

Mediating Effect of Reputation on the Relationship between Interpersonal Skills and Career Success in Uasin Gishu County Government

¹Dorcas Jepkorir Kiplagat

^{1,2} Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology

Abstract: Career success is determined by a number of factors, including some combination of specific competencies and a performance record, along with network development, organizational politics, and reputation building. The county government of Uasin Gishu has of late received negative publicity for its policy on career development. Although interpersonal skills have been argued by researchers to demonstrate influence on work and career outcomes, a few attempts have been made to show how interpersonal skills influences these outcomes. This study investigated the relationship between interpersonal skills and career success of employees of Uasin Gishu County. The specific objectives of the study were: To determine the relationship between networking and career success, to establish the relationship between personal promotion and career success, to determine the relationship between impression management and career success, to establish the relationship between use of influence tactics and career success, and to determine whether reputation has any mediating effect on the relationship between interpersonal skills and career success. A case research design was used. Target population was all the employees of Uasin Gishu County government. Stratified ransom sampling and then simple random sampling was used to obtain the respondents for this proposed study. Primary data was collected using standard questionnaires. Interpersonal skills were taken as the independent variable, career success the dependent variable, and reputation as the mediating variable. Reliability was assessed using Cronbach's alpha and the data was analyzed using SPSS. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyze the data. The study findings showed a significant positive correlation between networking skills and career success ($r = .933, p=0.000$), impression management and career success ($r = .775, p=0.000$), self-promotion and career success ($r = .933, p=0.000$), use of influence tactics and career success ($r=.896, p=0.000$). Also there was a significant positive correlation between reputation and networking skills ($r =.909, p=0.000$), impression management ($r =.829, p=0.000$), self-promotion ($r=.933, p=0.000$), and use of influence tactics($r=.896, p=0.000$), ($r=.909, p=0.000$). The result of the study indicated that networking does not have a significant effect on career success, impression management was found to have a positive significant relationship with career success, and there was no significant effect of use of influence tactics on career success. Reputation was found to partially mediate the relationship between interpersonal skills and career success and hence on the other hand, results indicated that reputation fully mediate the relationship between impression management and career success and hence. It was also found that reputation fully mediated the relationship between self-promotion and career success.

Keywords: Career Success, Reputation, Networking Skills, Impression Management, Self-promotion, Interpersonal Skills.

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study:

Career success in organizations has been actively investigated for years. It has been found to be determined not only by many traditional factors, including job-related skills and performance record, but also by networking, politics, and social effectiveness competencies (Ng, Eby, Sorensen, & Feldman, 2005). Indeed, interpersonal perspectives on organizations (Ferris et al., 2002; Ferris & Judge, 1991; Mintzberg, 1983; Pfeffer, 1981) have argued that performance, promotions, compensation, and other factors known to be manifestations of career success are strongly affected by organizational politics, a proposition that has received consistent empirical support (Graf, & Ferris, 1997).

Career success is determined by a number of factors, including some combination of specific competencies and a performance record, along with network development, organizational politics, and reputation building. Theory and research suggest that employees' interpersonal skill predicts their career success, and that this relationship is mediated by employees' reputation in the workplace.

Today's competitive environment has magnified the importance of social effectiveness competencies that facilitate effective interpersonal interactions, performance, and career progression. One such pattern of competencies is reflected in the construct of interpersonal skill, which has been defined as "The ability to effectively understand others at work and to use such knowledge to influence others to act in ways that enhance one's personal and/or organizational objectives" (Ferris, Treadway et al., 2005, p. 127).

Theory and research on interpersonal skill argue that individuals high in interpersonal skill possess social awareness, which is combined with an ability to adjust and calibrate behavior to different situations in a genuine and sincere manner. This competency inspires the support, confidence, and trust of others and influences their attitudinal and behavioral responses toward these interpersonally skilled individuals (Ferris et al., 2007). As such, interpersonal skill has been theorized to influence performance and career-success evaluations by decision makers (e.g., Ferris, Davidson, & Perrewé, 2005; Ferris et al., 2007).

1.1.1 Global Perspective of Employee Career Success:

Although improved knowledge regarding a reputation has been found to be universally advantageous at the organization level, it may be of even greater value to the individual. Organizational scientists have suggested that reputation can be a form of "signaling" (Ferris, Blass, Douglas, Kolodinsky, & Treadway, 2003; Spence, 1974). Reputation is important to individuals in that it reduces ambiguity. It gives people an opportunity to tell others beyond their immediate cohort, something about themselves that they deem important. Besides signaling, reputation affects individuals by aiding their career progress. (Pfeffer, 1992) after a study in Canada suggested that a reputation for being a powerful individual brings even more power. Hall, Blass, Ferris, and Massengale (2004) suggested that as individuals reputation increases, their accountability decrease. This belief follows not only theories in organizational behavior, but also is supported by work in the field of marketing. When customers do not have complete information about a product in the market, they will choose familiar brands, expecting the some level of quality in the product created by that brand (Grassley, 1999). With increased autonomy, reputation builders will have even more opportunities to excel beyond expectations thus increasing their reputations.

When distributing power among a group, reputation has been shown to affect the status of the members (Carroll, 2003). Members of a group act in a certain manner to not only improve their personal status in the group but also to maintain the status over time. Because reputation has been shown to be used in place of complete information regarding an individual, it would be logical to assume that many human resources decisions such as hiring and promotion would be affected by reputation.

Although the study of reputation at the organizational level is extensive, after more than 50 years of research, some scientists are attempting to better explain organizational reputation by personifying companies and viewing them as entities with personal reputation (Zarawska, 1997; Davies et al., 2001; Meyer, Boli & Thomas, 1987). Organizational scientists have not come to an agreement on a basic definition of personal reputation (Mahon, 2002). Some researchers have conflicting definitions (Gotsi & Wilson, 2001). In order to explain personal reputation of employees in selected

institutions in Eldoret Town, the study will adopt Zinko *et al.*, 2007 definition defining the construct as “a perceptual identity formed from the collective perceptions of others, which is reflective of the complex combination of salient personal characteristics and accomplishments, demonstrated behavior and intended images presented over some period of time observed directly and/or reported from secondary sources which reduces ambiguity about expected future behavior”.

