrogant toward their life partners compared to study participants diagnosed with bipolar disorder.

Robinson, Ode, Palder, and Fetterman (2012) defined “interpersonal arrogance” as “an approach-motivated behavioral strategy to social interactions” (p. 859). These authors suggested that arrogance can be best conceptualized as a blend of coldness and dominance. The impact of said arrogance can be undermining of social support, poor health, poor quality relationships, and an experience of hostility from others (Robinson et al., 2012). Arrogance is said to be related to personal characteristics such as narcissism, pride, hubris, and confidence, and to be the opposite of traits such as humility and modesty (Bauer et al., 2008; Silverman, 2012). The important distinctions between arrogance and these other constructs are outlined in the following sections.

**Arrogance Versus Narcissism**

Miller (1999) contends that behaviors of self-interest are inherent in being human, and that promotion of moral development and external interventions is required for an individual to set self-interest aside and substitute other-interest. According to Miller (1999), human self-interest is natural; however, extreme self-interest involving grandiose self-admiration is most often referred to as narcissism. Narcissism is both a social and clinical construct (Bauer et al., 2008). Beyond the Greek myth of self-loving Narcissus, Freud (1914) postulated that narcissism was the result of issues developed from childhood related to ego and libido (Judge, LePine, & Rich, 2006). Further, Freud suggested that individuals displaying narcissist tendencies could not distinguish truth from fallacy about themselves, and that they preferred fantasy over reality (Judge et al., 2005).

In present day psychiatry and clinical psychology, The American Psychiatric Association (APA) Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders – V (DSM-V) defines narcissism as "a pervasive pattern of grandiosity, need for admiration, and lack of empathy that begins by early adulthood and is present in a variety of contexts" (APA, 2013, p. 670). Narcissistic individuals embellish their achievements, present as pretentious and boastful, and routinely overestimate their abilities (APA, 2013). They are known to devalue others' contributions and expect others to admire them excessively as superior and unique (APA, 2013). Individuals displaying narcissistic behaviors tend to act with an enormous sense of entitlement without regard for the feelings of others or the impact of their behavior on others (APA, 2013; Bauer et al., 2008; Silverman et al., 2012).

Associated features of narcissism are arrogance, and exploitation of others (APA, 2013; Emmons, 1984). Emmons (1984) conducted a factor analysis of Raskin and Hall's narcissistic personality inventory and established four subscales which he titled, exploitiveness/entitlement, leadership/authority, self-absorption/self-admiration, and superiority/arrogance. Entitlement refers to an individual's belief that the universe, society, their community, organization, etc. should provide him/her with the considerations and resources of which he/she feels he/she is deserving (Brummel & Parker, 2015). Campbell, Bonacci, Shelton, Exline, and Bushman (2004) defined entitlement as “a stable and pervasive sense that one deserves more and is entitled to more than others” (p. 31).

According to Emmons (1987), egocentrism is a core element of narcissism, specifically in the superiority/arrogance subscale. It has been noted in the literature that narcissistic individuals can be especially volatile and aggressive, lashing out at others when they experience a threat to their self-esteem (Bushman & Baumeister, 1998; Grijalva & Newman, 2015). Penney and Spector (2002) found that individuals scoring high in narcissism experienced anger at work and engaged in counterproductive work behaviors more frequently than their nonnarcissistic counterparts. Narcissistic individuals may make a good short-term impression; however, over the longer term, their positioning of themselves as superior, their lack of empathy and pushing of their entitled agenda erode the previously held positive perceptions from others over time (Grijalva & Harms, 2014; Harms & Spain, 2015). In the work environment, entitlement has been demonstrated by behaviors such as taking a greater share of resources, demanding raises and promotions, and feeling one deserves a higher salary than peers (Campbell et al., 2004; Fisk, 2010).

Several authors have suggested that arrogance is the key ingredient driving narcissism and can be traced to counterproductive behaviors in the workplace (Judge et al., 2006; Penny & Spector, 2002; Silverman et al., 2012). The study of arrogance in the workplace is supported out of necessity for a narrower focus than the broad and complex construct of narcissism (Bauer et al., 2008). The primary differentiator between arrogance and narcissism is that narcissism can exist in the absence of others while arrogance, by definition, is interpersonal and involves the disparagement and denigration of others in addition to aggrandizement of the self (Bauer et al., 2008; Johnson et al., 2010; Silverman et al., 2012).

**Arrogance Versus Pride**

Pride has been described as a self-conscious, secondary emotion associated with an internal attribution to success or mastery (Lazarus, 1991; Lewis, 2008; Liu, Lu, Yu, & Chen, 2012; Weiner, 1985; Wubben, De Cremer, & van Dijk, 2012). Pride rises from a self-evaluative process associated with a specific incident or event that can be experienced in the positive (authentic), promoting a sense of accomplishment, increased self-esteem, and prosocial behaviors, or in the negative (hubristic) through a loss of pride associated with conceit and arrogance often resulting in antisocial behaviors (Ashton-James & Tracy, 2012; Bushman & Baumeister, 1998; Lewis, 2008; Tracy & Robins, 2007; Trumbull, 2010; Weiner, 1985; Wubben et al., 2012). According to Tracy and Prehn (2012), one's emotional response to public success will result in a display that is judged as either pride or arrogance. On a social level, an individual's expressions of authentic pride may improve his/her status, prestige and within group acceptance (Cheng, Tracy, & Henrich, 2010; Leary, Tambor, Terdal, & Downs, 1995; Liu et al., 2012; Tracy & Prehn, 2012; Tracy & Robins, 2007). Given the seemingly dual nature of pride, some researchers have suggested that there exist two separate and distinct emotions (Eckman, 2003; Lewis, 2000; Tracy & Prehn, 2012; Tracy & Robin, 2007; Wubben et al., 2012).

It is the negative side of the pride coin - labeled hubristic pride - that is most akin to arrogance (Ashton-James & Tracy, 2012; Lewis, 2000; Tracy & Robins, 2007). While the authentic, positive form of pride is most often celebrated, hubristic pride is marked by self-aggrandizement, dominance, and distorted self-views (Cheng et al., 2010; Lewis, 2000; Tracy & Robins, 2007; Wubben et al., 2012). Wubben et al. (2012) found across two experiments that observers ascribed the characteristics of greed, selfishness, and competitiveness to those individuals for whom they inferred hubristic pride. Assessments of hubristic pride seemed to make a statement about the individual as a whole, whereas authentic pride seemed to be related to a particular accomplishment or event (Wubben et al., 2012). According to Cheng et al. (2010) authentic pride is associated with *getting along* in addition to *getting ahead*, while hubristic pride is solely about getting ahead and associated with antisocial, self-centered behaviors (Ashton-James & Tracy, 2012).

**Arrogance Versus Confidence**

Confidence refers to belief in one's abilities, commonly referred to as self-efficacy (Peterson 2006). It has also been cited as an essential ingredient of successful job performance and leadership (Jiang, Stone, Sun, & Zhang, 2011; Piccone, Dagnino, & Mina, 2014). Confidence is a motivator with social, competitive and financial benefits (Van Zant & Moore, 2013). In the business world, confident leaders garner the positive attributes of credibility, stature, and influence (Van Zant & Moore, 2013).

Overconfidence seems to be driven by self-enhancing beliefs that exist in the absence of accurate information about the self and others (Ma & Karri, 2005; Mannes & Moore, 2013; Van Zant & Moore, 2013). Arrogance and overconfidence may be related in that a form of distorted self-belief and apathy can arise from "a false sense of security experienced after success" (Ma & Karri, 2005, p. 69). Overconfidence – when a person believes they are better than they really are – has consequences that can outweigh its benefits (Johnson & Fowler, 2011). Overconfidence can be perceived as competence; however, assertiveness does not necessarily translate into competence (Van Zant & Moore, 2013). Research has shown that people tend to be impressed and influenced by those they perceive as competent, whether they are truly competent or not (Van Zant & Moore, 2013). Excessive self-confidence can lead to impossible-to-execute strategies, impulsivity, and risk taking (Piccone et al., 2014). According to Jiang et al. (2011, p. 491), "overconfident managers tend to overestimate returns and underestimate risks". When these behaviors occur within a context of power, the outcomes can be "catastrophic" (Piccone et al., 2014, p. 447). Accurate and timely feedback is required to combat overconfidence (Ma & Karri, 2005; Mannes & Moore, 2013).

Arrogant individuals appear confident; however, research findings suggest that displays of arrogant behavior mask poor self-confidence (Bauer et al., 2008; Johnson et al., 2010). Truly confident people are typically accurate in their assessment of themselves specific to their abilities; whereas individuals categorized as arrogant mask insecurity and lack of competence behind a confident or sometimes overconfident presentation and representation of themselves (Bauer et al., 2008; Johnson et al., 2010; Silverman et al., 2012).

**Arrogance Versus Hubris**

The term hubris originates from ancient Greek history and mythology describing the rise to glory and tragic fall of stated heroes (Trumbull, 2010). Hubris was referred to as excessive self-pride believed to be a crime that should be punished and could "end in deadly retribution" (Trumbull, 2010, p. 341). Similar to narcissism, hubris lacks an interpersonal element and involves being self-focused (Silverman et al., 2012). Hubris springs from a false sense of confidence based on an exaggerated belief in one's qualities and abilities (Claxton, Owen, & Sadler-Smith, 2015; Silverman et al., 2012). According to Judge, Piccolo, and Kosalka (2009), and Piccone et al. (2014), a mixture of excessive pride and overconfidence results in hubris which causes the affected party to overestimate his/her talents, skills and abilities.

Hubris syndrome, proposed by Owen and Davidson (2009), originates from acquiring a position of power and a lack of containment of the individual's behavior. Woodruff (2005, p. 15) declared that hubris "is not only an attitude, it is a kind of action as well". Overlapping with narcissism, hubris syndrome is characterized by a combination of attitudinal and behavioral criteria involving seeking power and claiming glory, overconfidence in one's decisions and judgements, contempt for feedback from others, loss of perspective with reality, and a sense of omnipotence (Owen & Davidson, 2009). The individual affected by hubris truly believes that the capabilities and contribution of others pales in comparison to his/hers, as their perspective is that they are more efficient and perform better than others (Piccone et al., 2014).

The media commonly cite CEO hubris as a key ingredient of poor organizational performance (Petit & Bollaert, 2012). Claxton et al. (2015), claimed that, in addition to exaggerated self-belief and a sense of overconfidence based on one's actual abilities, hubris in the business world includes "contempt for the advice and criticism of others" (p.

58). Fears (2005) defined hubris as “outrageous arrogance”, and according to Russell (2011), hubris is being intoxicated by power.

The consequences of hubris in the business world are that leaders operating from this form of excessive pride fail to take in information needed to make sound decisions, do not seek the necessary help and support, and then attempt to dodge responsibility for their mistakes and failures (Hayward, 2007; Petit & Bollaert, 2012). Petit and Bollaert (2012, p. 266), commented that the “hubristic CEO has a grandiose sense of self” and considers him/herself above all others outside the bounds of traditional laws or rules. Collins (2009) identified hubris as the first sign of decline within an organization. This state is characterized by the arrogance of leadership, a lack of insight into what historically contributed to the organization’s success, and blind entitlement (Collins, 2009).

**Arrogance Versus Humility**

Humility and modesty are often used to describe characteristics that are counter to arrogant, self- enhancing behaviors (Cullen, Gentry, & Yammarino, 2015). Humility is described as a character virtue; an “adaptive form of pride” (Chancellor & Lyubomirsky, 2013, p. 819). There are two different types of humility: dispositional or trait humility is when an individual demonstrates consistently humble behaviors across situations; and, state or situational humility which is often described as a humbling moment or experience such as a baby’s birth (Chancellor & Lyubomirsky, 2013; Landrum, 2011). This construct is composed of many descriptive components: low self-focus; lack of distorted self-perspective evidenced by an accurate evaluation of one’s abilities and competence, and holding them into reasonable perspective; acknowledgement of one's limits, marked by a secure identity, and gaps in knowledge; and, an openness to new knowledge and the suggestions and contributions of others (Chancellor & Lyubomirsky, 2013; Gregg & Mahadevan, 2014; Tangney, 2000; Landrum, 2011).

Contrary to the negative emotions and behaviors associated with arrogance, humility involves emotional management, self-awareness and accurate self-appraisal leading to objective perspective of self, appreciation of others and openness to new ideas (Morris, Brotheridge, & Urbanski, 2005; Owens, Johnson, & Mitchell, 2013; Tangney, 2000). According to ancient philosophers, an openness to learning is an antidote to arrogance; one cannot develop a false belief that he/she knows all if he/she is open to the process of continuous learning (Ghosh, 2002). Although there have been benefits cited as being associated with humility, this construct has also been linked to negative connotations such as weakness and lowliness (Rowatt et al., 2006).

Some additional positive characteristics associated with humility are a lack of self-serving bias, being respectful of others, and willing to admit mistakes (Rowatt et al., 2006). Rowatt et al. found that in contrast to arrogance, humility paved the way for success in approaching a cognitive challenge. Similar to arrogance, humility is an understudied personality characteristic; however, studies to date suggest that individuals who demonstrate humility do so through a clear lens reflected in their accurate self-perceptions and decreased incidences of distorted self-performance and abilities ratings (Davis, Worthington, & Hook, 2010; Peterson & Seligman, 2004). Research further suggests that humility is best rated by others, versus reliance on self-report (Chancellor & Lyubomirsky, 2013; Tangney, 2000).

Humility is a quality to aspire to and counters arrogant tendencies if one is striving for success. Humble people tend not to enhance information and instead see themselves and others clearly without distortion or the need for exaggeration, allowing them to recognize strengths and weaknesses inherent in themselves and others (Chancellor & Lyubomirsky, 2013; Tangney, 2000). For example, individuals with a high degree of self-esteem and low sensitivity to ego threats are accepting of the nature of their limitations and can flourish in the workplace by seeking input, admitting mistakes, and learning how to build their competence, which in turn builds appropriate confidence (Chancellor & Lyubomirsky, 2013; Peterson & Seligman, 2004; Tangney, 2000). Humility prompts one to seek truth even if the results may have unfavorable personal impact (Chancellor & Lyubomirsky, 2013; Tangney, 2000). Being humble renders one open to new insights, learning and experiences; "the humble are teachable" (Chancellor & Lyubomirsky, 2013, p. 825).

Ego, hubris, entitlement, narcissism and arrogance have been cited as contributing factors to corporate scandals and poor decision-making (Boje, Roslie, Durant, & Luhman, 2004; Chatterjee & Hambrick, 2007; Thomas, 2002). Humility as a strength of leadership is becoming more prevalent in the literature as a foundational principle of effective leadership development. The etymology of the word humility, humi/humus meaning ground or earth, suggests that humility in leadership begins from the ground up (Online Etymology Dictionary, 2015; Owens & Hekman, 2012). Several current leadership theories use humility as their springboard, such as servant leadership (Greenleaf & Spears, 2002), participative leadership (Kim, 2002) and level 5 leadership (Collins, 2001). These leadership theories submit that in order to create a healthy, productive, performance-enhanced culture, leaders must develop and practice the moral virtue of humility.

## Arrogance in Professional Settings

In a professional setting, behaviors associated with arrogance include intellectual posturing, boasting, acting as though rules and policies do not apply to oneself, rejecting blame and accountability while blaming and demeaning others, incivility and fundamental disrespect, and dismissing the ideas and contributions of others (Johnson et al., 2010; Marks, 2012; Padua et al., 2010; Silverman et al., 2012). Extreme arrogant workplace behaviors include swearing, gossiping, bad-mouthing coworkers, screaming, resisting feedback, and disparaging others (Silverman et al., 2012). According to Ghosh (2002), the presence of arrogance in individuals and organizations will most likely lead to greed, a “false sense of invincibility to criticisms”, ignoring the advice of experts, closed-mindedness and blindness to reality. The limited research on arrogance in the workplace suggests that the study of arrogance should garner more attention from organizational psychology scholars due to its detrimental impact on individual performance (Bauer et al., 2008; Johnson et al., 2010), collegial relationships (Johnson & Chang, 2006), and organizational outcomes (Levine, 2005; Padua et al., 2010). Several authors have provided a contribution to the literature through anecdotal summaries specific to how arrogance tends to show up in their professions.