From the definition, it can be pointed out that personal reputation is not characterized as a singular identity, suggesting that an individual could retain a number of different, if not conflicting, personal reputations (Ferris *et al.*, 2003). It can also be highlighted that personal reputation is perceptual and highly subjective phenomenon more of socially constructed reality than an objective one (Fine, 1996; Gamson, Croteau, Hoynes & Sasson, 1992; Goffman, 1957; Gowler & Legge, 1989; Rao, 1994). Personal reputation is influenced by an individual’s personal characteristics, accomplishments, and the behavioral manifestations of such underlying traits such as interpersonal skill, social control, human capital and time which are especially relevant to this study. Personal reputation does not occur instantaneously, but emerges overtime through direct observation or communication between secondary sources (Gotsi, 2001; Herbig *et al.*, 1994; Milewicz, 1994). Different individual reputations can act in a synergistic manner, which makes them unique to the individual and difficult to imitate.

Although several articles have linked impression management to reputation (Montagliani & Giacalone, 1998; Stephens & Greer, 1995), Bromley’s work is perhaps the most comprehensive to date (Ferris *et al.*, 2003). Bromley stated that individuals often do not know how others perceive them, but at times they sense how they are affecting others and try to change their behavior to reflect favorable impression. Johnson, Erez, Motowildo and Kiker(2002) studied reputation as it relates to liking, attributions and rewards. They found that, whereas observed behaviors are stronger determinants of rewards than reputation alone, there is a significant interaction between helpful behaviors and a positive reputation when receiving rewards. This suggests that individuals will reward others on not only observed performance, but also assumed performance due to reputation.

1.1.2 Regional Perspective of Employee Career Success:

In Africa a study by (Haviland, 2000) shows that Reputation gives individuals in an organization to communicate intentions and beliefs through action. This communication is an opportunity to be seen and heard by more than one’s immediate supervisor. Anthropologists in Nigeria reported that reputation, good or bad, is what makes an individual part of a community, and that reputation is used to manipulate people as a means to an end. (Blass, 2002) based on his study of employees of the education sector in Egypt suggested that these communications occur during “episodic events”, which are observed by others and reported to a wider group. The group then assigns a few characteristics to the individual based on the communicated episodic events for which the individual becomes “known”.

In Tanzania, sociologists, like communication researchers, have stated that in order for events to be passed on through groups, they must be interesting to deviate from the norm. An individual who does nothing out of the ordinary will not be discussed by others (Haviland, 1997; Levin, 1987), and therefore will not hold a strong reputation. Additionally, the field suggested that importance of one’s reputation diminishes as the intention of the interaction is also reduced, and that individuals must only manage their impressions with those they interact with frequently (Baiman, 2005)

1.1.3 Local Perspective of Career Success:

In Kenya, a study by (Kimani, 2011) indicated that personal reputation influence career success in that, individuals with favorable reputations perform better. Junior employees who create a favorable impression in their early career stages receive greater attention and career sponsorship from elites in the organization, which help them gain competitive advantage in career tournament which leads to career success. Moreover, individuals with positive reputations are perceived to be more powerful, capable and attuned to the workings of the organization. Their manifestations of power may propel others to react positively to their appeal for help or assistance in the hope of immediate or future interpersonal rewards. The image that reputable individuals portray helps them gain more power and influence which permits them to accomplish things with less effort resulting in high performance and effectiveness.

(Ogindo, 2002), studied reputation as it relates to liking, attributions and rewards among the employees of the telecommunication sector in Kenya. He found that whereas observed behaviors are stronger determinants of rewards than reputation alone, there is a significant interaction between helpful behaviors and a positive reputation when receiving

rewards. This suggests that individuals will reward others on not only observed performance but also on assumed performance due to reputation.

The studies done on personal reputation do not link personal reputation attributes to career success. Hence this study has provided a better understanding of competencies that facilitate effective interpersonal and career progression in the work environment and also how the personal reputation influences employee career development. The study was also expected to provide the actual information used by audiences to make their decisions regarding an individual's personal reputation.

Although personal reputation has been argued by researchers to demonstrate influence on work and career outcomes, a few attempts have been made to show how personal reputation influences these outcomes. Despite the argument about the importance of a good reputation, there is very little theory and research on personal reputation in the field of organizational behavior (Ferris, 2003). This lack of research is surprising considering the extensive amount of literature regarding impression management (Sosic & Junk, 2003), attribution theory (Gardener & Avolio, 1998), career advancement (Singh, 2000), and interpersonal skill (Ferris, 2005). These entire phenomenon has been shown to have direct link to personal reputation, but a few attempts have been made to ascertain such relationships. Hence there was need to investigate personal reputation of employees in organizations since the modern world is relying more heavily on reputation as a defining concept. Therefore the purpose of the study was to determine the relationship between personal reputation and career success of employees of Uasin Gishu County government in Kenya.

1.2 Statement of the Problem:

Career success in organizations has been actively investigated for years. It has been found to be determined not only by many traditional factors, including job-related skills and performance record, but also by networking, politics, and social effectiveness competencies (for a review, see Ng, Eby, Sorensen, & Feldman, 2005). Indeed, interpersonal perspectives on organizations have argued that performance, promotions, compensation, and other factors known to be manifestations of career success are strongly affected by interpersonal skills, a proposition that has received consistent empirical support (e.g., Judge & Bretz, 1994; Wayne, Liden, Graf, & Ferris, 1997).

Today's competitive environment has magnified the importance of social effectiveness competencies that facilitate effective interpersonal interactions, performance, and career progression. One such pattern of competencies is reflected in the construct of interpersonal skill at work place, which has been defined as "The ability to effectively understand others at work, and to use such knowledge to influence others to act in ways that enhance one's personal and/or organizational objectives" (Ferris, Treadway et al., 2005, p. 127).

Interpersonal skills are a socially constructed reality based on consistent pattern of behaviors and it is dependent on effective use of information to convey it within the social networks. Organizations today are inherently dependent on interpersonal skills. To gain competitive advantage in such a competitive environment, individuals need to develop socially constructed competencies that facilitate career progression. Organizational theorists have suggested that reputation is one of the few resources that give firms a sustainable competitive advantage (Barney, 2010). It is viewed as a non-tradable, non-substitutable, inimitable, intangible resource that can be managed (Kothaa, Rajgopala, & Rindova, 2012).

However literature on influence of individual competencies such as social effectiveness, tactics used and personality on career success provide conflicting results and the content and geographical scope has been limited to few competencies in the developed world hence the need for the study on the influence of interpersonal skills on career success in Uasin Gishu county government and the mediating role that reputation plays..