**Engineers**

In an editorial piece for an engineering professionals' magazine, Haupt (2003) recounted his experience at a conference, of listening to a group of engineers hail how glorious and superior they were and how everyone else was beneath them. Haupt's concern was how this "haughty arrogance" might lead to prejudice, hatred, and bigotry. He called for a more level perspective where women and engineering candidates from other cultures would be given due consideration and not automatically be seen as "less than."

Ghosh (2002) argued, based on a review of incidents, that the cause of "real world" engineering disasters can be traced to arrogance, which led to unethical decision-making. He has suggested that engineering ethics will best be taught within a frame of "humbleness." Contrasting humility to arrogance, Ghosh described humility as a reasonable assessment of one's worth and abilities while being free from vanity and conceit. Arrogance blinds the arrogant individual from reality, while humbleness keeps the individual open to possibilities and wards off overconfidence (Ghosh, 2002).

**Physicists**

In an opinion piece by Gibson (2003), he shared the "wisdom" of a senior executive from early in his career; "arrogance was something to be proud of" and nurtured (p. 54). Over the course of his career, Gibson has come to see arrogance as a weapon that can be used for good by physicists to cut through the unknowns of the natural world within the context of controlled ignorance. He also expressed concern that the double-edged sword of arrogance holds a trap whereby physicists as practitioners of objective science believe their way is the only way and the right way. This arrogant mindset also carries with it a presumption that other sciences are inferior and that the general public are essentially ignoramuses. Gibson also cited anecdotal cases of ethical issues and infractions created by physicists where their lack of integrity in results reporting was a symptom of their arrogance.

Similar to the anecdotal evidence of underrepresentation of non-whites and females in the profession of engineering, Gibson (2003) cited a similar observation within the field of physics. He further described the existence of a set of intragroup (white male) rules and behavior patterns that are next to impossible for an individual external to the group to learn, and that would likely not be accepted from someone female, or from a different race/culture. Gibson highlighted what he referred to as "a problem in [their] profession" whereby physicists' objectivity has led to a belief in their elitism and superiority. Gibson proposed that physics students be taught to separate their science (where arrogance is potentially useful), from their profession (where arrogance has created issues with in-group interactions and with the public).

**Physicians**

Bauerschmidt (2008) cautioned physicians and physician leaders about allowing ego and arrogance to substitute for competence. He provided anecdotal "real world" medical examples of physicians operating from a belief that they were better than they were, as it pertained to rendering a correct diagnosis. In both instances, the physician permitted overconfidence nestled in arrogance to prompt them to make quick decisions. The physician chose to believe in his sense of superiority and did not seek additional information. Relying on presupposition kept the physician ignorant, resulting in potentially dire medical circumstances for the patient.

According to Berger (2002), arrogance is regrettably commonplace amongst physicians and can have harmful effects on staff relationships and patient outcomes. As a critical success factor, physicians are held accountable to quality patient care and satisfaction of patients with the way they are treated in healthcare interactions. Berger suggested that arrogance can be seen in a physician's behavior demonstrating lack of respect for medical staff and patients, being overly critical and abusive toward subordinates sometimes in the presence of patients, and in the language used by male physicians to address females such as "honey" or "dear". Berger called for a greater emphasis on cultivating empathy and humility in the process of teaching ethics in medical school. He believes that the "good old days" of medical students learning respect, humility, and simple courtesies are gone. Although being a physician remains a noble profession, Berger contends that long gone are the days when doctors served their communities with little regard for personal, material rewards. Being a physician grants the individual a position of high standing in society, and many physicians fall prey to the seduction and "corruption of arrogance"; being "the all-knowing and powerful doctor" (Berger, 2002, p. 2). Berger suggested that physicians develop a sense of their own humanness - they are doctor and also patient – and they would be wise not to inflate their sense of importance.

**Accountants**

Chartered Professional Accountants (Canada) or Certified Public Accountants (United States) must possess high intellectual abilities and a high degree of education, with specialized training and technical skills (Bagley, Dalton, & Ortegren, 2012; Radtke, 2008). Accountants who provide professional services to clients must establish positive relationships, based on specific moral obligations, while abiding by a code of professional ethics (De Silva, 2013; Radtke, 2008). It is necessary for accountants to be of service to others in order to retain clients, maintain their business contracts, and remain competitive (Bagley et al., 2012; De Silva, 2013; Tolleson & Pai, 2011).

Perhaps the most well-known accounting firms are the Big 4; Deloitte Touche Komatsu, Ernst & Young, Klynveld Peat Marwick Goerdeler (KPMG) and PricewaterhouseCoopers (PwC) (Bagley et al., 2012; Tolleson & Pai, 2011, p. 56). According to an industry annual report based on 2014 earnings, the Big 4 are responsible for auditing 80 percent of US publicly traded companies, and each produce revenue of between $25 billion and $35 billion (Public Accounting Report, 2015). Since the criminal indictment in 2002 of the Arthur Anderson auditing house in relation to the collapse of Enron, the Enron scandal forced the accounting profession onto the center stage through media coverage and public disclosure of court proceedings related to audit failure and accounting fraud (Thomas, 2002). According to Boje et al. (2004) and Thomas (2002), the downfall of Enron was the direct result of corporate greed and arrogance.

In general, accountants are responsible for providing a good customer experience for clients of their accounting firms (Aquila & Keltin, 1992; Helmi, 1998). Providing a quality client experience requires accountants to have a level of self-awareness of their behavior and their impact on others (Aquila & Keltin, 1992; Radtke, 2008). De Silva (2013) cited Bain & Company's 2005 survey of 362 chartered accounting firms that revealed that 80 percent of these firms believed they delivered a great client experience. Results from their clients surveyed showed only eight percent felt they had received a great customer experience. Clients who left their accountant were surveyed as to the reason why, and 67 percent indicated that his/her accountant "didn't treat me right" (De Silva, 2013, p. 43). This phenomenon could be likened to a physician lacking in bedside manner.

The business impact of dissatisfied clients is that they "jump ship" from one firm to the competition (De Silva, 2013). Competition for business is rife between accounting firms, with each readily poised to poach a dissatisfied client from another (De Silva, 2013). If greed and arrogance are inherent in the accounting profession as has been purported, these negative qualities could have an impact on client relationships and the decision of a client to remain with a particular firm or fire a firm and move to another. This is a clear example of potential direct business impact.

**Financial Investment Advisors**

Financial planning pioneer Dick Wagner proposed 1969 as the first year for the financial planning profession and stated that financial services professionals are part of the most important profession of this century (Yeske, 2017). Wagner proclaimed, “money is the most powerful and pervasive secular force on the planet” which speaks to huge responsibility (Yeske, 2017, p. 15). According to Wagner, the vices associated with money are too often discussed and the functions and virtues of money are not discussed enough (Yeske, 2017). Wagner believes that money is the key to wealth and well-being and the source of a well-lived life. It follows then that the study and logic of money and the management of personal finances is a critical knowledge base and valuable skill to possess. The professional purpose of a FIA is to focus on human beings and money. The mission of financial planning and advising is to work with families and individuals through their intimate relationships with money. Thus, FIAs are involved in sensitive and intimate relationships with their clients which they must learn to navigate in such a way that keeps the client close and trusting (Yeske 2017).

Duska (2013) recounted the arrest of Bernie Madoff for operating a Ponzi scheme, considered severely unethical behavior for a financial service professional, and posed the question: what makes good people do bad things? In addition to citing weakness of will and ignorance, Duska offered arrogance as a possible culprit. FIAs are well-trained, certified asset managers who hold an inordinate amount of responsibility for managing their clients’ money. FIAs are expected to work autonomously; the word autonomy directly translates into “self-ruling” (Duska, 2013; p. 23). The mindset that seems to develop for many FIAs based on their specialized knowledge base is that they “know better than others” (p. 23). FIAs who arrogantly operate under their own self-governed rules see themselves as “above the law”, and if they elect to blur lines and act unethically, this can mean detrimental consequences for them and their clients.

According to Duska, the antidote to arrogance is knowing and accepting one's limits; also called humility.

In a unique study of FIAs, researchers professionally engaged 22 financial advisors, over a four-year period, who provided their advice on investment portfolios worth between $100,000 and $500,000. The researchers were interested in measuring the effect of the FIA's "moral and emotional competencies on their clients' portfolio performances", for example which advisors brought about the greatest return on investments for their clients? (Petersen, Emmerling, & Spencer, 2007, p. 2). A meta-analysis of competency research has revealed 24 core competencies that represent the characteristics most related to performance. In their study, these researchers identified one cognitive competency and 11 behavioral competencies which were: integrity (i.e. delivering on commitments), client service orientation (i.e. striving to meet clients' needs), concern for quality and order, teamwork & collaboration, self-confidence, achievement orientation, strategic thinking, develops & teaches others, takes initiative to resolve problems, interpersonal understanding, impact and influence, and relationship building (Petersen et al., 2007, p. 2).

Behavioral event interviewing was incorporated into a research model designed to use competencies to differentiate between high performing and low performing advisors; identifying who provided the highest returns for their clients (Petersen et al., 2007, p. 2). The competencies of integrity, client service orientation, concern for order/quality, teamwork, self- confidence, and achievement orientation "accounted for 70% of the variance in client portfolio performance" (Petersen et al., 2007, p. 6). These statistically significant results suggest that moral and emotional competencies support the action of helping clients to make good decisions toward increasing returns on their investments, and grow the *total assets under management* for high performing FIAs. In support of these findings specific to achievement orientation, Garmhausen (2015) suggested that the highest performing FIAs are client-centred, optimistic, innovative and creative in the way in which they bring about results for their clients. Unlike the arrogant approach which dictates ‘stay the course and do what has always been done to bring about results’ whether positive outcomes are achieved or not, the approach of the successful advisor is take the risk and try something new (Ma & Karri, 2005).

The study of arrogance in professional settings is important due to the potential and consequential individual, team, client, and organizational impact (Johnson et al., 2010; Padua et al., 2010; Sheth & Sisodia, 2005; Silverman et al., 2012). The compromising and destructive behaviors of leaders and others in organizations are often highlighted in the wake of corporate scandals. Pater (2014) provided a real-world view of what arrogance looks like in his work environment of professional safety. “All problems stem from others not doing what they’re told/what they should”, “I see all and know all”, “I’m okay, others have to change” (p. 30). Pater counsels these individuals to listen, look at their contribution to the problem, take personal responsibility, be accountable, and learn from mistakes instead of dismissing others through disparaging remarks. Interventions designed to foster empathy, develop effective communication skills, and support a framework of curiosity and learning versus presenting as all-knowing, could contribute to promoting respectful interactions and a more collaborative, cooperative, and productive workplace (Haan et al., 2007; Johnson et al., 2010; Silverman et al., 2012).

## Arrogance Studies

Empirical evidence in the organization and leadership literature on arrogance in the workplace, and its impact on organizational outcomes, is sparse (Johnson et al, 2010; Sheth & Sisodia, 2005; Silverman et al., 2012). Early arrogance research relied on the perceptions and reports of study participants of individuals within social studies environments. Much of what has been written about arrogance involves perceptions, and projected patterns and dynamics (Haan et al., 2007; Padua et al., 2010). Hareli and Weiner (2000), and Hareli, Weiner, and Yee (2006) have contributed to the arrogance literature through their findings that people are perceived as arrogant who attribute their success to internal, stable and uncontrollable characteristics or qualities such as intelligence. Hareli and Weiner (2000) further found that an individual was only perceived as arrogant if the trait to which they attributed their success was desirable, and that the perception of arrogance was not related to the person's true success.

Higher education and positions in academia carry with them a perception of arrogance. Individuals are usually highly intellectual and are often perceived as elevating themselves to positions of superiority while relegating others to a position of lower intelligence and less authority (Haan et. al., 2007). In an effort to gain an understanding of how the presence of arrogance is perceived in academics, business, and non-business (professional) environments, Haan et al. (2007) conducted a study involving the perceptions of 500 business students. The study involved the participants rating the reference groups on perceived arrogance (Haan et al., 2007). Professors were perceived as arrogant, however non-educators and graduate business students were perceived as more arrogant (Haan et al., 2007).

The majority of systematic research on arrogance has been carried out by a small group of researchers associated with Johnson et al. (2010) and Silverman et al. (2012). Bauer et al. (2008) found that needs such as autonomy, achievement, and dominance were positively related to arrogance, while affiliation showed a negative association. Additional findings included that arrogance was negatively associated with self-esteem and learning goal orientation, positively related to self-identity, and a lack of desire to relate with and spend time with others at work. Finally, Bauer et al. (2008) found that overall cognitive ability, including numerical and verbal ability, were negatively correlated with arrogance.

The limited organization research conducted on the topic of arrogance and its impact in the workplace has been made possible because of the development of the WARS (Johnson et al. (2010); Silverman et al., 2012). Workplace arrogance has been explored across four pivotal studies. In Johnson et al.'s (2010) foundational study, the researchers set out to develop and validate a tool for measuring arrogance in the workplace. They employed focus groups of full time employees and asked participants to bring to mind someone who they perceived as behaving arrogantly. The critical incident behaviors were reported and distilled down to 50 test items. An example of a response received is "belittles someone else's competence in front of others" (p. 407). Through participants' responses, the researchers confirmed their working definition of arrogance as self-enhancement of one's importance over others while also belittling others. The researchers hypothesized that there would be a negative correlation between arrogance and Agreeableness and humility, and that arrogance would be positively related to anger, authority, entitlement, dominance, and superiority. The process of evaluation of the tool involved data collection via self-report from 239 students enrolled in a psychology course in a large Midwestern U.S. university. Results demonstrated a positive correlation between arrogance and constructs such as entitlement and dominance, and a negative correlation with Agreeableness and humility. The WARS was confirmed to not be redundant with the Narcissistic Personality Inventory (NPI). One of the study limitations cited was that the behaviors described in the tool, for which participants self-assessed, could have been interpreted as undesirable and in breach of workplace norms.

Researchers conducted three subsequent studies to explore: the degree to which social desirability may have impacted the results of the first study, and the relationship between arrogance and job performance (Johnson et al., 2010). Arrogance scores secured with the WARS have been positively correlated with constructs such as dominance, entitlement, trait anger, social dominance and psychological strain, and negatively correlated with Agreeableness, and humility (Johnson et al., 2010). Study findings have also established arrogance as a sub-element of narcissism given the overlap in entitlement and superiority dimensions, and a different construct from narcissism in that self-sufficiency and authority were established to not be related to arrogance. Johnson et al. clearly distinguished arrogance and narcissism as related, yet separate and different, constructs. Arrogance has been associated with low self-rated self-esteem scores, and job performance assessed through performance ratings (Johnson et al., 2010). Researchers have established that arrogance scores secured from the WARS were not related to social desirability (Johnson et al., 2010; Silverman et al., 2012). Further, arrogance was negatively associated with self-reported OCB suggesting a relationship between arrogance and job performance, while controlling for cognitive ability and narcissism. In research to date, arrogance has shown to be negatively correlated with interpersonal workplace behavior (Johnson et al., 2010; Silverman et al., 2012).

In an exploratory study, Johnson et al. (2010) collected data on arrogance related to task performance from participant employees, supervisors, peers, and direct reports. Included in this data collection was the WARS which had included as part of a 360 degree performance feedback survey. Additionally, the researchers collected cognitive ability scores to answer the exploratory question of whether or not the presence of arrogance in arrogant individuals was based on true superior performance or if their arrogant behavior was grounded in average or inferior performance. Results of this study showed statistically significant negative relationships between arrogance and cognitive ability, and arrogance and task performance. Self - direct report ratings were in agreement and supervisor – peer ratings were in agreement. The authors suggested that arrogant employees may behave differently toward those lower than them in the organizational hierarchy versus those who are considered on their level or above. Perhaps consequences of arrogant behavior toward those beneath them in the organizational chain are fewer and less severe (Johnson et al., 2010). In summary, these findings suggest, arrogance is negatively related to verbal ability, numerical ability, and overall total cognitive ability. According to Johnson et al. (2010), “employees who were rated high on arrogance tended to receive low performance ratings, regardless of rater source”, and “arrogance predicts task performance independent of cognitive ability” (p. 418).

Similar to narcissism, arrogance does seem to have an impact on performance at work (Johnson et al., 2010; Judge et al., 2006; Silverman et al., 2012). Although research has shown that arrogance, in general, is not related to reality-based success factors (Hareli & Weiner, 2000; Hareli et al., 2006), and arrogant behavior unique to the workplace is related to low cognitive ability and low scores in task performance, no literature exists in which the arrogance-performance relationship has been examined using objective performance outcome indices (Johnson et al., 2010; Silverman et al., 2012; S. Silverman, personal communication, October 12, 2014). In the previous studies cited, performance-related ratings, OCB and task performance, were subjective in nature. Johnson et al. defended their findings based on subjective ratings, informing that it is these types of subjective ratings that are most often used in hiring, and promotion decisions within organizations.

Research to date using the WARS as an objective measure of arrogance have used university students studying psychology or business as their primary sample populations. Although work experience was a set criterion for inclusion in workplace arrogance studies, across all studies only 47% of participants were employed full time, the average age of participants was 29.5 years old, 60% were female, the average work tenure was 20 months and the primary industries represented were property management, retail and manufacturing.  On average across the hallmark arrogance studies utilizing the WARS, only 22% of participants were in roles/jobs that were designated as "professional".  In summary, additional limitations within existing research are that males have been underrepresented, and how arrogance relates to performance for populations of full-time employed professionals, over 30 years of age, who have worked for greater than 2 years in their roles has not yet been explored.

## Impact of Arrogance on Individuals

Leslie and Van Velsor (1996) of the Center for Creative Leadership found that a key factor in the failure of executives was him/her acting in an arrogant manner. Arrogance is seen as socially undesirable, therefore, arrogant individuals are liked less than modest individuals (Schlenker & Leary, 1982; Wosinska, Dabul, Whetstone-Dion, & Cialdini, 1996).  According to Leary et al., (1995), the superior position that arrogant individuals take in relation to others may lead the non-arrogant person to feel dismissed and devalued.  Kowalski et al. (2003) reported from their study of "aversive interpersonal behaviors" (p. 487) and the differences in perceptions of perpetrators and victims, that victims felt put down, belittled, hurt and undesired.  Kowalski et al. also established that victims of arrogant behaviors felt that the arrogant individual was lying in their efforts to misrepresent him/herself.  Others most often assess arrogant individuals as being more deserving of failure (Johnson et al., 2010).

Attempts to engage in interpersonal relationships and social exchanges with an arrogant individual are most often cited as uncomfortable because most people are uncertain about how to effectively interact with and respond to an arrogant individual.

(Leary et al., 1997; Paulhus, 1998). Victims of arrogance perceive the arrogant behavior more negatively than the arrogant offender (Kowalski et al., 2003). According to Hoorens, Pandelaere, Oldersma, and Sedikids (2012), "people loathe individuals who look down on others" (p. 1239). Self-superiority claims are experienced as offensive because they inherently go against societal norms through the persistent comparative narrative of self to others (Hoorens et al., 2012). These interactions can become quite complicated when the dynamic involves colleagues, or a manager-subordinate relationship where individuals have contact on a very regular basis (Johnson et al., 2010). Individuals who behave arrogantly in the workplace tend to have poor performance ratings and are reported to contribute to stressful, uncomfortable working conditions (Johnson et al., 2010).

The research is clear that arrogant employees have poorer job performance and lower cognitive ability than their less arrogant counterparts (Johnson et al., 2010). These results are the opposite of how these individuals act in the presence of others. Their behavior is at conflict with reality and occurs at "the expense of others" (Johnson et al., p. 421). Arrogant behaviors are believed to be a mask to hide incompetence and undesirable evaluation of the self (Johnson et al., 2010). When the self-worth of arrogant individuals was measured via self-assessment, a negative relationship between arrogance and self-esteem was reported (Johnson et al., 2010). This finding suggests that arrogant individuals may engage in behaviors such as disrespecting colleagues, rejecting their ideas, discounting their feedback and claiming to be more knowledgeable as unconscious protection from their personal deficits (Johnson et al., 2010).

## Potential Impact of Arrogance on Organizations

Blustein (2001) and Flum (2001) both wrote about the critical nature of the interfacing between interpersonal relationships and work. According to Flum, work defines the self and taken literally is an egocentric endeavor. Current work environments, however, require teamwork, and relatedness while being impacted by the organizational culture, social culture, and the individual personality traits brought to work by every individual employee (Flum, 2001). Employees who are able to foster mutually beneficial, intra-organizational relationships hold a distinct advantage over their less relationship-driven counterparts (Bauer et al., 2008). Wu and LeBreton (2011) highlighted the need for increased study of adverse behaviors and aberrant personality characteristics in deepening our understanding of negative, counterproductive workplace behaviors.

Research regarding what makes leaders successful and what contributes to leadership failure, has been growing over the past two decades. Positive personality traits can lead to success, while personal characteristics such as volatility and arrogance can lead to uncompromising failure (Bentz, 1985; Gladdis & Foster, 2015; Hogan, Hogan, & Kaiser, 2011; Judge, Piccolo, & Kosalka, 2009). Bentz (1967, 1985) a pioneer in the study of leadership failure, discovered that leader and manager derailment – demotion, lack of promotion, and/or firing – was 100 percent due to “an overriding personality defect” (Kaiser, LeBreton, & Hogan, 2015, p. 56). Leadership success is determined by a combination of positive dimensions and behaviors (i.e. effective communication skills, emotional stability, and conscientiousness) and an absence of derailing negative behaviors such as moodiness, insensitivity, abrasiveness, and arrogance (Bentz, 1985; Hogan, Curphy, & Hogan, 1994; Horner, 1997).

Hogan, Hogan, and Kaiser (2011), in their review of management derailment, cited dysfunctional behaviors stemming from personality defects as the core issue of leadership failure. The authors estimated the average rate of managerial failure to be approximately 50 percent. Two key features of leadership derailment which are associated with arrogance are, biased self-perceptions (the stable personality feature of seeing oneself differently from the perspective of others) and self-enhancement tendencies (overly optimistic self-views) (Cullen et al., 2015). Arrogant leaders have the propensity to be "overly optimistic" regarding the likelihood of success underestimating potential competition, roadblocks or barriers to success (Johnson et al., 2010). This dynamic involves the arrogant mind overestimating one's own individual power and instead practicing complacency, thus setting the stage for competitors to grow until they become too influential to contain (Ma & Kerri, 2005). The organizational impact of untoward behaviors of these leaders is reflected in the increased stress experienced by employees, and lower levels of engagement and productivity (Gentry, 2010; Hogan et al., 2011). The fiscal impact is enormous given these leaders should be dismissed from the organization and replaced in the company's efforts to create a healthy, engaging, productive work environment (Gentry, 2010; Hogan et al., 2011).

Successful leaders often develop an arrogant, invincible mindset that can, unfortunately, lead to complacency, closed-mindedness and "blind spots" to the actual nature of competitive threats (Ma & Karri, 2005). This arrogant approach to business, of holding onto what has always worked, renders a company vulnerable. What is usually required is a shift in strategy to remain competitive. According to Sheth and Sisodia (2005), success does not always breed success. In fact, success can breed failure when arrogance is a mediating force in the equation. Many companies enjoy early success, become blind to their vulnerabilities, settle into complacency and ultimately crash course into failure (Sheth & Sisodia, 2005). Ma and Karri cited IBM as an example of a company that believed its dominance would remain, and that their mainframe computer strategy was superior to the strategy of its competitors. IBM's blind arrogance led to an erosion of its competitive advantage with the infusion of personal computers into the marketplace (Ma & Karri, 2005).

Kaiser and Hogan (2006) cited a "rule-of-thumb" for darker personality traits at work whereby associated behaviors are more likely to be seen from individuals having the most autonomy and highest levels of discretion in the company. Research on arrogant and narcissistic leaders indicates that holding inflated, overconfident self-views is associated with abusive leadership behavior (Johnson et al., 2010; Johnson et al, 2012; Penney & Spector, 2002). Arrogant behavior in organizations could potentially impact internal relationships within the work team, customer loyalty, and client satisfaction ultimately affecting the company's bottom line (Silverman et al., 2012). According to Elrod (2013), leaders must learn to walk the fine line between confidence and arrogance, and listening, empathy trust and humility are practical moderators to help leaders navigate this fine line.

Arrogant employees elevate their own agenda, comforts and welfare over those of others and the organization as a whole (Johnson et al., 2010). They perceive helping others as a “waste” of time and are not interested in the problems and concerns of others. So, what are the potential influence of workplace arrogance on outcomes? Johnson et al. claimed that in addition to “negative socioemotional consequences” (p. 422) for those behaving arrogantly, there are potential costs to the organization such as fractured leader-member relationships, dampened team morale, poor project management, and loss of clients/customers should loyalty and satisfaction be impacted by employee arrogance.

**Potential Positive Impact of Arrogance**

Arrogance has been associated in the literature with undesirable individual and organizational outcomes; poor cognitive abilities, low job performance, failure of leadership, and the potential for decreased productivity (Bauer et al., 2008; Johnson et al., 2010). Bauer et al. (2008) suggested that arrogance may prove beneficial in competitive situations where an arrogant individual’s behaviors and overall presence may be experienced as authoritative and intimidating. The authors contend that in competitive circumstances, arrogance may breed influence and a sense of expertise whereby the arrogant individual is seen as more qualified than others. A widespread example of this phenomenon is political campaign television ads (Bauer et al., 2008). In these paid advertisements, one candidate flogs the reputation of the other while waving a flag of his/her accomplishments. According to Bauer et al., these political tactics have proven to be very useful in positioning one candidate ahead of the other in the polls. These authors also cited an additional consideration regarding the benefit of arrogance. They have suggested that arrogant leaders, for example in the military, or where time or crisis management is paramount, may in fact be effective leaders because they allow for very little dissent from their subordinates, promote very little process creep, and command compliance due to their superiority.

In an interesting study undertaken by Wang et al. (2013), the researchers asked the question “does service employee arrogance discourage sales of luxury brands in emerging markets?” (p. 918). Prior research had suggested that to build relationships and make sales, service employees needed to be congenial and hospitable to potential consumers (Lovelock & Wirtz, 2007; Wang et al., 2013). Wang et al. conducted research in the emerging economy of China and found that consumers treated arrogantly by salespeople tended to lower their expectations of the sales experience. These lowered expectations were then more easily met in subsequent selling encounters. Furthermore, arrogance was associated with explicit negative attitudes, while the existence of implicit positive attitudes was strongly associated with an influence on the purchase of luxury brands (Wang et al., 2013). An interesting finding – which may be specific to luxury brands – was that when a service employee followed up an arrogant sales encounter with a genuine, hospitably positive encounter, it was as though the arrogance was erased and the likelihood of purchase behavior increased (Wang et al., 2013).

## Theoretical Framework

The current study draws on the propositions of the Arrogance-Competence Theory proposed by Padua et al. (2010). This theory suggests that arrogance in organizations is driven by the need to be seen as superior and can lead to a downfall of individuals and organizations similar to the dissolution of civilizations throughout history. Based on Golson's (2007) two-dimensional Arrogance-Competence Grid, plotting intelligence on one axis and arrogance on the other, these researchers used a deductive, "axiomatic approach to theory development" to derive an Arrogance-Competence Theory to be applied to organizations and their employees (p. 76). Padua et al.'s theory outlines the relationships between three variables: arrogance, competence, and productivity. The theory asserts that a dyadic relationship exists between arrogance and competence, whereby arrogant individuals tend to be less competent than their less arrogant, more humble counterparts (Padua et al., 2010). Furthermore, according to this theory, productivity is negatively correlated with arrogance and positively correlated with competence (Padua et al., 2010).

Golson acknowledged that some arrogance in business combined with guts, will and intellect make for a winning combination in business. Golson contended that being competent is desirable, while being arrogant is not such a good thing and is perceived as a negative trait. Golson's very simplistic competence-arrogance grid highlights four potential behavioral outcomes of competence-arrogance combinations:

1. Low competence matched with low arrogance: although likely an "easy to get along with" type of individual, this type of person is unlikely to be promoted to a position of power due to his/her lack of complex problem-solving abilities. This type of individual also will not possess the confidence and air of arrogance that would help them to fake it or bluff his/her way up the ladder.

2. High competence and low arrogance: Golson suggests that these individuals are potentially insecure and come across as supportive and facilitative vs. charismatic and aggressive. These people are likely to contribute excellent solution-oriented suggestions in an unassuming manner. When challenged, they may back down rather than defend their project, proposal or initiative.

3. Low competence combined with high arrogance: The behaviors and choices of these individuals can be dangerous to themselves, their direct reports, peers, and the overall organizations for which they are employed. They have gone through life with blinders on believing they are special; better than others. Due to their lack of being grounded in reality, these employees often forge forward with their own superior agendas, without asking for input or assistance, without insight into genuine business challenges, and without regard for potential decision outcomes, consequences for and impact on the business.

4. High competence and high arrogance: This combination of traits holds what Golson refers to as "competing forces of great potential and great danger." This brand of arrogance is most often bred from early life and business success that resulted in the person developing an inflated sense of self. This type of individual will be full of great ideas, not be interested in a second opinion or input of any kind from others and is most likely to denigrate others for their less than stellar ideas (in his/her opinion). This type of leader or co-worker breeds a passive-aggressive response from direct reports and peers, whereby this audience of the arrogant individual will allow the person to hit against obstacles and inevitably fail even if they could have provided intervention, assistance,

and support. Over time, intelligence and a high degree of competence turns into a lack of success in the setting into which the individual has evolved. Additionally, these individuals are often responsible for destroying relationships and dampening company morale.

Being smart often leads to a sense of competence where the individual then develops the expectation of being right and being valued and praised by others. According to Golson and Padua et al., this series of developments can lead to the rise of an overinflated sense of self, looking down on others and their abilities that equate to an attitude of arrogance. Studies have demonstrated that intelligence and competence are closely linked; however, when attitude is brought into the equation, aversive behaviors like those associated with arrogance can take root (O'Boyle, Humphrey, Pollack, Hawyer, & Story, 2010). In fact, research has demonstrated that traits such as arrogance can cause highly intelligent individuals to show poor job competence manifesting in poor productivity (O'Boyle et al., 2010; Padua et al., 2010).