1.3 Objectives:

The primary purpose of the present study was to examine the nature of the relationship between interpersonal skills and career success.

1.3.2. Specific Objectives

The specific objectives of the study was:

1. To find out the relationship the effect of networking skills on career success.

2. To find out the effect of impression management on career success.
3. To determine the effect of self promotion on career success.
4. To determine the effect of use of influence tactics on career success.
5. To determine whether reputation has any mediating effect on the relationship between interpersonal skills and career success.

1.4 Hypotheses:

The study tested the following null hypotheses:

H₀₁: Networking skills has no significant effect on career success

H₀₂: Impression management has no significant effect on career success

H₀₃: Self-promotion has no significant effect on career success

H₀₄: Use of influence tactics has no significant effect on career success

H_{05a}: Reputation does not have mediating effects on the relationship between networking skills and career success.

H_{05b}: Reputation does not have mediating effect on the relationship between impression management and career success.

H_{05c}: Reputation does not have mediating effect on the relationship between self promotion and career success.

H_{05d}: Reputation does not have mediating effect on the relationship between Use of influence tactics and career success.

1.6 Justification:

The study is expected to offer a more informed understanding of use of interpersonal skills for career success to the organization, employees and includes county executive committee, chief officers, county public service board, defunct local authority, devolved staff from national government and stakeholders.

The study is therefore expected to provide more information to the organization's human resource department on how to develop criteria career development in the county government.

The scholars will use the findings of this study to be able to further understand the theories underpinning interpersonal skills and career success in an organization. The findings of the study are expected to help individual employees understand that, they are being observed by others while performing their duties and hence are able to try and change their behavior to reflect favorable impressions. The study is also expected to guide the stakeholders into developing relationships with partners and clients well recognized because of positive reputations in order for them to boost their own reputations and hence improve their performances.

1.7 Scope of the Study:

The study was carried out in Uasin Gishu County. It will cover effects of interpersonal skills on career success. Uasin Gishu County is situated in the former Rift Valley Province. It borders Nandi County to the South, Trans Nzoia County to the North, and Elgeyo Marakwet County to the East. It shares some rather short borders with Bungoma County to the West and Kericho County to its South Eastern tip. It occupies 3,345 square kilometers with a population of 894,179 people as per the 2009 census. Eldoret is its capital city as well as main commercial centre.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction:

This chapter will analyze the theoretical framework to be used in the study based on the variables to be studied, give a critique of the literature, the conceptual framework, research gaps and the summary

2.2 Theoretical Framework:

2.2.1 Leader Member Exchange Theory (LMX):

This study was modeled on the theory of leader member exchange theory (LMX) advanced by Graen & Cushman, 1975. The theory has been used in the field of organizational behavior to explain relationships between leaders and subordinates. The theory has been used by Anderson & Williams, 1996; Dansereau et al., 1975; Delagu, 1998; Liden & Graft, 1999, in their studies to investigate the consequences of LMX relationship quality and the findings of the study showed a positive relationship between LMX relationship quality and perceived organizational support. LMX theory postulates that leaders could display different styles with different followers. In short, this theory proposed that supervisors possess different relationships with their employees. This theory was preferred over social identity theory, trait theory and signaling theory due to the weaknesses of these theories.

Leader-member exchange develops as a series of steps beginning with interactions between team members. Initial interaction is followed by a series of exchanges in which individuals test one another to determine whether participants can build relational components necessary for high-quality exchange relationships (Graen & Scandura, 2000). To measure high quality exchange, three dimensions of LMX comprising of affect, loyalty and contribution were used by Zinko (2003).

Appropriate use of influence is essential; leadership function that differentiates successful manager from a non-successful one (Ryan & Kriska, 2002). Yukl and MacDonald (2003) also endorsed the importance of influence tactics where the effectiveness of manager depends on their capability to influence others in the same organization. Yukl (2005) goes on to advocate for use of proactive influence tactics. Use of influence tactics is critical for executives faced with decision making difficulties, where the influence tactic mitigate common decision making and implementation difficulties on executive teams (Enns & McFarlin, 2003). Further, numerous studies on organizational behavior concur that; interpersonal influence in organizations is most important determinant of managerial effectiveness (Hostager & Bergmann, 2003).

Although a number of studies have established the outcomes of LMX relationship quality, there is still some ambiguity about how LMX relationships are developed (House & Baetz, 1979), "it is not clear what behaviors on the part of the subordinates and on the part of the leaders result in subordinates becoming members of each of the exchange groups". In support of this theory, research has found a positive relationship between LMX relationship quality and member reports of ingratiation (Deluga, 1991; Wayne & Graen, 1993; Shore & Liden, 1997), as well as reports of follower ingratiation (Collela & Varma, 2001; Dockery & Steiner, 1990; Fedor, 1997). Similarly, member self-promotion tactics also have been found to share appositive relationship with LMX relationship quality (Collela & Varma, 2001; Dockery & Steiner, 1990; Farmer et al., 1997). Clearly, most on the relationship between influence tactics and LMX relationship quality has focused on ingratiation and self-promotion. However, Liden (1986) suggested that the range of tactics members might use to influence leaders is quite wide.

2.2.2 Social Identity Theory:

Social identity theory possesses a greater explanatory power than predictive power that the resulting intergroup behavior may be more consistent with the theory but the outcome turns out to be different from what was predicted. Social identity theory suggests that perceptions of group boundaries in turn affect the strategies individuals employ when attempting to transition between groups or change social structures (Tajfel & Turner, 1979, 1986). Social identity theory suggests that people can have multiple social identities along several dimensions and they tend to identify with the one most salient to them.

2.2.3 Career Capital Theory:

According to this theory that was proposed by Eby et al (2003) major sets of variables predicting career success include human capital (e.g. education, professional experiences, and social capital), socio-demographic variables (e.g. age, gender, and marital status), motivational variables (e.g. ambition and work centrality), organizational variables (e.g. HR development programs and supervisor support), and stable individual difference variables (e.g. mental ability and locus of control, Ng et al., 2005).