Padua et al. used Golson's grid of proposed competence-arrogance outcomes and applied a deductive approach to theory development, followed by a "mathematical modeling approach using chaotic dynamical systems" (pg. 79). Padua et al. generated five base axioms and five propositions as part of the process of developing and testing their theory. The axioms are: "people build their axioms from different foundations" (p. 79), "all people have the potential for arrogant tendencies but it is normally not their chief feature" (p. 80), arrogance is a compensatory mechanism to keep one's self-esteem artificially inflated or intact (p. 80), "organizations, in general, benefit from a mix of proper levels of arrogance and high levels of competence” (p. 82), and “job competence is directly related to a person’s cognitive intelligence keeping the emotional quotient constant” (p. 82). The propositions are stated as: “there will be arrogant personalities in the academe” (p. 83), “those with arrogant personalities in the academe mainly build their arrogance from their own perceived intellectual superiority and work related experiences” (p. 83), “those identified as arrogant in the academe are most likely to have negative experiences with respect to their esteemed intelligence in the past or have been excessively exposed to positive reinforcements on their perceived intellectual superiority in the past (p. 83), “every person in the academe has an (*arrogance, competence*) mix” (p. 84), and “highly intelligent people with high arrogance score are more likely underachieving in the workplace” (p. 85). Based on their studies of arrogance associated with intellect and performance outcomes, Johnson et al. (2010) reported that although arrogant individuals act superior, they are typically inferior to their less arrogant counterparts in intelligence and performance.

## Summary and Transition

Past research on arrogance has suggested that it is a construct defined by an approach orientation by those with low self-esteem and fragile egos, who hold enhanced self-perceptions of superiority above others while actually being inferior performers (Bauer et al., 2008; Hareli and Weiner, 2000; Johnson et al., 2010; Silverman et al., 2012). The challenge of arrogance for individuals who are the perpetrators, is the impact on relationships where they are perceived as rude, cold, unapproachable and hostile (Hareli & Weiner, 2000; Wang et al., 2013). The impact within organizations is that arrogant behavior thwarts new learning and prevents progress by holding performance closer to the status quo whereby success is believed to be derived from what has already brought about success vs. new ideas from others and innovative directions (Bauer et al., 2008; Ma & Karri, 2005). Interestingly, Wang et al. (2013) found that arrogance may not be a barrier in the process of selling luxury items because the implicit positive attitudes toward the brands may serve to override the negative associations to arrogance.

In this chapter, research specific to subjective (observation) and objective (measurement tool) assessments of arrogance were reviewed. To date, few studies have used the objective measure of arrogance called the WARS in empirical study. In this dissertation study, the WARS was used to assess the degree of relationship to a professional objective index (the FIA's *total assets under management* plus revenue generated from client investments) to examine the relationship between professional arrogance and job performance. The study also included research questions designed to look at the relationship between arrogance and the FIA's *total assets under management* plus revenue generated from client investments matrixed as an objective index, and whether or not gender and years of experience moderate the arrogance-job performance relationship. The research design for the current study was determined by identifying a gap in the literature based on the literature review discussed in Chapter 2.

In Chapter 3, the study methodology, research design, and any threats to validity are discussed. The purpose of and research questions inherent in this current study are revisited. The WARS is explored as the objective tool used as a measure of professional arrogance. The DV and IVs are stated along with the rationale for employing a quantitative research design involving linear regression, moderation analyses and ancillary analyses utilizing ANOVA.  Ethical considerations and potential threats to validity of the study are also discussed.

# Chapter 3: Research Method

## Overview

The purpose of this current study is to examine the relationship between professional arrogance and job performance in a professional services firm using the WARS as a tool of objective measure. This chapter identifies the design method and justify the selection of the approach. In addition, the research population and sampling procedures are explained. A power analysis was conducted to identify the minimum sample size requirement. A data analysis plan is presented to explain how the research questions were statistically analyzed. The chapter concludes with threats to validity and ethical considerations.

Specifically, professional arrogance was examined in relation to the output measures of the FIA's *total assets under management* and revenue generated from investments as per the financial services organization's leader board. As mentioned in previous chapters arrogance, as measured by the WARS, has been found in organizational psychology literature to be negatively correlated with scores on a measure of self-esteem, cognitive ability, task performance, and organizational citizenship behavior (Johnson et al., 2010). Arrogance moves beyond confidence, crosses the line into self-indulgence and is displayed in behaviors of the arrogant individual believing and acting as though he is always right (Johnson et al., 2010). This approach to client interactions can be devastating, even destroying them (Helmi, 1998).

A quantitative research approach was appropriate for the purpose of this study in order to allow for the analysis of numerical survey data, and categorical dummy coded data.  The DV was the participant's leader board ranking based on *total assets under management* and revenue (see Appendix B).  The IVs were the participant's degree of arrogance as established by the WARS, gender, and tenure (total number of years in the industry).

**Dependent Variable**

In the performance ranking of top wealth management firms and FIAs in the United States, Barron's and Forbes use the criteria of *total assets under management* as the key indicator of performance (Garmhausen, 2014; Schaefer, 2015).  On the level of the FIA, the total sum of assets managed for clients yields a figure that serves as a key metric of advisor performance (Garmhausen, 2015; PriceMetrix Insights, 2013; Schaefer, 2015).  The term used to describe the total sum of assets managed by a financial services professional is called *total assets under management*.  Contributing factors to a FIAs *total assets under management* are the number of clients secured and retained, and the making of good investment decisions with client assets (Garmhausen, 2015; PriceMetrix Insights, 2013; Schaefer, 2015).  In summary, top performing FIAs have high dollar value *total assets under management* because they are able to establish trusted client relationships, deliver stellar investment performance, suspend their own agendas and biases and work to keep their clients satisfied (Garmhausen, 2015).  For the purposes of this study, the additional metric of revenue generated through fees paid by banks and credit unions for investments made was added to the objective measure ranking as per the company's FIA ranking scoreboard.

Based on arrogance research findings, it was hypothesized that participants with high arrogance scores would be the poorest performing (the lowest average asset figure derived from *total assets under management* plus revenue generated per Advisor). Johnson et al. (2010) validated the WARS across four studies as a reliable measure of professional arrogance. It has been established that arrogant employees have lower cognitive abilities and poorer task performance than their less arrogant counterparts. The purpose of this study was to examine the arrogance-performance relationship by measuring the presence of arrogance in financial services professionals and an external, objective measure of their job performance. Variables such as gender and tenure were examined, along with the *total assets under management* plus revenue generated from investments as an objective performance measure, and WARS scores, via linear regressions within a correlational study design.

## Research Design and Rationale

I employed a quantitative, correlational design with a survey approach for this study. Quantitative, correlational research is appropriate when assessing the strength of association between numerically measurable constructs (Howell, 2013). Correlational research is an umbrella term that encompasses the application of both correlational and regression analyses (Howell, 2013). Due to cost effectiveness and efficiency, online surveys are widely considered an advantage over most alternative surveying methods (Creswell, 2014). Online surveys are frequently used in academic research and provide greater reliability than paper-based survey instruments (Tuten, 2010).

Basic demographic data and data required to test the research questions and explore potential moderating variables were collected. Historic arrogance studies relied on subjective observation and perceptions of the presence of arrogance in individuals and interactions (Haan et al., 2007; Hareli et al., 2000; Hareli et al., 2006). Johnson et al. (2010) introduced the first objective measure of arrogance, the WARS, via four independent validation studies. This study used the WARS, a validated and reliable tool (Johnson et al., 2010; Silverman et al., 2012), to yield a mean arrogance score for each participant. High arrogance scores secured from the WARS have been positively correlated with entitlement and dominance, and negatively correlated with task performance, cognitive ability scores, and OCB (Johnson et al., 2010). While previous studies have employed subjective ratings for task/job performance, this study relied on an objective index of performance, derived from *total assets under management* plus revenue generated through investments recorded as FIA rankings (see Appendix B). Additional categorical data (gender) and data specific to the continuous variables of professional financial advisor certifications (for example, portfolio and bank manager designations), and tenure based on years of experience in the industry were also obtained from participants via demographic questions included in the survey.

## Research Questions and Hypotheses

The following research questions and associated hypotheses were proposed to address the identified gap in the literature:

RQ1: What is the relationship between a FIA's assessed professional arrogance and the objective index of his/her performance?

$H_0$1*:* There is no significant relationship between a FIA's professional arrogance as assessed by the WARS and the objective index of his/her performance.

$H_a$1*:* There is a significant relationship between a FIA's professional arrogance as assessed by the WARS and the objective index of his/her performance.

RQ2: How is the relationship between a FIA's assessed professional arrogance and their objective index of performance moderated by their years of professional experience?

$H_0$2*:* The relationship between a FIA's professional arrogance assessed by the WARS and the objective index of their performance is not moderated by their years of professional experience.

$H_a$2*:* The relationship between a FIA's professional arrogance assessed by the WARS and the objective index of their performance is moderated by their years of professional experience.

RQ3: How is the relationship between a FIA's assessed professional arrogance and the objective index of the FIA's performance moderated by gender?

$H_0$3*:* The relationship between a FIA's assessed professional arrogance and the objective index of the FIA's performance is not moderated by gender.

$H_a$3*:* The relationship between a FIA's assessed professional arrogance and the objective index of the FIA's performance is moderated by gender.

## Participants and Sample

FIAs are charged with helping clients to make sound, beneficial financial decisions. Financial investing can be an emotional, overwhelming experience for clients making trust and confidence in the chosen FIA critical to building long term loyal relationships (Hamowy & Conigliaro, 2016). Most financial services professionals strive to meet or exceed the requests and expectations of their clients; however, the financial advisement industry has received negative publicity in recent years, and it has been suggested that the industry needs to re-build consumer trust (Constantinidis, 2015). FIAs, also referred to in some countries as Certified Financial Planners, need to be able to instill confidence in clients and potential clients, and in the industry, in order to grow the financial stakes in their companies and within their individual *total of assets under management* (Constantinidis, 2015). FIAs can grow in their careers by increasing their revenue or by becoming an owner and sharing in the firm's profits. FIAs have the means to do so by applying technical and people skills to help their clients protect and maximize their financial resources (Weydert, 2011). Brueckner (2011) suggested that financial service agents either approach their role from the perspective of being in a business or being part of a profession. The field of financial investment advising holds minimum standards, while demanding high levels of education and professionalism. FIAs require postgraduate education and special securities credentials and certifications (Constantinidis, 2015). They require knowledge, skills, and abilities to enable the development and nurture of customer relationships, and to be able to make ethical investment decisions. FIAs play the very important role of providing their clients with peace of mind, financial security and the prospect of achieving their life goals and aspirations (Constantinidis, 2015).

The FIA's role and responsibility is to "manage not just wealth and not just the investments, but really the life and well-being of their clients" (Weydert, 2011, p. 142).

Brueckner (2013) and Petersen et al. (2007) contended that people want to be educated regarding their financial affairs and receive expert advice specific to strategic solutions to best optimize investment choices. Advisors who prioritize their clients' financial well-being engage in a level of service delivery for which there "is no substitute." (Weydert, 2011, p. 142).

According to Paikert (2014), "net new assets, net new clients, and revenue are the primary goals" of the FIA (p. 50). Relationships with a FIA can be experienced and judged in different ways. From the stockbroker who recommends individual stocks, to the overall wealth manager who oversees all aspects of a client's finances, to the advisor who invests a client's financial portfolio, Landis (2009) suggested that intangibles are very important as "Non-financial incentives, such as client satisfaction and attrition" (p. 50), have also become critical considerations and feed into the overall success of growing and maintaining *total assets under management* for the FIA. A client must consider aspects such as how they are treated by the advisor, whether the advisor is trustworthy, if the advisor appears to show genuine interest in their clients, and whether the advisor suspends his/her agenda of self-gain in order to meet the best interests of the client. In summary, FIAs are either salaried or receive commission-based payment and are incented to grow and maintain their *total assets under management* as a core source of their income and building and maintaining a strong client base is the key to performance.

Participants in this current study were FIAs from a North American financial services firm, with greater than 2 years' experience in the profession. The wealth management partner is known for its client-centred approach and entrepreneurial spirit.

The firm aims to build lifetime relationships and deliver superior service. They are a growing firm, with more than $4 billion in assets under administration and management. The organization describes its FIAs as experienced and dedicated. The job description and requirements, as reflected on a 2018 LinkedIn job posting, are as follows:

Core Duties & Responsibilities:

- Build and develop a client base while managing and growing their portfolios, selecting the most appropriate investment solutions to meet their financial plans and goals
- Build trusted and diverse relationships with business owners, individuals, families, professional associations and foundations, based on personalized client services and advice
- Establish and maintain reciprocal relationships across all company teams and stakeholders

Required Experience, Education, Skills and Behaviours:

- Outstanding relationship-building and interpersonal skills
- Exceptional verbal, non-verbal and written communication skills
- Polished presentation and consultative skills – must be able to gain credibility and respect across a diverse spectrum of professional services clients
- Ethical, trustworthy and fully committed to supporting business objectives while ensuring all regulatory and compliance controls are maintained at all times
- Team-player – oriented and invested in continuing to cultivate a unique identity, brand and company culture

- Comprehensive onboarding process and continuous education / development programs
- Virtually unlimited investment solutions backed by top-ranked research
- Unlimited earning potential and a competitive benefits package
- Strong corporate structure with established Sales Administration, Marketing, Technology, Compliance and Operations teams

A sample of convenience was secured of FIAs employed by the financial services firm. The goal was to invite a minimum of 100 participants to participate in the study with the plan of having at least 77 volunteers agree to participate, based on the effect size analysis. Studies of arrogance to date using the WARS have largely been with participants from the manufacturing and retail sectors with an average tenure of 2 years. In this study, years of tenure was treated as a continuous variable with a fill-in-the-blank response. Ideally, the study would have included a mix of both genders and a broad age range to inform the examination of gender as a potential moderating variable.

## Recruitment, Participation, and Data Collection

A group of prospective FIAs was identified by use of a convenience sample. Using this sampling approach, participants were selected due to their proximity and accessibility to the researcher (see Creswell, 2013). Participants were invited to participate via a contact person within their organization, and those who did participate did so voluntarily. Electronic invitations containing a link to the WARS survey were sent to the potential participants who qualified for participation in the study. Participants provided consent to continue with the survey process. Each participant was provided a unique user ID number that was entered into the survey prior to completion of the assessment. One demographic question was included as a criterion point for the study to ensure that participants had at least 2 years of experience in the profession. If participants did not have the necessary experience specific to the FIA profession, they were not included in the data collection process.

The power of moderation analyses has been shown to be low. Therefore, typical sample sizes are over 200 to have reasonable statistical power (Aguinis, Beaty, Boik, & Pierce, 2005). A power analysis was conducted in G*Power for a multiple linear regression with three predictors (IV, moderator variable, and interaction term). The sample size was estimated with a power of .80, which is typically used for multiple linear regression in general (Cohen, 1988). Cohen (1992) suggested that a moderate effect size should be applied when there is no indication of what results to expect. Applying a moderate effect size ($f^2$=.15) and an alpha level of .05, the required sample size to detect significance was 77 participants (Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, & Lang, 2014).

## Instrumentation

The study involved a few mechanisms to assess the IVs and DVs used in this study. Included was a demographic questionnaire to capture the gender and tenure (total number of years in the industry of each FIA participant), the WARS a validated instrument that measures the construct of arrogance in the workplace, and the FIAs ranking using a measure derived from *total assets under management*, which is comprised of all assets managed by a FIA under his/her portfolio, and revenue. This researcher uploaded the consent form, demographic questionnaire, and WARS instrument into Survey Monkey. Permission to use the WARS tool was obtained from the survey creator, Dr. Stanley B. Silverman (see Appendix A).

**Demographic Questionnaire**

Participants were asked to indicate their D.O.B., gender, investment advisor certifications, if they are commission-based, years of tenure in the industry, identification as Portfolio Manager licensed, and identification as a Branch Manager.