Eby et al (2003) implemented the theoretical framework of career capital (Inkson and Arthur, 2001) to categorize the predictors of career success into three kinds of career competencies: (1) knowing-why, which refers to energy, sense of purpose, motivation, self-confidence, and evaluation of a certain career path; (2) knowing-whom, which compasses comprehensive networks, relationships, and attachments that people build in their career; and (3) knowing-how, which

includes technical, conceptual, and interpersonal skills, expertise, tactics, and explicit knowledge that people form in their specific career settings. These three career capital components are interdependent and any one component can be enhanced by the other two (Inkson and Arthur, 2001).

2.2.4 Signaling theory:

Signaling theory is a multi-dimensional scale needed to measure many signals at a given time. As applied in this study, the theory holds that positive reputation derived from positive LMX relationships results in effective commitment, job satisfaction and career advancement. This is true considering the fact that high-quality exchanges result in support, loyalty trust and mutual influence (Liden & Dienesch, 1986) which result in valuable rewards to both members and leaders. Thus, if the Administrators in selected institutions of higher learning in Eldoret town are aware that social control, human capital and interpersonal skill influences compensation, new job responsibilities and promotion then the researcher uses high quality exchange relationships maintained in organizations. then performance would increase logic to relate to personal reputation, job and career outcomes. However, in adopting this theory, the researcher is not ignorant with the weaknesses associated with the theory that include; the LMX theory focuses only on integration and self-promotion as influence tactics on LMX relationships when there are a range of tactics that members might use to influence leaders.

Leader member exchange relationships are negotiated over time through series of interactions between leaders and subordinates (Dienesch & Liden, 1986). Similarity between LMX and social exchange theory is that LMX extends beyond formal job description (Liden *et al.*, 1997). The result is a high quality relationship characterized by mutual trust, support and rewards which obligates subordinates to reciprocate high-quality relationships (Liden, 1986). Leaders with high LMX relationships with subordinates reward outstanding subordinates. They may also introduce such employees to key individuals in other parts of the organization (Sparrowe & Liden, 1997). The best interest of the subordinate is to be regarded highly by the supervisor and this is achieved by establishing a social exchange relationship between the supervisor and the subordinate. For the relationship to occur, leaders need to develop a positive image (reputation) in the context of workplace. The positive image of the leader is then expected to be replicated by the subordinates (Zinko *et al.*, 2007).

2.3 Conceptual Framework:

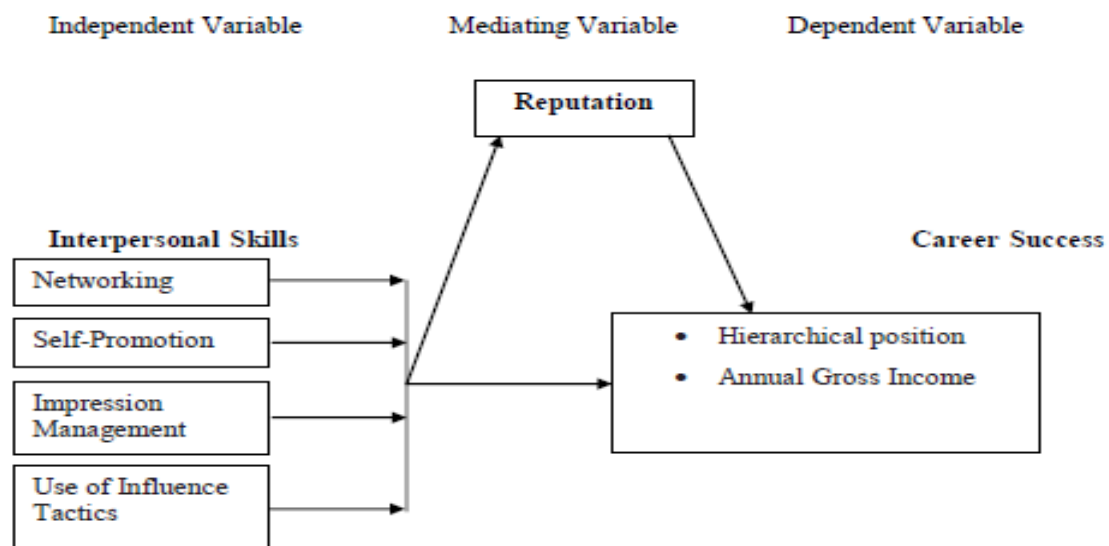


Figure 2.1 : Conceptual Framework

2.4 Operationalization of the Variables:

2.4.1 Interpersonal Skill and Career Success:

Interpersonal perspectives on organizations have been prevalent and influential in organizational theory and research for more than a quarter century (e.g., Mintzberg, 1983; Pfeffer, 1981). Fundamental to this view about organizations is that reality often is enacted and socially constructed between individuals.

Employees' interpersonal activities play an important role in shaping others' perceptions and assessment of their characteristics, performance, and potential. In turn, these perceptions influence the degree to which individuals are successful in their careers, as indicated by their ability to obtain organizational resources and rewards, such as pay and positions (Ferris, Fedor, & King, 1994; Ferris & Judge, 1991).

Over the past couple decades, considerable empirical evidence has been accumulated to support this notion. For example, career success has been linked with tactics of influence (e.g., Higgins, Judge, & Ferris, 2003; Judge & Bretz, 1994; Wayne *et al.*, 1997), interpersonal behaviors (e.g., Wolff & Moser, 2009), as well as interpersonal knowledge and skill (Chao, O'Leary-Kelly, Wolf, Klein, & Gardner, 1994; Seibert, Kraimer, & Liden, 2001). Indeed, the interpersonal side of human-resource decisions is so prevalent that it has led some to suggest that perceptions of raters necessarily exhibit at least as much, if not more, influence on decisions than the objective conditions of target employees' behaviors and aggregate contribution (e.g., Ferris, Munyon, Basik, & Buckley, 2008).

Viewed through this lens of organizational politics, careers can be seen as interpersonal campaigns (Inkson, 2004), involving contact hunting (Granovetter, 1974), self-promotion (Higgins *et al.*, 2003), impression management (Bolino & Turnley, 2003), and use of influence tactics (Judge & Bretz, 1994). The success of such campaigns depends critically on individual competencies (e.g., interpersonal skill) that enable the effective management and projection of positive images across different work environments, especially for images that influence the assessment of performance and career potential.

Ferris *et al.* (2007) characterized interpersonal skill as "a comprehensive pattern of social competencies, with cognitive, affective, and behavioral manifestations" (p. 291). Theory and research on interpersonal skill have suggested that this set of competencies enables individuals to astutely diagnose contexts and to effectively calibrate and adapt their behavior and influence to various situational and interpersonal demands (Ferris *et al.*, 2007). Ferris, Treadway and colleagues (2005) suggested that a major benefit of interpersonal skill is the ability to navigate effectively between multiple constituencies in creating and managing positive perceptions made by observers. In organizations today, this suggests that those high in interpersonal skill are capable of managing divergent interests in a manner that inspires consistently positive ratings of performance, promotability, and compensation from multiple constituencies or evaluators.

To date, empirical research has reported strong, consistent, and positive predictability of interpersonal skill on job performance ratings (e.g., Ferris, Treadway *et al.*, 2005; Jawahar, Meurs, Ferris, & Hochwarter, 2008; Kolodinsky, Treadway, & Ferris, 2007; Liu *et al.*, 2007; Semadar, Robins, & Ferris, 2006).

Theory and research in this area would argue that similar patterns of relationships exist between interpersonal skill and career-success measures. In recent meta-analyses, interpersonal knowledge and understanding have been shown to be related to salary, promotion, and career satisfaction (Ng *et al.*, 2005). Yet, this research was limited in scope and has not focused on the particular construct of interpersonal skill.

Zinko *et al.*, (2007) defined personal reputation as "a perceptual identity formed from the collective perceptions of others, which is reflective of the complex combination of salient personal characteristics and accomplishments, demonstrated behavior and intended images presented over some period of time as observed directly and/or reported from secondary sources, which reduce ambiguity about expected future behavior". Based in this definition, one must question how individuals evaluate the quality of their personal reputations.

2.4.2 Interpersonal skill and Reputation:

The development and maintenance of reputation often involves deliberate actions (Bromley, 1993). Bozeman and Kacmar (1997) argued that people are motivated to manage their impressions because they have a goal of creating and maintaining a certain identity that they find rewarding or useful. Furthermore, Ferris and colleagues (Ferris, Hochwarter, Buckley, Harrell-Cook, & Frink, 1999; Ferris & Judge, 1991) suggested that individuals may use interpersonal maneuvering to manipulate reputational signaling advantageously.

Individuals with interpersonal skill are at a vantage point of building their personal reputations because they transmit signals conducive to a favorable image to the public through their proactive networking activities, and the use of influential and situationally appropriate influence tactics (Liu *et al.*, 2007). Tsui (1984) suggested that the most reputationally effective individuals are those who are able to meet the expectations of multiple constituents within a role

set. With the social astuteness and adaptive approach to interpersonal influence (Ferris *et al.*, 2002; Ferris, Treadway *et al.*, 2005), it appears that interpersonal ly skilled individuals are precisely those who will skilfully meet these various expectations, and thereby, form favorable reputations for themselves.

Reputation-related signals of interpersonal ly skilled individuals also are likely to spread quickly because of well-established connections with influential people in their social networks.

Finally, in a qualitative investigation, Smith, Plowman, Duchon, and Quinn (2009) found in their field interviews and observations of high-reputation plant managers from 11 manufacturing plants that effective interpersonal skill enabled them to influence subordinates in ways that contributed positively to organizational outcomes.

Flynn (2003) conducted a study in which she examined how career success was affected by the tactics used by the employee. She defined social status as “awarded to people on the basis of their apparent possessions of attributes held as ideal by other members of the social group facilitated by other members’ beliefs that the individual possesses a unique value or has provided something of unique value to the group”. Flynn (2003) postulated that career success can be linked to the strategies employed by the employee. in the light of the perceived comparability of the construct domains. The results of the study showed that increased giving can positively affect “social status” reputation. This suggests that although reputation is an agreed upon assessment of others, an individual’s actions play a part in this assessment. Tinsley, O’connor, and Sullivan (2002) examined the personal reputation of negotiators. They found that when negotiators had a negative reputation, they were less likely to do as well against novice opponents who knew their reputation. The novice group preferred to use more distributive and less integrative tactics. This suggests that when no other information is provided, reputation was a significant factor in career success.

Organizational politics especially those linked to human resource decisions are so prevalent such that perceptions of raters exhibit more influence on decisions than the target employees behavior and aggregate contribution (Ferris, Basik & Buckley, 2008). From organizational politics perspective, careers can be seen as interpersonal campaigns (Inkson, 2004) involving contact hunting, self promotion (Higgins *et al.*, 2003) and use of influence tactics (Ferris *et al.*, 2007). The success of such campaigns depends on individual competencies such as personality, social effectiveness and influence tactics that enable the effective management and projection of positive image across work environments that influence the assessment of performance and career potential. Empirical evidence show social effectiveness to be related to salary, promotion, and career satisfaction (Ng *et al.*, 2005) yet the research was limited in scope and focused on general organization politics. However little has been done to determine the link between tactics used by the employee and career success. Reputation gives individuals in an organization to communicate intentions and beliefs through actions (Caroll *et al.*, 2003). This communication is an opportunity to be seen and heard by more than one’s immediate supervisor. Individuals can focus on specific or trait for which they wish to acquire a reputation and convince others including their supervisors. If they are successful, they will gain a reputation for that particular characteristic and as such individuals outside their immediate influence will know them for their positive reputation. Blass (2002) suggested that these communications occur during “episodic events”, which are observed by others and reported to a wider group. The group then assigns a few characteristics to the individual based on the communicated episodic events for which the individual becomes “known”. This raises the question; how do individuals influence their reputations.

Personal reputation is a complex combination of salient personal characteristics and accomplishments, demonstrated and intended images presented over some period of time. Because it is a collective perception of others makes it a socially constructed reality formed based on consistent pattern of past behavior (Zinko, 2010). Findings by (Shirako, 2009) indicate that social connectedness of people to an individual’s history makes the behavior more salient in becoming part of the individual’s personal reputation. Development and maintenance of personal reputation is a deliberate action (Bromley, 1982). Individuals are motivated to manage their impressions because they have a goal of creating and maintaining an identity they find rewarding (Zinko, 2010). Importantly, reputation is formed both directly through observation and indirectly based on information shared by third parties (Becker, 2012).

A favorable reputation is conducive to beneficial career outcomes for a number of reasons. First of all, individuals with favorable reputations may, in fact, perform better. The sponsored mobility model of career success (Turner, 2000) suggests that early impressions by decision makers are very important in advancement or promotion decisions. Those who are able to create favorable impressions in their early career stages receive greater attention and career sponsorship from

the elites in their organization, which help them to gain competitive advantage in the career tournament, eventually leading to career success (Wayne, 2007). Thus, it is reasonable to expect that favorable reputations will make individuals stand out from other employees, and receive career sponsorship and career success.