**Workplace Arrogance Scale**

The WARS was developed by Johnson et al. (2010), through four independent validation studies, and is designed to measure arrogance through self and other ratings. Arrogance scores are derived from the sum of survey responders' answers to 26 questions, using a five-point Likert scale (Johnson et al., 2010; Silverman et al., 2012). Participants in Study 1 were 239 US university students enrolled in a psychology course. Study 2 involved full time and part time US university students taking psychology and business courses; 421 attended school full time and attended university part time, and 335 full-time employees who attended classes on evenings or weekends (Johnson et al., 2010). Study 3 included 82 employees in property management/real estate or manufacturing industries who participated through self-report and other reporting by their supervisors, direct reports and peers (Johnson et al., 2010). Finally, Study 4 participants totaled 172 and were employed full time and enrolled in MBA courses on evenings and weekends (Johnson et al., 2010). These researchers found that arrogance is related to poor scores on a measure of self-esteem, low task performance results, low cognitive ability scores, and low self-rated OCB (Johnson et al., 2010). Across the four studies conducted by Johnson et al., the mean age of all participants was 29.5 years, participant types ranged from full-time students with some work experience or working part-time, to participants who were employed full-time, the average tenure of study participants was 22 months, on average approximately 20% of participants were categorized as professionals, the remainder being employed in retail, and manufacturing and the majority of participants (approximately 63%) were female (Johnson et al., 2010). The final WARS scale had a Cronbach's alpha value of .93, which is far greater than the acceptable threshold for reliability.

A Cronbach's alpha reliability analysis will be conducted on the WARS measurement for professional arrogance. Cronbach's alpha measures the mean correlation between each pair or survey items and the number of corresponding items in the scale (Brace, Kemp, & Snelgar, 2012). The alpha values will be interpreted through use of the guidelines as suggested by George and Mallery (2016), where $\alpha \geq .9$ Excellent, $\alpha \geq .8$ Good, $\alpha \geq .7$ Acceptable, $\alpha \geq .6$ Questionable, $\alpha \geq .5$ Poor, and $\alpha < .5$ Unacceptable.

In the exploratory and validation studies conducted, the majority of participants were students and from the subset of participants who were employed, over 60% were in retail jobs and roughly 20% held jobs that were considered professional. My study will focus exclusively on professional workplace arrogance with the intended participants being FIAs. The WARS has been tested in a variety of populations including retail positions, professional positions, supervisors, and students. A factor analysis was conducted to examine construct validity of the WARS, which resulted in one overall factor for arrogance. In addition, the discriminant validity of the WARS scale was assessed by correlating arrogance with constructs assumed to be weakly related to arrogance such as narcissism, dominance, anger, humility, and agreeableness.

**Total assets under management**

The sum total of "assets under management" yields a number based on the number of clients (new and existing) in the FIA's portfolio, and the associated dollars that they have entrusted the FIA to invest (Garmhausen, 2015; PriceMetrix Insights, 2013). *total assets under management* is considered a key objective indicator of FIA performance (Garmhausen, 2015). The size of a FIA's *total assets under management* determines the amount of compensation he/she will receive. To illustrate the importance of client retention to FIA success, Garmhausen (2015) cited the client retention results of the Top 100 FIAs in the US; 98% retention in 2014 and 99% in 2015. The reasons for paying attention to client retention are clear: it is more difficult for a FIA to grow his/her business if clients continually leave and the FIA has to work to replace lost clients, and high client retention is associated with high asset growth which leads to a bigger overall *total assets under management* (PriceMetrix Insights, 2013).

## Data Analysis

The data extracted from Survey Monkey was compiled into SPSS version 22.0 for Windows (IBM, 2012). Frequencies and percentage distributions were examined for nominal variables of interest. Means and standard deviations were calculated for the continuous variables. Bar charts were used for visual interpretation of descriptive data trends.

Data was reduced for partial and outlying responses. SPSS automatically uses listwise deletion as the procedure for removing cases with missing data. Outlying scores will potentially be removed by examination of standardized values (*Z*-scores). Participants will be removed for standardized scores falling $\pm$ 3.29 standard deviations away from the mean (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012).

**RQ1:** What is the relationship between a FIA's assessed professional arrogance and the objective index of his/her performance?

**Simple Linear Regression.** To address research question one, a simple linear regression was conducted to examine the relationship between FIA professional arrogance and the objective index of the *total assets under management* plus the revenue generated from investments by the individual FIA. A simple linear regression is an appropriate statistical analysis when assessing the predictive relationship between a predictor variable and a continuous criterion variable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). The predictor variable, professional arrogance, was measured continuously. The criterion variable, objective index of FIA's performance, was also measured continuously. The linear regression used the $F$ test to evaluate the strength of the overall model. The coefficient of determination, $R^2$, was used to identify the amount of variance in objective index of the FIA's performance that can be explained by professional arrogance. A $t$-test was conducted to examine the strength of the individual predictor variable.

Prior to analysis, the assumption of linearity and homoscedasticity was assessed by examination of scatterplots. To examine the linearity assumption, the predictor and criterion variable will be plotted on an X-Y axis. Homoscedasticity checks that the variability in scores are equal for values of the dependent variable (Pallant, 2010). The data will meet the assumption if there is not a recurring pattern in the residuals scatterplot.

**RQ2:** How is the relationship between a FIA's assessed professional arrogance and their objective index of performance moderated by their years of professional experience?

**RQ3:** How is the relationship between a FIA's assessed professional arrogance and the objective index of the FIA's performance moderated by gender?

**Moderation Analyses.** To address research questions two and three, two moderation analyses were conducted. Moderating variables affect the direction or strength of the association between a predictor and criterion variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986). For each moderation analysis, the predictor variable and criterion variables correspond to professional arrogance and FIA performance, respectively. Both the predictor and criterion variable were measured continuously. The moderating variables correspond to years of professional experience and gender. Years of professional experience was measured as a continuous variable and gender was captured as a dichotomous response.

Prior to analysis, the assumptions of normality, homoscedasticity, and absence of multicollinearity were held. To examine the normality assumption, the ordered observations from the sample were plotted against the percentage points from the standard normal distribution. Homoscedasticity was assessed by examination of a residuals scatterplot. Absence of multicollinearity checks that the predictor variables are not too closely associated with one another. Variance Inflation Factors (VIFs) were used to assess the absence of multicollinearity assumption. VIF values below 10 suggest the predictor and moderator variables are not highly correlated (Stevens, 2009).

## Threats to Validity

### External Validity

Threats to external validity could be associated with potential bias in relation to myself as researcher with my own judgments and perspectives, the data collection process, and/or the statistical findings and outcomes. Also selection bias, through the use of a convenience sample, can reduce the researcher's ability to generalize the findings to the greater population of interest (Lohr, 2010). This researcher took great caution in interpreting the results and did not assume that the findings could be fully extrapolated and generalized across the population of interest or to the general population.

### Internal Validity

It is true that "any research method chosen will have inherent flaws, and the choice of that method will limit the conclusions that can be drawn" (Scandura & Williams, 2000, p. 1249). Several limitations exist within the scope of quantitative research. Quantitative research can statistically address research questions and hypotheses with a degree of significance. However, such studies cannot examine the underlying beliefs or perceptions of the research participants. The researcher will trade the richness of data inherent within a qualitative study for a statistical understanding that the findings did not occur by pure chance (Pagano, 2009). In addition, confounding variables could strengthen or weaken the relationship between the variables of interest (Howell, 2013). It was not possible for this researcher to control for the effect of all covariates; therefore, this limitation was accepted in the interpretation of the statistical findings in the following chapters.

Self-report remains a common tool used in the behavioral sciences and organizational research literature (Harrison, et al., 1996). One of the key limitations of Johnson et al.'s study #2 designed to establish validity for their arrogance measurement tool the WARS, was that data were collected via self-report and results could have been skewed based on single source bias. One of the chief concerns with self-report measures is response bias, specifically social desirability, the intention to present oneself in a favorable light, due to the potential for the relationships between variables to be contaminated (Edwards, 1953). According to Cook and Campbell (1976), interrater reliability aids in construct validity and one way to contribute to this feature is multiple data sources. These concerns support the design of this study which incorporates data from the WARS gathered from a variety of sources; the study subject, a manager or supervisor and two peers. This study employed the capture of single source data vs multi-source inputs for the simple reason that collecting multi-source data would prove overly-complex for the purpose of this dissertation study.

## Ethical Considerations

Researchers have an ethical responsibility to protect and inform the participants involved in the data collection process (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2012). While conducting this research, this researcher followed the ethical and moral guidelines outlined by federal regulations and the Institution Review Board (IRB). Prior to conducting the study, this researcher first received permission from the IRB. The researcher also sought permission from the creator of the WARS tool to utilize the survey for the purpose of the study. All data and personal information during the analysis process remained unidentifiable and was kept confidential. Participants' names and personal information were removed to ensure privacy and confidentiality. To provide additional safeguarding of organization and participant data, this researcher signed a Non-disclosure Agreement provided by the financial services firm.

In alignment with the IRB, this researcher has and will continue to securely hold the data to protect confidentiality of the participants. The generally applied safeguard measure for data storage of keeping the data in a locked file, in this case a password protected electronic file, will be applied by this researcher. The data will be securely held for a period of 5 years from study completion. After the five-year retention period, the data will be permanently destroyed.

## Summary

The purpose of this current study was to examine the relationship between arrogance as measured by the WARS and job performance using the objective measurement of a FIA's *total assets under management* combined with revenue gained from investments to derive a national ranking. This methodology chapter identified the instrumentation and variables of interest for the research questions. The rationale for use of a quantitative research design employing *total assets under management* plus the revenue generated by the individual FIA as the DV and arrogance, gender and tenure as the IVs were also discussed. The population of interest of FIAs was overviewed, specific to their areas of responsibility, performance metrics, and dependence on client relationships to be successful in their roles. Sampling procedures were discussed for recruitment of the convenience sample of FIAs from a professional financial services firm. Reliability and validity of the WARS were presented and the data collection procedures were outlined through use of Survey Monkey as an online host and SPSS 22.0 for analysis of the data. The data analysis plan was discussed, including linear regression and moderation analyses, and the chapter concluded with threats to validity and ethical considerations.

# Chapter 4: Results

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between professional arrogance of FIAs and their job performance in a professional services firm using the WARS as a measure of workplace arrogance. In this chapter, the findings of the data analysis are presented. Sample demographics are presented and the associated descriptive analysis findings. The trends for the variables of interest, FIA's assessed professional arrogance and objective index of performance, are covered using summary statistics. The research questions are then addressed through use of linear regressions and moderation analyses.

## Pre-Analysis Screening of the Data

Data were collected over a period of 3 months. The raw data were extracted from Survey Monkey and uploaded into SPSS version 24.0 for Windows. A total of 45 participants responded to the survey. Among these individuals, five participants consented but did not respond to any portion of the questionnaire. Another three participants were removed because they did not have an associated objective index performance value. Potential outliers were examined through examination of standardized values. None of the values for professional arrogance had outlying *z*-scores. Therefore, the final sample size consisted of 37 individual cases.

## Sample Demographics

Gender was distributed between 33 males (89.2%) and 4 females (10.8%). Most of the participants were investment advisors ($n$ = 12, 32.4%), followed by portfolio managers ($n$ = 9, 24.3%), and CIM (Certified Investment Managers) ($n$ = 9, 24.3%).

Frequencies and percentages for the nominal demographic variables are presented in Table 1.

Table 1

*Frequency Table for Nominal Demographic Variables*

| Variable | *N* | % |
|---|---|---|
| Gender | | |
| Male | 33 | 89.2 |
| Female | 4 | 10.8 |
| Designation/certification | | |
| CFA | 4 | 10.8 |
| CIM | 9 | 24.3 |
| Investment Advisor | 12 | 32.4 |
| Portfolio Manager | 9 | 24.3 |
| Vice President | 3 | 8.1 |

Age of participants ranged from 27 to 78 years, with $M$ = 52.00 and $SD$ = 11.52. Years of professional experience ranged from 4 to 38 years, with $M$ = 22.81 and $SD$ = 9.37. Years with firm ranged from 1 to 36 years, with $M$ = 4.46 and $SD$ = 7.22.

Table 2

*Descriptive Statistics for Continuous Variables*

| Variable | *M* | SD | *Max* | Min |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Age | 52.00 | 11.52 | 78.00 | 27.00 |
| Years of experience | 22.81 | 9.37 | 38.00 | 4.00 |
| Years with firm | 4.46 | 7.22 | 36.00 | 1.00 |

## Descriptive Statistics

Professional arrogance scores ranged from 27.00 to 66.00, with $M$ = 47.08 and $SD$ = 9.37. Objective index of performance ranged from 1.00 to 53.50, with $M$ = 29.01 and $SD$ = 15.26. Further examination was done to examine the variables of interest by groups. Table 3 presents a breakout of the descriptive statistics of the continuous study variables.

Table 3

*Descriptive Statistics Breakout for Continuous Study Variables*

| Variable | *n* | *M* | *SD* | Max | Min |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Professional Arrogance | 37 | 47.08 | 9.37 | 66.00 | 27.00 |
| Gender | | | | | |
| Male | 33 | 27.00 | 66.00 | 47.33 | 9.76 |
| Female | 4 | 41.00 | 53.00 | 45.00 | 5.66 |
| Designation/Certification | | | | | |
| CFA | 4 | 37.00 | 62.00 | 49.75 | 11.70 |
| CIM | 9 | 40.00 | 66.00 | 47.22 | 8.94 |
| Investment Advisor | 12 | 32.00 | 61.00 | 47.08 | 9.14 |
| Portfolio Manager | 9 | 27.00 | 60.00 | 43.78 | 9.44 |
| Vice President | 3 | 43.00 | 65.00 | 53.00 | 11.14 |
| | | | | | |
| Objective Index | 37 | 29.01 | 15.26 | 53.50 | 1.00 |
| Gender | | | | | |
| Male | 33 | 1.00 | 53.50 | 30.48 | 14.97 |
| Female | 4 | 2.50 | 30.50 | 16.88 | 13.49 |
| Designation/Certification | | | | | |
| CFA | 4 | 10.50 | 53.50 | 38.63 | 20.17 |
| CIM | 9 | 1.00 | 44.00 | 20.78 | 15.03 |
| Investment Advisor | 12 | 8.50 | 53.00 | 33.33 | 14.56 |
| Portfolio Manager | 9 | 2.50 | 48.50 | 27.44 | 14.02 |
| Vice President | 3 | 17.00 | 37.50 | 28.33 | 10.42 |

## Reliability Analysis

Cronbach's alpha tests of reliability and internal consistency was performed on the professional arrogance subscale, as measured by the WARS. The Cronbach's alpha calculates a mean correlation between each pair of items and the number of items representing a scale (Brace, Kemp, & Snelgar, 2012). The alpha values were interpreted using the guidelines identified by George and Mallery (2016). Results for the 26-item professional arrogance scale demonstrated acceptable internal consistency, $\alpha = .84$.

## Correlational Analysis

A series of Pearson correlations were conducted to examine the bivariate relationships between the variables of the interest. Age was significantly related to experience ($r = .57$, $p < .01$). No other significant bivariate relationships were found. Table 4 presents the findings of the correlations.

Table 4

*Correlation Matrix of Variables of Interest*

| | Age | Experience | Years with Firm | Professional Arrogance | Objective Index |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Age | 1.00 | | | | |
| Experience | .57* | 1.00 | | | |
| Years with Firm | .15 | .20 | 1.00 | | |
| Professional Arrogance | -.23 | -.29 | -.19 | 1.00 | |
| Objective Index | -.09 | .07 | .25 | .05 | 1.00 |

*Denotes correlation was significant at $p < .01$.

## Statistical Analysis

The section systematically presents the statistical analysis systematically performed to address the three research questions and sets of associated hypotheses. It also presents the tests of the assumptions for the analysis performed.

RQ1: What is the relationship between a FIA's assessed professional arrogance and the objective index of his/her performance?

$H_0 1$: There is no significant relationship between a FIA's arrogance as assessed by the WARS and the objective index of his/her performance.

$H_a 1$: There is a significant relationship between a FIA's arrogance as assessed by the WARS and the objective index of his/her performance.