Moreover, reputable individuals also are perceived as being more powerful, capable, and attuned to the workings of the organization (Ferris *et al.* 2003). Their manifestation of power may propel others to react positively to their appeals for help or assistance in the hope of immediate or future interpersonal rewards. Consistently, Pfeffer (1992) suggested that the powerful image that reputable individuals portray in the eyes of observers over time helps them to gain more power and influence, which permits them to accomplish things with less effort, thus resulting in higher performance and effectiveness.

However, besides its performance-enhancing function, reputation also benefits individuals through performance-relevant mechanisms. It has been suggested that performance evaluation and organizational reward allocation involve complex cognitive, affective, and social processes that are characterized by a great deal of ambiguity and uncertainty (Ferris, 2008). From the cognitive perspective, because of limited personal and cognitive resources typically allocated to performance-evaluation and reward-allocation decisions (Judge & Bretz, 1994), as well as lack of complete information (Spence, 2003), decision makers often depend on salient—but non-performance-related—cues to assist decisions (Spence, 2012).

Reputation helps decrease ambiguity about an individual, group or organization and it does this by suggesting predictable patterns of behavior in a given situation. It is reputation that makes us try a new product by a company we trust or hire an individual that we know little about based on the Particular University from which he/she graduated. Agency theory dictates that a board must consider the cost of monitoring an individual's actions versus the extend of positive gain the individual will bring to the company (Eisenhardt, 2009). If there is a solid personal reputation in place, the board can expect certain behaviors and will not need to monitor the individual as closely. Conflicting definitions have been provided by some (Gotsi & Wilson, 2001), whereas others have addressed the problem by simply stating that “readers was familiar with the everyday phenomenon of personal reputation” (Bromley, 2001). Still others have cited Webster's dictionary definition, then quickly disregarded it in favor of providing their own (Ferris, 2003; Mahon, 2002). One can argue that the study of personal reputation is in such an early stage, that although the scientists certainly recognize the importance of reputation, they cannot agree to assign a basic meaning to the phenomenon (Mahon, 2002).

Liu *et al.* (2007) suggested that interpersonal skill shapes the perceptions and impressions that raters form of employees; with specific reference to others' impressions of trust, confidence, and credibility; all of which go into the formation of reputation. In a four-study investigation, Liu *et al.* (2007) provided evidence of the mediating influence of reputation on the interpersonal -skill/job performance relationship. However, although the process dynamics of this reputation-mediating process have been argued to operate similarly for interpersonal -skill/career- success relationships (Ferris *et al.*, 2007), these important relationships have not been examined to date, and are in need of empirical verification.

2.4.3 Reputation and Career Success:

A favorable reputation is conducive to beneficial career outcomes for a number of reasons. First of all, individuals with favorable reputations may, in fact, perform better. The sponsored mobility model of career success (Turner, 1960) suggests that early impressions by decision makers are very important in advancement or promotion decisions. Those who are able to create favorable impressions in their early career stages receive greater attention and career sponsorship from the elites in their organization, which help them to gain competitive advantage in the career tournament, eventually leading to career success (Cooper, Graham, & D ke, 1993; Rosenbaum, 1989; Wayne *et al.*, 1997). Thus, it is reasonable to expect that favorable reputations will make individuals stand out from other employees, and receive career sponsorship and career success. Moreover, reputable individuals also are perceived as being more powerful, capable, and attuned to the workings of the organization (Ferris *et al.* 2003; Gioia & Sims, 1983). Their manifestation of power may propel others to react positively to their appeals for help or assistance in the hope of immediate or future interpersonal rewards. Consistently, Pfeffer (1992) suggested that the powerful image that reputable individuals portray in the eyes of observers over time helps them to gain more power and influence, which permits them to accomplish things with less effort, thus resulting in higher performance and effectiveness.

However, besides its performance-enhancing function, reputation also benefits individuals through performance-irrelevant mechanisms. It has been suggested that performance evaluation and organizational reward allocation involve complex cognitive, affective, and social processes that are characterized by a great deal of ambiguity and uncertainty (Ferris, Judge, Rowland, & Fitzgibbons, 1994; Ferris *et al.*, 2008). From the cognitive perspective, because of limited personal and cognitive resources typically allocated to performance-evaluation and reward-allocation decisions (Judge & Bretz, 1994), as well as lack of complete information (Spence, 1973), decision makers often depend on salient-but non-performance-related-cues to assist decisions (Allen & Rush, 1998; Spence, 1973).

With its origin in the field of economics, signaling theory argues that decisions such as hiring and promotions often are made with incomplete information, and decision makers must rely on cues, or signals, that convey information about the ratee's intentions or abilities (Spence, 1973). Zinko *et al.* (2007) suggested that a principal aspect of reputation's value to raters is that the intended images presented over some period of time by employees tend to result in the formation of more stable, consistent perceptions, which reduce ambiguity about expected future behavior. Thus, reputation reduces uncertainty and ambiguity for decision makers through the important signaling function that it serves.

From the affective perspective, raters react to perceived information about focal employees with emotions, which further influence decision making (Ferris & Judge, 1991). Information about focal employees is stored in memory with different emotion labels, which tends to be recalled automatically when making performance-related decisions (cf. Schwarz, 2000). This affective information regarding the focal employee that is retrieved will, in turn, influence raters' perceptions and evaluations regarding the attributes and qualities of these focal employees (cf. Isen, 2000). In addition, good reputations likely generate good feelings about individuals, such as interpersonal liking (Johnson, Erez, Kiker, & Motowidlo, 2002), which have been shown to predict positive reactions to individuals, including favorable performance ratings and reward allocation (e.g., Cardy & Dobbins, 1986; Judge & Ferris, 1993; Kolodinsky *et al.*, 2007).

From the social perspective, when making human-resource decisions (e.g., pay raises, promotions), decision makers frequently are pressured to justify their decisions among multiple constituencies. Because future performance of employees always involves uncertainty, selecting reputable individuals may help justify decision makers' choices, and reduce their potential liability for making wrong decisions when the person chosen fails to deliver effective performance (Bok, 1993).