**Linear Regression**. To address RQ1, a simple linear regression was conducted to analyze the relationship between professional arrogance and objective index of performance. A linear regression is an appropriate statistical test when assessing the predictive strength between a predictor variable and a continuous criterion variable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). Professional arrogance was treated as the predictor variable in the analysis. Objective index of performance was treated as the continuous criterion variable. Prior to analysis the assumptions of linearity, normality, and homoscedasticity were assessed.

**Assumptions.** The assumption of linearity was tested with a scatterplot between professional arrogance and objective index of performance. There did not appear to be a visual trend between the variables of interest. Normality was checked with a P-P scatterplot. The assumption was met as the data appeared to follow the normality trend line. The assumption of homoscedasticity was tested by plotting the residuals and predicted values (Field, 2013). The assumption was met as there was a random distribution in the scatterplot. See Figures 1-3 for the scatterplots.

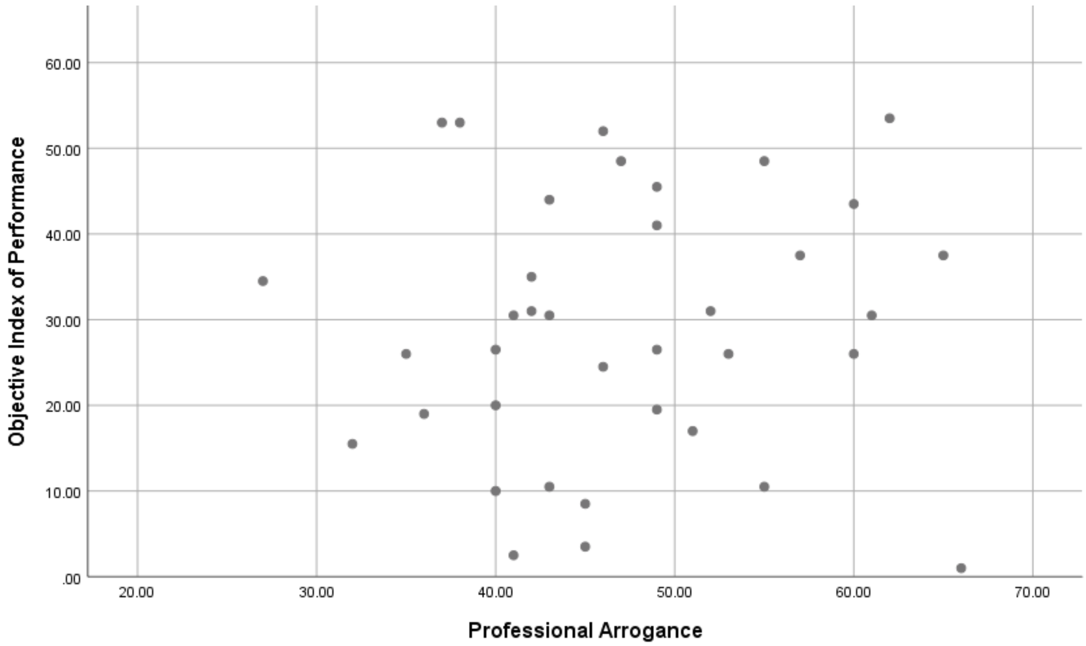


*Figure 1*. Scatterplot between professional arrogance and objective index of performance.

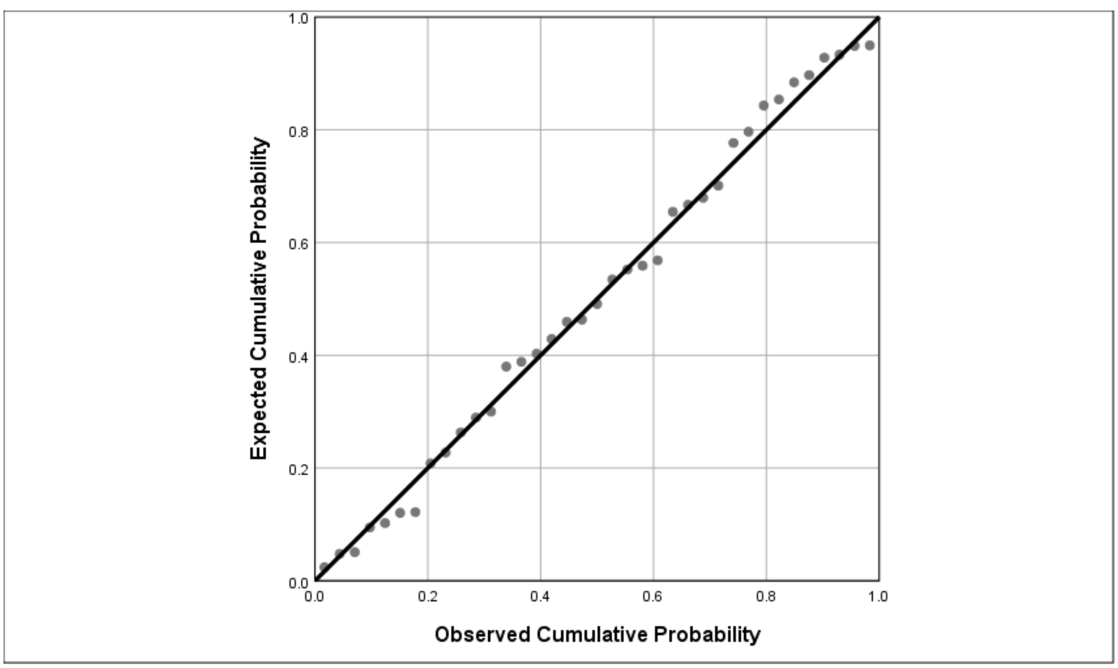

*Figure 2*. P-P scatterplot for normality for professional arrogance and objective index of performance

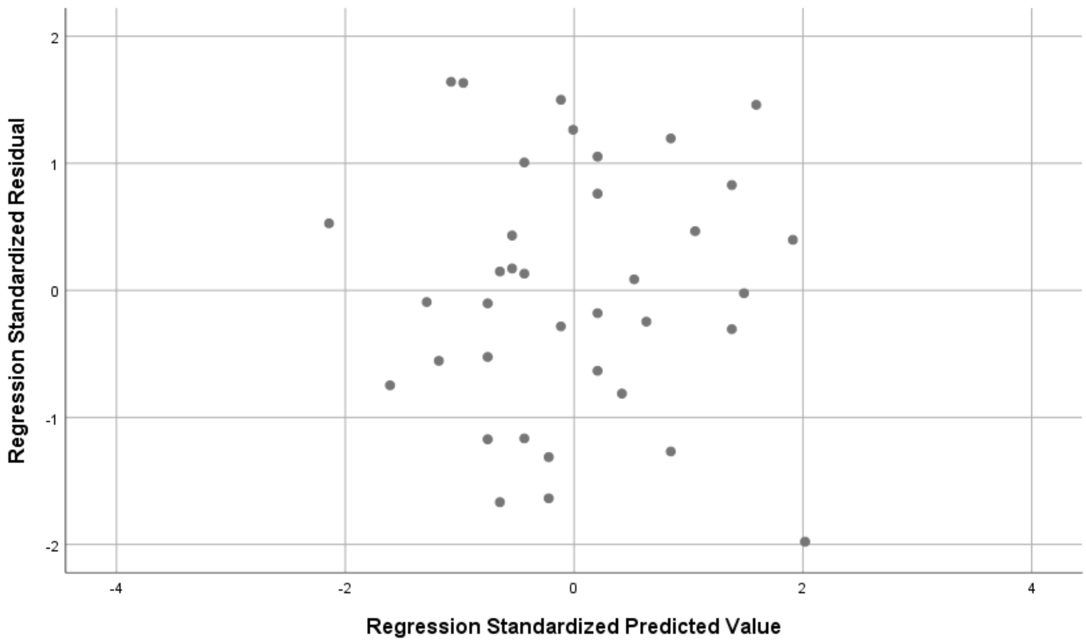


*Figure 3*. Residuals scatterplot for homoscedasticity for professional arrogance and objective index of performance.

**Results.** The results of the regression model were not statistically significant, $F(1, 35) = 0.23$, $p = .634$, $R^2 = .007$ suggesting there is not a significant predictive relationship between professional arrogance and objective index of performance. The coefficient of determination, $R^2$, suggests that approximately 0.7% of the variance in objective index of performance can be explained by the professional arrogance levels of participants. Due to non-significance of the overall model, the coefficient of the predictor was not further examined. The null hypothesis for research question one ($H_01$) was not rejected. Table 5 summarizes the results of the linear regression model.

Table 5

*Linear Regression between Professional Arrogance and Objective Index of Performance*

| Predictor | *B* | *SE* | Β | *t* | *p* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Professional arrogance | 0.13 | 0.27 | 0.08 | 0.48 | .634 |

*Note*. Overall Model: $F^2(1, 35) = 0.23$, $p = .634$, $R^2 = .007$

RQ2: How is the relationship between a FIA's assessed professional arrogance and their objective index of performance moderated by their years of professional experience?

$H_0 2$: The relationship between a FIA's arrogance assessed by the WARS and the objective index of their performance is not moderated by their years of professional experience.

$H_a 2$: The relationship between a FIA's arrogance assessed by the WARS and the objective index of their performance is moderated by their years of professional experience.

**Moderation Analysis**. To address RQ2, a series of regressions were conducted to analyze the moderating effect of years of professional experience on the relationship between professional arrogance and objective index of performance. Moderating variables affect the direction or strength of the association between a predictor and criterion variable. Professional arrogance was treated as the predictor variable in the analysis. Objective index of performance was treated as the continuous criterion variable. Years of professional experience was treated as the moderating variable. The predictor variable and moderator variable were mean centered prior to entry into the regression model. To examine the moderating effect, an interaction variable was examined: professional arrogance*years of professional experience. Prior to analysis the assumptions of normality, homoscedasticity, and absence of multicollinearity were assessed.

**Assumptions.** The assumption of normality was met as the data appeared to follow the normality trend line. The assumption of homoscedasticity was met as there was a random distribution in the scatterplot. Absence of multicollinearity was met as the variance inflation factors (VIFs) were all below 10.0 (Stevens, 2009). See Figures 4-5 for the scatterplots.

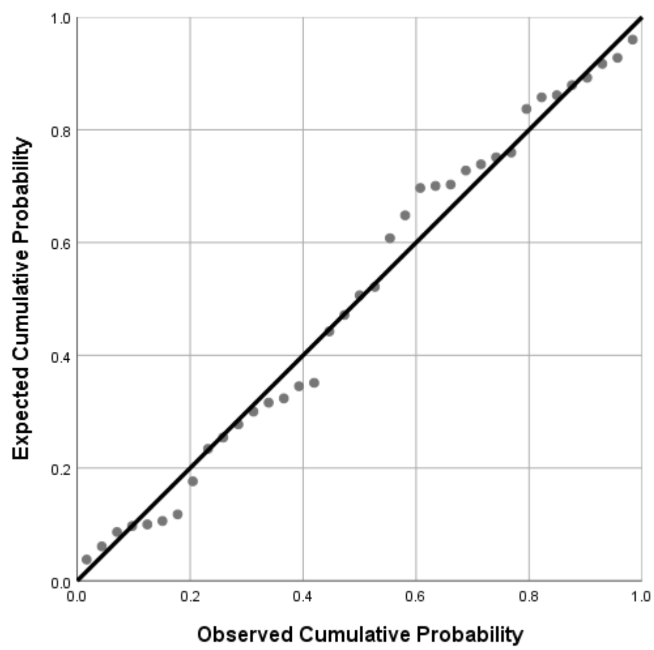


*Figure 4*. P-P scatterplot for normality for professional arrogance, years of professional experience, and objective index of performance.

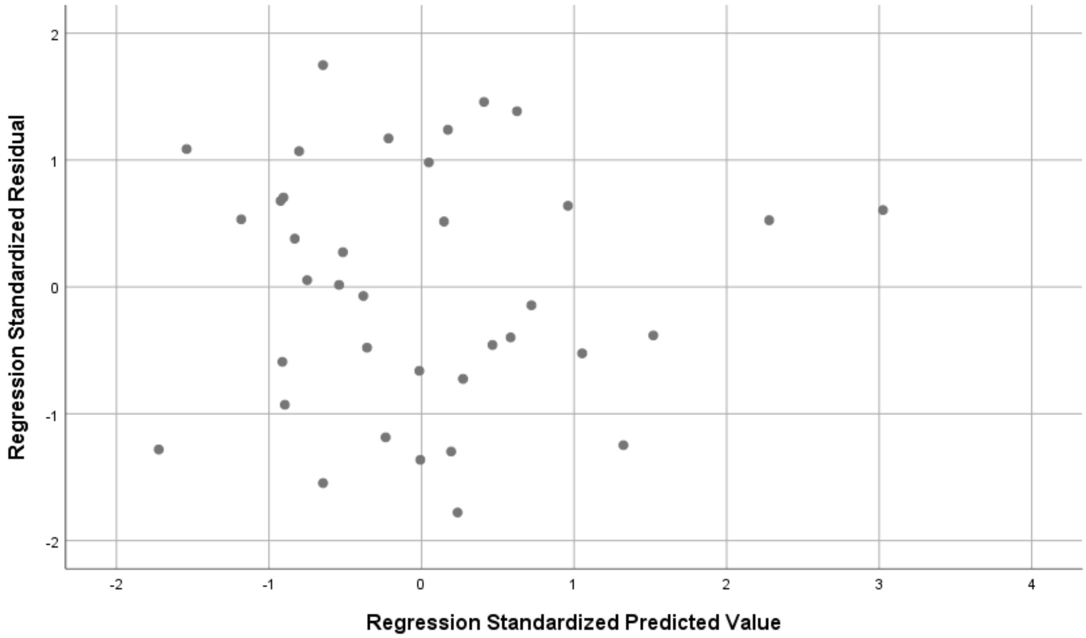


*Figure 5*. Residuals scatterplot for homoscedasticity for professional arrogance and objective index of performance, while moderating for years of professional experience.

**Results.** The results of the first step of the regression model were not statistically significant, $F(2, 34) = 1.73$, $p = .193$, $R^2 = .092$, suggesting there is not a significant predictive relationship between professional arrogance, years of professional experience, and objective index of performance. The results of the second step of the regression model were also not statistically significant, $F(3, 33) = 1.38$, $p = .267$, $R^2 = .111$, suggesting there is not a significant predictive relationship between professional arrogance, years of professional experience, professional arrogance*years of professional experience, and objective index of performance. The coefficient of determination, $R^2$, increased by only about 2% between the regression steps. The interaction term, professional arrogance*years of professional experience, was not significant in the regression model – suggesting that moderation was not supported. The null hypothesis for research question two ($H_0 2$) was not rejected. Table 6 summarizes the results of the moderation analysis.

Table 6

*Regression Results with Professional Arrogance Predicting Objective Index of Performance, While Moderating for Years of Professional Experience*

| Dependent | *B* | *SE* | β | *t* | *p* | VIF |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Regression 1: | | | | | | |
| Professional arrogance | 0.15 | 0.27 | .09 | 0.57 | .575 | 1.00 |
| Years of professional experience | -0.48 | 0.27 | -.29 | -1.79 | .082 | 1.00 |
| Regression 2: | | | | | | |
| Professional arrogance | 0.22 | 0.28 | .13 | 0.77 | .445 | 1.08 |
| Years of professional experience | -0.46 | 0.27 | -.28 | -1.70 | .098 | 1.01 |
| Professional arrogance*years of professional experience | -0.02 | 0.03 | -.14 | -0.84 | .407 | 1.09 |

*Note.* First regression: $F(2, 34) = 1.73$, $p = .193$, $R^2 = .092$
Second regression: $F(3, 33) = 1.38$, $p = .267$, $R^2 = .111$

RQ3: How is the relationship between a FIA's assessed professional arrogance and the objective index of the FIA's performance moderated by gender?

$H_0 3$*:* The relationship between a FIA's assessed professional arrogance and the objective index of the FIA's performance is not moderated by gender.