Besides obtaining pay-raise and promotion opportunities, reputation may contribute to career satisfaction because it indicates one's success in building a desirable image (Bozeman & Kacmar, 1997; Doby & Caplan, 1995). Further, because reputation ultimately is "given" by others (e.g., Bromley, 1993), favorable reputation also reflects social inclusion and acceptance (de Cremer & Tyler, 2005), as well as others' respect and granting of status and power (Gioia & Sims, 1983). Thus, gaining reputation also helps satisfy individuals' needs for belonging and power, which likely contribute to a sense of career satisfaction. Thus, based on the previous arguments, it is proposed that reputation will serve as a mediator of the relationships between interpersonal skill and career success.

It is important to note that although income/salary, position attainment, and career satisfaction have been found to represent conceptually distinct aspects of career success (Ng *et al.*, 2005), these various indicators are not totally independent of one another. Because it is quite common for some of the same individuals to be responsible for making decisions about performance ratings, promotability, and salary for a particular individual, it is inevitable that there was cross-decision biases, driven by the same interpersonal -skill competencies that help manage effective reputation perceptions. Objective and subjective dimensions of career success also tend to be significantly correlated (Ng *et al.*, 2005). However, it seems to be the case that the higher an individual's interpersonal skill, the greater was the reputation perceived by evaluators and, thus, the greater was the attainment of different career outcomes.

2.4.4 Reputation as a Mediator of Interpersonal Skill/Career Success Relationship:

Ferris and colleagues (2003) defined personal reputation as a "complex combination of salient personal characteristics and accomplishments, demonstrated behavior, and intended images presented over some period of time" (p. 213). Thus, reputation is a proxy for individuals' observable attributes, past behavior, and performance. Also, because it is a collective perception by others, it can be construed as a socially constructed reality. Reputation often is formed based on a consistent pattern of past behaviors (Ching, Holsapple, & Whinston, 1992; Raub & Weesie, 1990). Because reputation takes both time and effort to build—and is costly but easily damaged by inconsistent behaviors—individuals tend to behave in ways that

are consistent with their reputations (Baumeister, 1982). Thus, reputation often is used by observers as a proxy for true ability to predict future behavior and performance (Whitmeyer, 2000).

Importantly, reputation is formed both directly through observation and indirectly based on information shared by third parties (Becker, 1982; Emler & Hopkins, 1990; Raub & Weesie, 1990). Bromley (1993) suggested that reputation is “a nucleus of interconnected impressions shared and expressed by a high proportion of members of a defined social network” (p.

42). Thus, the formation of widely held reputations involves extensive social sharing of information and, therefore, may depend on the focal person’s ability to transmit information effectively that conveys their reputations within their social networks.

2.5 Critique:

From the literature review done in this proposed study, a number of scholars have dealt with the subject of career success and reputation. But it instrumental to note that the researchers have focused more on the descriptive aspect of the variables and little attention has been given to quantifying the nature of the relationships between the constructs of personal reputation and career success.

Considering the area of study, the review has noted a line of weakness in that most of the studies have been done in the developed world and hence the generalization of the findings might not apply to the developing countries like Kenya. Hence the necessity to do a study that has a third world country setting. Also most of the underlying theoretical frameworks that have been used in most studies have not been able to give constructs of personality characteristics that are easily measureable and the tools used in data collection tend to be too technical for use especially to respondents in third world countries.

2.6 Summary:

Chapter two contains the introduction, the theoretical framework that informed this study, the conceptual framework that gave a diagrammatic representation of the relationships between the study variables. Then a review of the variables was done. The relevant empirical studies, critique, research gaps, and the summary of the chapter were also done.

2.7 Research gap:

Table 2.1: Research Gap

Author	Topic of study	Variables	Findings	Gap
(Hirsch <i>et al.</i> , 2010)	Career Success and Personality	Career success, personality type	Positive correlation between career success and personality type	Social effectiveness not taken into consideration
(Avolio, Gardener & May, 2014)	Positive emotions and self-efficacy	Emotions, Self-efficacy at workplace	Positive emotions enhance self-efficacy	Only social efficacy considered
(Kamdar & Van Dyne, 2007)	Organizational commitment and career success	Organizational commitment, career success	Employee commitment enhances organizational performance	Tactics used, social effectiveness and personality not studied
(Ferris, Basik & Buckley, 2008).	Organizational politics and career success	Organizational politics, career success	Organizational politics correlates with career success	Personal factors not considered
(Ferris & Perrew, 2007).	Personal Competencies and career success	Personal competencies, career success	Career success is a function of personal competencies	Tactics used, social effectiveness and personality not studied

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1 Research Design:

A research design is a detailed plan that enumerates the specific methods and procedures of data collection and analysis to ensure that the evidence obtained enables the researcher answer the research questions in an unambiguous manner. Cross sectional survey design was used. A cross-sectional study entails the collection or examination of data across various segments of a population. Other advantages of using surveys for this research include their cost effectiveness, their flexibility and their efficiency in collecting large amounts of data for statistical analyses, and their quick turnaround in the data collection phase (Hair *et al.*, 2010). The study used information from a sample of individuals to make some inference about the wider population. In cross-sectional survey design, data is collected using questionnaires. Researchers have used cross sectional design to investigate diverse areas of management (Weiss *et al.*, 2001).

3.2 Target Population:

The population of the study was all the employees of Uasin Gishu County government in the various departments as captured in table 3.1. There is total of 4035 employees in the county.

3.3 Sampling Frame:

The employees of the county government of Uasin Gishu county government formed the sampling frame for this proposed study. The sample frame is as shown in table 3.1.

Table 3.1: Employees in Uasin Gishu County

Department	Number of Employees
1.ICT &government	10
2.Trade, Industry, Tourism& Wildlife	15
3.Education, culture, youth affairs &social service	150
4.Public Service Management	450
5.Lands, housing &physical Planning	230
6.Agriculture, livestock Development &Fisheries	350
7.Finance and Economic Planning	750
8.Roads,Public Works and Transport	600
9.Health Services	1250
10.Environment,Energy,Water and Natural Resources	230
Total	4035

3.4 Sampling Technique and Sample Size:

Being a case study, a portion of the population was used for the study so as to extrapolate the findings and make conclusions about the population. Stratified random sampling method was used for the purposes of this study so as to obtain a true representation of the population that was heterogeneous. Stratification was done based on the departments in the County. In order to produce statistically valid results through the utilization of multivariate analytical techniques, a large sample size is required. (Hair *et al.*, 1995). Using the random table by Bartlett, Kotrlik, & Higgins(2001) (Appendix C) the sample size for was obtained as 119. The Sample size will then be obtained proportionately from each stratum as shown in table 3.2.