$H_a 3$*:* The relationship between a FIA's assessed professional arrogance and the objective index of the FIA's performance is moderated by gender.

**Moderation Analysis.** To address research question three, a series of regressions were conducted to analyze the moderating effect of gender on the relationship between professional arrogance and objective index of performance. Professional arrogance was treated as the predictor variable in the analysis. Objective index of performance was treated as the continuous criterion variable. Gender was treated as the moderating variable. The predictor variable and moderator variable were mean centered prior to entry into the regression model. To examine the moderating effect, an interaction variable was examined: professional arrogance*gender. Prior to analysis the assumptions of normality, homoscedasticity, and absence of multicollinearity were assessed.

**Assumptions.** The assumption of normality was met as the data appeared to follow the normality trend line. The assumption of homoscedasticity was met as there was a random distribution in the scatterplot. Absence of multicollinearity was met as the variance inflation factors (VIFs) were all below 10.0. See Figures 6-7 for the scatterplots.

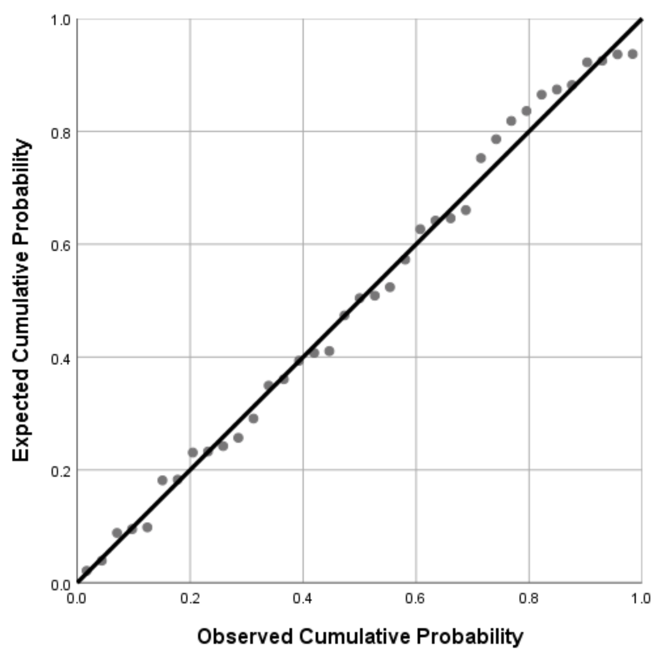


*Figure 6*. P-P scatterplot for normality for professional arrogance, gender, and objective index of performance.

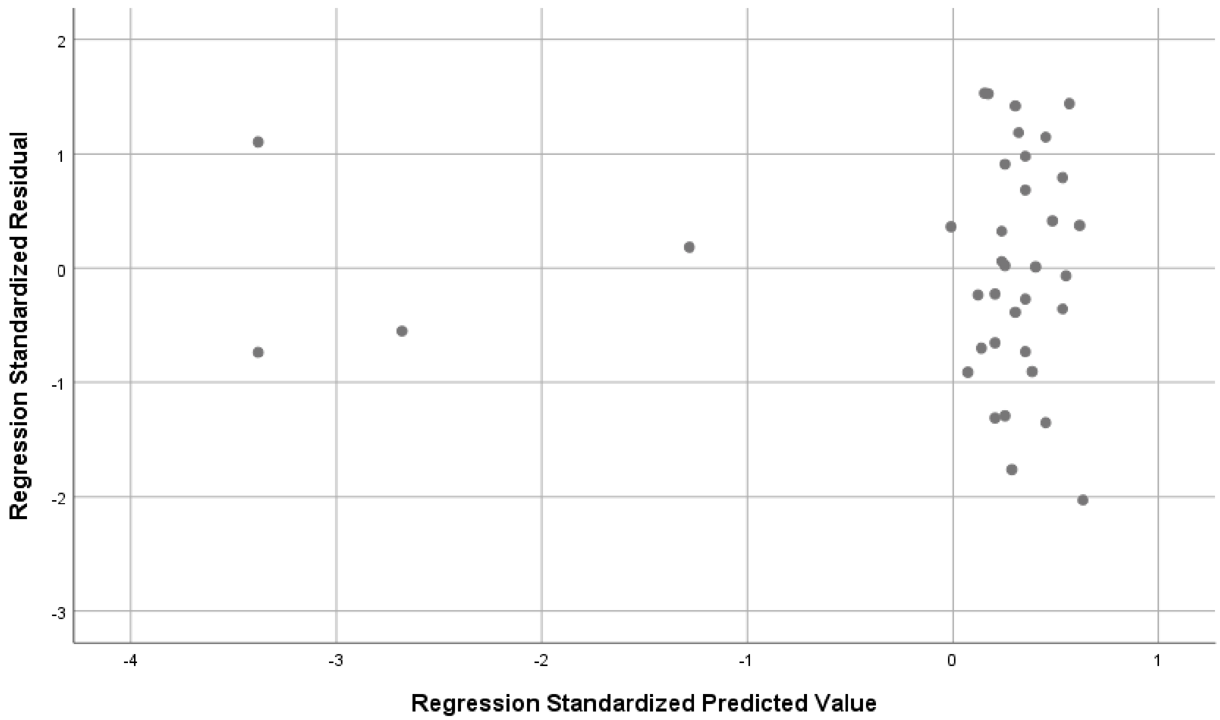


*Figure 7*. Residuals scatterplot for homoscedasticity for professional arrogance and objective index of performance, while moderating for gender.

**Results.** The results of the first step of the regression model were not statistically significant, $F(2, 34) = 1.53$, $p = .232$, $R^2 = .082$, suggesting there is not a significant predictive relationship between professional arrogance, gender, and objective index of performance. The results of the second step of the regression model were also not statistically significant, $F(3, 33) = 1.06$, $p = .378$, $R^2 = .088$, suggesting there is not a significant predictive relationship between professional arrogance, gender, professional arrogance*gender, and objective index of performance. The coefficient of determination, $R^2$, increased by only about 1% between the regression steps. The interaction term, professional arrogance*gender, was not significant in the regression model – suggesting that moderation was not supported. The null hypothesis for research question three ($H_0 3$) was not rejected. Table 7 summarizes the results of the moderation analysis.

Table 7

*Regression Results with Professional Arrogance Predicting Objective Index of Performance, While Moderating for Gender*

| Dependent | *B* | *SE* | β | *t* | *p* | VIF |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Regression 1: | | | | | | |
| Professional arrogance | 0.10 | 0.27 | .06 | 0.36 | .721 | 1.01 |
| Gender | -13.39 | 7.99 | -.28 | -1.68 | .103 | 1.01 |
| Regression 2: | | | | | | |
| Professional arrogance | 0.15 | 0.30 | .09 | 0.51 | .611 | 1.22 |
| Gender | -11.94 | 8.68 | -.25 | -1.38 | .178 | 1.16 |
| Professional arrogance*gender | 0.72 | 1.58 | .09 | 0.46 | .652 | 1.34 |

*Note.* First regression: $F(2, 34) = 1.53$, $p = .232$, $R^2 = .082$
Second regression: $F(3, 33) = 1.06$, $p = .378$, $R^2 = .088$

## Summary and Transition

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between professional arrogance and job performance in a professional services firm using the WARS as a tool of objective measure. In this chapter, the findings of the data analyses were presented. Descriptive statistics were used to examine the trends of the demographics and variables of interest. A reliability test was run on the raw responses of the WARS and found that the internal consistency was acceptable. The findings for research question one indicated that professional arrogance did not predict objective index of performance. The null hypothesis for research question one ($H_0 1$) was not rejected. The findings for research question two indicated that years of professional experience did not moderate the relationship between professional arrogance and objective index of performance. The null hypothesis for research question two ($H_02$) was not rejected. The findings for research question three indicated that gender did not moderate the relationship between professional arrogance and objective index of performance. The null hypothesis for research question three ($H_03$) was not rejected.

Chapter 5 will discuss the findings and their implications for the field in connection with the literature. Limitations and recommendations for future research will also be presented.

# Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions and Recommendations

## Introduction

This study focused on two key areas of research interest: FIA performance and the construct of arrogance. The financial crisis of 2008 created negative perceptions of the financial services industry and damaged consumer trust, resulting in a lack of confidence in financial services providers who came to be perceived as acting opportunistically and greedily pursuing their own self interests (Gounaris & Prout, 2009; Hamowy & Conigliaro, 2016; Winchester & Huston, 2017). Since the crash of the U.S. financial system, FIAs and their clients have been on a path of fear, and at times panic, hopelessness, and then potential optimism (Gounaris & Prout, 2009). Wall Street was exposed for its deceit, systemic greed, and outright arrogance (Gounaris & Prout, 2009; Hamowy & Conigliaro, 2016; Winchester & Huston, 2017).

In the aftermath of this economic crisis, clients have demanded a high standard of ethical financial services practice (Gounaris & Prout, 2009; Yeske 2017). FIAs have had to focus on restoring trust, even if that particular advisor did not cause direct damage to that specific client (Duska, 2012). FIAs are expected to, and have a judiciary duty to, put the interest of the client before their own interests (Duska, 2012). A successful relationship between FIA and client involves connecting through a relationship built on trust with the FIA suspending his/her own professional and personal agenda. According to Kirchenbauer (2014), successful FIA-client relationships contain five essential core interpersonal competencies: curiosity, empathy, a nonjudgemental approach, authenticity, and listening. The literature suggested that negative behaviors such as those associated with arrogance can lead to closed-mindedness, greed, and a negative, even damaging, impact on relationships (Bauer et al., 2008; Ghosh, 2002; Johnson et al., 2010).

Arrogance refers to self-aggrandizing behaviors that exaggerate one's own importance, often with impact on others and a cost to relationships and business outcomes (Bauer et al, 2008; Johnson et al., 2010; Silverman et al., 2012). Gaps identified within existing research include how arrogance relates to performance for populations of full-time employed professionals over 30 years of age, who have worked for greater than 2 years in their profession, with arrogance measured using an objective tool instead of through subjective perception reporting. The purpose of this study was to assess the relationship between arrogance and job performance in a financial service setting. FIAs are responsible for investing their clients' money and are each associated with a business portfolio referred to as *total assets under management*. This study examined arrogance as a characteristic that might impact a FIA's client relationships and business performance as objectively measured by his/her ranking on the company results leader board which was defined as the FIAs *total assets under management* plus revenue. This study also examined the impact of professional arrogance on FIA performance with those who had been in their roles for more than 2 years. The intent of the study was to examine arrogance through its measurement in a group of financial services professionals and relate scores from the WARS with the objective outcome measure of *total assets under management* plus revenue captured in the company's ranking grid.

## Interpretation of the Findings

This study employed a quantitative, correlational research design incorporating the use of a reliable and valid survey tool (WARS). Correlational research was appropriate for the design of this study which assessed the strength of association between numerically measurable constructs (Howell, 2013). The DV was a FIA's leader board ranking based on his/her *total assets under management* figure, plus revenue. The IVs were the FIA's degree of arrogance as established by the WARS, and demographic information of gender and tenure. The research questions were assessed using linear regression and moderation analyses.

Arrogance-Competence Theory holds that arrogant individuals tend to be less competent and less productive than their less arrogant, more humble counterparts (Padua et al., 2010). Golson (2007) submitted that sometimes arrogance in business combined with fortitude, will, and intellect can make for a winning combination. Golson also acknowledged that being competent is desirable, while being arrogant is not such a good thing and is perceived as a negative trait. According to Arrogance-Competence Theory, an individual with a high degree of arrogance coupled with low competence can be dangerous, pushing his/her own agenda as superior, without regard for potential task or relationship consequences (Golson, 2007). Also, a high competence-high arrogance combination most often levies dismissive behaviors toward others and is known to contribute to dampening company morale (Golman, 2007; Milyayskyl, Kruglanski, Chernikova, & Schori-Eyal, 2017). Research has shown that arrogance can cause intelligent individuals to demonstrate poor job competence, manifesting in poor performance and low productivity (O'Boyle et al., 2010; Padua et al., 2010).

Research Question 1: What is the relationship between a FIA's assessed professional arrogance and the objective index of his/her performance?

This question was derived from historic arrogance research being focused on subjective perceptions of arrogance as the outcome measure, and more recent studies used the WARS as an objective measure correlated with subjective outcome ratings (see Johnson et al., 2010). The results for RQ1 were not statistically significant and the null hypothesis of a significant relationship existing between a FIA's arrogance as assessed by the WARS, an objective index of his/her performance, was not rejected. The outcome of this study did not support the foundational arrogance studies with participants working primarily in the retail and manufacturing industries.

Research Question 2: How is the relationship between a FIA's assessed professional arrogance and their objective index of performance moderated by their years of professional experience?

The null hypothesis stating the relationship between a FIA's professional arrogance assessed by the WARS and the objective index of their performance is not moderated by their years of professional experience was not rejected.

Research Question 3: How is the relationship between a FIA's assessed professional arrogance and the objective index of the FIA's performance moderated by gender?

The relationship between a FIA's assessed professional arrogance and the objective index of the FIA’s performance is not moderated by gender. In this study, 10.8% of the participants were female.

The overall findings from the study were that none of the null hypotheses were rejected. The relationship between arrogance and performance using an objective measure of the construct was not determined to be positive or negative. Additionally, this research did not determine that arrogance is moderated by tenure or gender.

## Limitations of the Study

The principal challenge with this study was recruitment. It took over a year to confirm a financial services firm that would consent to having their FIAs participate in the study. Once the agreement to participate was consolidated with the financial services organization, the company did not have a sufficient pool of candidates to participate in the study. The number of candidates targeted to receive an invitation was 100 with the intent of recruiting a minimum of 77 participants based on the required sample size to detect significance (see Faul et al., 2014). The company ended up having a pool of 72 possible study participant candidates, all of whom received an invitation to participate in the study. Forty-five FIAs responded to the survey and a total of 37 respondents completed the survey. Typical sample sizes over 200 have been determined to have reasonable statistical power (Aguinis, Beaty, Boik, & Pierce, 2005). For the purpose of this study a power analysis was conducted in G*Power for a multiple linear regression with three predictors (IV, moderator variable, and interaction term). The sample size typically used for multiple linear regression was estimated with a power of .80 (see

Cohen, 1988). A moderate effect size was applied given there was no indication of what results to expect (see Cohen, 1992). Applying a moderate effect size ($f^2$=.15) and an alpha level of .05, the required sample size for this study to detect significance was 77 participants (see Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, & Lang, 2014). Therefore, sample size and power were significant limitations in this current study.

An additional limitation for consideration is the concern of using a self-report measure. Although self-report tools are commonly used in social and behavioral science research, there is the possibility that the data can be affected by single source bias such as the desire of the respondent to be seen in a favorable light (Edwards, 1953; Harrison, et al., 1996). Arrogance is a construct that is hallmarked by self-aggrandizement and with the lack of multisource survey responders it is possible that an arrogant individual with a lack of self-awareness could skew the results in an attempt to appear better than he actually is (Bauer et al., 2008; Johnson et al., 2010; Meagher, Leman, Bias, Latendresse, & Rowatt, 2015; Silverman et al., 2012).

## Recommendations

Research on arrogance, its impact, and moderating variables remains very much in its infancy. Future research is required using the WARS as an objective measurement tool to examine the impact of arrogance on job performance. It will be important to ensure that a participant sample greater than 200 is used in order to have reasonable statistical power (Aguinis et al., 2005). A recommendation regarding the participant pool is to recruit an equitable sample of males and females in order to understand if gender is a moderating variable for arrogance and performance.

The literature suggests that arrogance in the workplace can have negative individual and organizational consequences (Johnson et al., 2010; Silverman et al., 2012). Future research is needed in order deepen our understanding of the negative impact of arrogant individuals' arrogance on them, their peers, bosses, and direct reports. Johnson et al. (2010) suggested it is "likely arrogance disrupts socioemotional and performance-based processes" (p. 424). Future studies will need to examine the impact of arrogant behaviors not only on the arrogant individual, but also on the stress levels, engagement, and job performance of his/her colleagues. It is also important from an organizational systems perspective to understand if arrogance is more prevalent in some industries and professions than others, so research across various organizational settings will be required.

## Implications

The financial investment advising profession involves making risk and reward recommendations to clients based on a plan to achieve particular financial goals (Tomlinson, 2015). FIAs are well-prepared to do their job based on scholarly achievements and required certifications, and the profession is highly regulated in order to ensure knowledgeable decision-making regarding investment practices (Rossetto & Murphy, 2010; Tomlinson, 2015). Educational courses for financial services professionals typically focus on topics such as investing, taxation, retirement and estate planning. Rarely do academic preparation and professional development effectively cover interpersonal or communication skills which are critical to professional and business success involving clients (Rossetto & Murphy, 2010). These client-focused professionals require competence in two sets of skills; financial specialist knowledge, and "soft" skills/communication – people skills (Rossetto & Murphy, 2010). Tomlinson (2015) stated that more academic research needs to be conducted in support of changes and refinements of financial investment adviser and financial planning practice. Tomlinson called for a continuous feedback loop between the community of social science, economics, investment and finance researchers and the cadre of practitioners. There seems to be an opportunity, informed by research, for FIAs to receive formal instruction to develop or enhance their communication skills and to adopt humility in their approach to client relationship as an antidote to potential arrogant behaviors.

In general, understanding the implications related to and impact of professional arrogance can have practical utility. In a client-focused profession, arrogance could prove costly if it results in challenges with building trust and gaining and retaining client relationships (Johnson et al., 2010). An arrogant approach to business holds the suggestions of others as inferior, does not foster collaboration or allow for consideration of the ideas of others, and does not take the reality of competition into account (Johnson et al., 2010; Ma & Karri, 2005). Often arrogant professionals are prone to being overly optimistic, underestimating potential risk factors and demonstrating overconfidence for planned success (Johnson et al., 2010; Ma & Karri, 2005). Assessing for arrogant behaviors and addressing them as part of a professional development plan could help an organization curtail losses and improve performance and productivity (Johnson et al., 2010; Ma & Karri, 2005; Padua et al., 2010).

Exploring the construct of arrogance in professional settings, similar to companies now focusing on bullying in the workplace and fostering environments of humility and OCB, might contribute to healthier working environments and an increase in the organization's bottom line (Johnson et al., 2010; Ma & Karri, 2005; Padua et al., 2010).

## Conclusion

Professional arrogance has the potential to trigger serious organizational issues. The literature suggests that arrogant individuals are inferior performers compared to their non-arrogant peers (Johnson et al., 2010; Silverman et al., 2012). These individuals are most often poor collaborators, are challenged to develop and maintain relationships, and dismiss inputs and ideas that might help create successful outcomes (Johnson et al., 2010; Silverman et al., 2012). Early arrogance studies relied on subjective inferences and perceptions to assess arrogance. The field of study has progressed due to the development of the 26 question WARS, a reliable and valid tool which can be administered online. Although this study did not show arrogance as correlating with acting superior while being inferior, the literature suggests that arrogant behavior can impact individual performance and overall organizational productivity. In order to thwart the impact of arrogance, companies can promote and instill humility as a core value and behavioral competency across the organization (Silverman et al., 2012).

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Appendix A: Permission to Use the Workplace Arrogance Scale

From: Silverman, Stanley B.
Sent: February-10-16 10:43 AM

Cranla,

You have my permission to use the Workplace Arrogance Scale (WARS) for research purposes only for use with your dissertation.

Best,
Stan

…………………………………………………………………….....
Stanley B. Silverman
President, Human Resource Decisions, Inc.
Dean Emeritus
Professor Emeritus
The University of Akron

# Appendix B: Financial Investment Advisor "Leader Board"

| Advisor | | Month Over Month | | | | Rolling 12 Comparison | | Revenue |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | June 2018 | 1 Mth | 3 Mths | 1 Yr | 12 Mths | 3 Mths | 1 Yr | Firm Rank |
| 100 | 38306.65 | -59% | -20% | -32% | 733403.88 | 3% | 7% | 16 |
| 101 | 73311.74 | 23% | 44% | 0% | 735927.69 | 1% | 25% | 15 |
| 102 | 73420.01 | 71% | 83% | -35% | 728751.84 | 9% | 36% | 17 |
| 103 and 103A | 61425.63 | -4% | 36% | 52% | 640168.13 | 17% | 51% | 22 |
| 104 and 104A | 30100.41 | 4% | 17% | -24% | 428567.28 | 2% | -1% | 36 |
| 105 | 4500.01 | -24% | -41% | 0% | 68948.12 | -2% | 6% | 54 |
| 106 and 106A | 32751.54 | -17% | 26% | 24% | 637347.78 | 2% | 3% | 23 |
| 107 and 107A | 117912.53 | 5% | -8% | 34% | 1456972.38 | 6% | 23% | 4 |
| 108 | 40555.08 | 45% | 34% | -61% | 475231.81 | -30% | -40% | 29 |
| 109 | 81845.92 | 25% | 24% | 97% | 690615.52 | 12% | 30% | 18 |
| 110 | 3713.12 | 97% | 273% | 421% | 38356.63 | 17% | 286% | 56 |
| 111 and 111A | 148986.59 | -22% | 13% | -5% | 1925219.51 | 1% | 7% | 1 |
| 112 | 22325.03 | -82% | 45% | 40% | 641998.15 | 3% | 14% | 21 |
| 113 | 4566.94 | -16% | 19% | -9% | 226531.48 | 2% | -8% | 47 |
| 114 | 44343.23 | 27% | 12% | 25% | 772559.04 | 0% | 3% | 14 |
| 115 and 115A | 67641.47 | -21% | 11% | -18% | 925180.99 | -2% | 3% | 11 |
| 116 | 52523.44 | 25% | 120% | 29% | 473293.21 | 2% | 14% | 30 |
| 117 | 5548.41 | -46% | 17% | -15% | 96363.73 | 3% | 7% | 52 |
| 118 | 35747.28 | 152% | 89% | 15% | 302543.35 | -6% | -24% | 40 |
| 119 | 158492.74 | 16% | 16% | 34% | 1452540.80 | 11% | 16% | 5 |
| 120 | 24913.81 | 6% | -1% | 9% | 295605.81 | 5% | 13% | 41 |
| 121 and 121A | 132846.83 | -38% | 8% | 55% | 1503126.47 | 16% | 52% | 3 |
| 122 and 122A and 122B | 89013.33 | -40% | 33% | 19% | 1143171.64 | 3% | 6% | 7 |
| 123 | 41632.47 | 75% | 139% | 48% | 313226.84 | 1% | -4% | 38 |
| 124 | 106122.42 | 70% | 88% | 203% | 945282.21 | 18% | 166% | 10 |
| 125 | 31611.38 | 314% | 226% | 281% | 256241.48 | 20% | 142% | 43 |
| 126 | 11685.70 | 188% | -84% | -86% | 242830.46 | -36% | -11% | 46 |
| Advisor | Month | Over | Month | | | Rolling 12 Comparison | | Revenue |
| | June 2018 | 1 Mth | 3 Mths | 1 Yr | 12 Mths | 3 Mths | 1 Yr | Firm Rank |

| | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 127 and 127A | 21614.31 | -58% | -18% | -48% | 447080.28 | -5% | 6% | 33 |
| 128 | 97363.13 | 288% | 2022% | 168% | 294733.41 | 29% | 29% | 42 |
| 129 and 129A | 62702.07 | 60% | 193% | 139% | 489739.25 | 6% | 108% | 28 |
| 130 | 6295.04 | 22% | 162% | 479% | 39951.54 | 23% | 416% | 55 |
| 131 | 171589.77 | 205% | 48% | 240% | 815194.47 | 17% | 41% | 12 |
| 132 and 132A | 53971.61 | -50% | -4% | -23% | 792178.01 | 4% | -22% | 13 |
| 133 | 54019.81 | 4% | -4% | 0% | 562607.03 | 2% | 21% | 26 |
| 134 | 57957.10 | 54% | 131% | 37% | 454984.68 | 3% | 18% | 32 |
| 135 | 31042.01 | 49% | 77% | 97% | 245351.33 | 2% | 127% | 45 |
| 136 | 18859.00 | 123% | -47% | NA | 72081.06 | 72% | NA | 53 |
| 137 | 10659.94 | 36% | 13% | 0% | 164804.18 | 1% | -6% | 48 |
| 138 | 62764.48 | -10% | 174% | -3% | 665089.39 | 2% | 1% | 19 |
| 139 | 224211.36 | 179% | 182% | 320% | 1798224.68 | 0% | 143% | 2 |
| 140 | 143555.31 | 130% | 102% | 97% | 1025205.29 | 11% | 17% | 8 |
| 141 | 38577.97 | 11% | 14% | 3% | 440409.28 | 1% | 5% | 34 |
| 142 | 7206.21 | 67% | -46% | -61% | 136700.63 | -15% | -31% | 50 |
| 143 | 38134.61 | -31% | 12% | 52% | 437079.95 | 18% | 44% | 35 |
| 144 and 144A | 30550.15 | 79% | 110% | 50% | 310098.15 | 2% | 11% | 39 |
| 145 | 22117.10 | -30% | -45% | -36% | 341660.77 | -5% | -9% | 37 |
| 146 | 59341.25 | 31% | 49% | 20% | 648886.10 | 0% | 23% | 20 |
| 147 and 147A | 62872.33 | 14% | 52% | -19% | 632194.41 | -3% | -17% | 24 |
| 148 | 158.40 | 291% | -49% | 1851% | 4741.10 | 14% | 917% | 57 |
| 149 and 149A | 50590.54 | 22% | 12% | 11% | 532660.55 | -2% | 2% | 27 |
| 150 | 20820.10 | 5% | 3% | -10% | 246521.75 | -2% | -4% | 44 |
| 151 and 151A | 48062.89 | -23% | 47% | 42% | 466751.04 | 8% | 4% | 31 |
| 152 | 12370.98 | 7% | 13% | 40% | 124611.62 | 9% | 50% | 51 |
| 153 | 119668.20 | -31% | 74% | 70% | 1150692.99 | 17% | 16% | 6 |
| 154 | 75552.37 | -4% | 8% | -20% | 970516.38 | -1% | 172% | 9 |
| 155 | 51197.85 | 56% | 18% | 225% | 571071.72 | 11% | 347% | 25 |
| 156 | 35703.08 | 12% | 45% | NA | 141775.47 | 227% | NA | 49 |

| Advisor | | Month Over Month | | | Assets | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | June 2018 | 1 Mth | 3 Mths | 1 Yr | Firm Rank | Firm Average Rank Rev + Assets |
| 100 | 120065693 | 0% | 1% | 2% | 6 | 11 |
| 101 | 112028237 | -5% | -5% | -4% | 10 | 12.5 |
| 102 | 82002884 | 7% | 13% | 44% | 17 | 17 |
| 103 and 103A | 85983194 | -1% | -3% | 11% | 16 | 19 |
| 104 and 104A | 45475222 | -4% | -2% | NA | 33 | 34.5 |
| 105 | 15349619 | 5% | 12% | NA | 50 | 52 |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 106 and 106A | 59015880 | -3% | 0% | -8% | 26 | 24.5 |
| 107 and 107A | 138534445 | 6% | 12% | 31% | 3 | 3.5 |
| 108 | 73652209 | -1% | 0% | -4% | 19 | 24 |
| 109 | 31618060 | 3% | 3% | 17% | 43 | 30.5 |
| 110 | 3483938 | -1% | 2% | 245% | 56 | 56 |
| 111 and 111A | 227236972 | 1% | 3% | 4% | 1 | 1 |
| 112 | 81055198 | 0% | 5% | 11% | 18 | 19.5 |
| 113 | 43293191 | 1% | 4% | 7% | 36 | 41.5 |
| 114 | 121596584 | 8% | 3% | 49% | 5 | 9.5 |
| 115 and 115A | 112908592 | 0% | 2% | 6% | 9 | 10 |
| 116 | 69555959 | -1% | 1% | 3% | 22 | 26 |
| 117 | 43520492 | 1% | 1% | 4% | 35 | 43.5 |
| 118 | 48455823 | 0% | -2% | 32% | 31 | 35.5 |
| 119 | 119944529 | -2% | 0% | 44% | 7 | 6 |
| 120 | 27168997 | 2% | -3% | 6% | 46 | 43.5 |
| 121 and 121A | 166017743 | -3% | -4% | 17% | 2 | 2.5 |
| 122 and 122A and 122B | 98526583 | 1% | -1% | 6% | 14 | 10.5 |
| 123 | 27511641 | 1% | 3% | 10% | 44 | 41 |
| 124 | 14176006 | -3% | -2% | 23% | 51 | 30.5 |
| 125 | 13122477 | 6% | 14% | 18% | 54 | 48.5 |
| 126 | 27486522 | -2% | 0% | 13% | 45 | 45.5 |
| 127 and 127A | 34710008 | 20% | 19% | -5% | 42 | 37.5 |
| Advisor | | Month Over Month | | | Assets | |
| | June 2018 | 1 Mth | 3 Mths | 1 Yr | Firm Rank | Firm Average Rank Rev + Assets |
| 128 | 73099264 | 1% | 11% | -22% | 20 | 31 |
| 129 and 129A | 43693853 | -9% | -1% | -23% | 34 | 31 |
| 130 | 13858450 | -9% | 26% | 32% | 52 | 53.5 |
| 131 | 60241265 | 3% | 23% | 36% | 24 | 18 |
| 132 and 132A | 128877878 | 3% | 5% | 4% | 4 | 8.5 |
| 133 | 98811463 | 1% | 4% | 2% | 13 | 19.5 |
| 134 | 40126966 | 86% | 3% | 4% | 38 | 35 |
| 135 | 20401903 | -2% | -1% | 133% | 48 | 46.5 |
| 136 | 13855401 | 9% | 319% | NA | 53 | 53 |
| 137 | 19137280 | 5% | 12% | 12% | 49 | 48.5 |
| 138 | 70398687 | -1% | -2% | 0% | 21 | 20 |
| 139 | 119501586 | 0% | 1% | 6% | 8 | 5 |
| 140 | 90341549 | 0% | 2% | 1% | 15 | 11.5 |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 141 | 62443715 | 0% | 1% | 5% | 23 | 28.5 |
| 142 | 47272032 | 8% | 3% | 36% | 32 | 41 |
| 143 | 39330031 | -13% | -7% | 8% | 40 | 37.5 |
| 144 and 144A | 50644102 | -3% | 1% | 6% | 30 | 34.5 |
| 145 | 40227202 | 1% | 0% | 19% | 37 | 37 |
| 146 | 35733925 | -1% | -11% | 8% | 41 | 30.5 |
| 147 and 147A | 50973794 | -2% | -3% | -6% | 29 | 26.5 |
| 148 | 541512 | -1% | -8% | 22% | 57 | 57 |
| 149 and 149A | 59434085 | 0% | 2% | 1% | 25 | 26 |
| 150 | 26872713 | 0% | 4% | 3% | 47 | 45.5 |
| 151 and 151A | 58167900 | 0% | 16% | 18% | 27 | 29 |
| 152 | 6165146 | -3% | -2% | 30% | 55 | 53 |
| 153 | 99001650 | 2% | 6% | 9% | 11 | 8.5 |
| 154 | 98823841 | 0% | 6% | 18% | 12 | 10.5 |
| 155 | 52344494 | 0% | 3% | 18% | 28 | 26.5 |
| 156 | 39504568 | 2% | 20% | NA | 39 | 44 |