Table 3.2: Sample Size

Department	Number of Employees	%	Sample Size
1.ICT &government	10	0.2	1
2. Trade, industry, tourism& wildlife	15	0.4	1
3. Education, culture, youth affairs &social service	150	3.7	4
4.Public Service Management	450	11.2	13
5.Lands, housing &physical Planning	230	5.7	7
6.Agriculture, livestock Development &Fisheries	350	8.7	10
7.Finance and Economic Planning	750	18.6	22
8.Roads, Public Works and Transport	600	14.9	17
9.Health Services	1250	31.0	37
10.Environment, Energy, Water and Natural Resources	230	5.7	7
Total	4035	100	119

3.5 Instruments and Measurement of Variables:

3.5.1 Instruments:

Data collection instruments used was based on the nature of the research design. Quantitative approach was used because data was collected from the entire population. According to Richard & Plight (1988), most techniques for measuring perceptions and attitudes rely heavily on verbal material in form of interviews or questionnaires. The questions asked was designed to measure the respondent's opinions. Likert scale method of rating was used. The questionnaire will allow collection of data from a large number of individuals easily (Kombo, 2006) and it also yield quantitative data that was easy to collect and analyze.

In reference to validity of the questionnaire, the following was considered; internal validity and content validity. To establish the validity of the instrument, two experts on the research topic from JKUAT will examine the validity of the instrument and advise the researcher accordingly. Their feedback was used to revise the instrument.

Reliability will refer to the ability of the questionnaire to produce consistent findings at different times and under different conditions. The reliability was assessed by Cronbach's alpha using SPSS software. The Sekeran (2000) benchmark of a coefficient that is above 0.7 was used to indicate a reliable tool of measurement.

3.5.2 Measurement of Variables:

3.5.2.1 Independent Variable: Interpersonal Skills:

Interpersonal skill was measured with the Blickle *et al.*, (2008) Interpersonal Skill Inventory (PSI; Ferris, Treadway *et al.*, 2005). The scale is comprised of 18 items covering the constructs networking, self-promotion, impression management, and use of influence tactics. Items was rated on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). This tool has been statistically validated by Baron, & Kenny, (2009) and shown to have internal reliability with Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.78.

3.5.2.2 The Dependent Variable: Career Success:

To measure career success, the employee was asked to report their current hierarchical position within their present employer on a scale ranging from 0% (bottom) to 100% (top). Additionally, they were asked to report their current annual gross income in Kshs. Such self-reports have been shown to correlate highly with archival organizational records (e.g., Judge, Cable, Boudreau, & Bretz, 1995; Turban & Dougherty, 1994).

3.5.2.3 Mediating Variable: Reputation:

As in previous research (e.g., Hochwarter, Ferris, Zinko, Arnell, & James, 2007; Liu *et al.*, 2007), a self-report measure of reputation was used. This is appropriate because individuals gain knowledge and understanding of their own reputations by the way others behave toward them (Emler & Hopkins, 1990). Prior research has demonstrated that self-reports of personal reputation are significantly related to peer reports (Hochwarter *et al.*, 2007; Liu *et al.*, 2007). Therefore, reputation was measured with four items of Eby, Butts, and Lockwood's (2003) Marketability Scale that has been shown to be reliable with Cronbach's alpha of the reputation of 0.75. These items reflect the collective perceptions of others at work. Items was rated on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

3.6 Data Collection Procedures:

An introduction letter was obtained from the university (JKUAT) by the researcher for purposes of introducing the researcher to the respondents and the relevant authorities. The researcher will then obtain a permit from the National Council of Science and Technology to collect data. The permit and the introductory letter was presented to the County government of Uasin Gishu who grant the researcher permission to conduct the study in the judiciary. The questionnaires will administered personally to the respondents using research assistants. A drop and pick later method of questionnaire administration was used. This method of data collection was utilized in order to overcome issues of time and costs. Prior to using the questionnaire to collect data, it was pilot tested. The purpose of the test was to refine the questionnaire. The test will also be intended to enable the researcher to obtain the questions' likely reliability and validity of the data collected.

3.8 Data Processing and Analysis:

Data was analyzed by use of both descriptive and inferential statistics. A table containing the relevant sample sizes, means, and standard deviations for each of the factors will then be generated. The other variables were analyzed also based on the scores on a point likert scale and relevant tables constructed for each variable.

A correlation between two quantitative variables, was used to assess the variations in one variable as the second variable changes. Multiple Linear regression was performed to determine whether sufficient evidence existed to allow the researcher to determine that there is a linear relationship or linear model between the dependent variable, Y, and the independent variables. While mediation was done using the Baron and Kenny (1986) four step process.

3.8.1 Model 1: Career Success and Interpersonal Skills:

This model was used to test hypothesis H_{01} , H_{02} , H_{03} , and H_{04} and was estimated as:

$$CS = \beta_0 + \beta_1NT + \beta_2SP + \beta_3IM + \beta_3IT + \mu$$

Where:

CS Career Success

NT Networking

S Self Promotion

IM Impression Management

IT Use of Influence Tactics

μ Disturbance term

β_0 Constant

β_1, β_2 , and β_3 are regression coefficients

3.8.2 Model 2: Mediating Effects of Reputation:

This model was used to test hypothesis H₀₅ and it will use the Baron and Kenny (1986) approach and it will take the form:

$$CS = \beta_0 + \beta_1 NT + \beta_2 SP + \beta_3 IM + \beta_4 IT + \beta_5 RP + \mu$$

Where:

RP Reputation

NT Networking

SP Self Promotion

IM Impression Management

IT Use of Influence Tactics

RP Reputation

μ Disturbance term

β_0 Constant

$\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3, \beta_4$ and β_5 are regression coefficients

4. DATA ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION, AND INTERPRETATION

Introduction:

This chapter presents the empirical results of the study. The data collected for the variable gender, age, marital status, educational level and absenteeism was analyzed using both descriptive and inferential statistics and the appropriate proposed models constructed. The first section of the chapter gives the response rate, demographic characteristics of the respondents, reliability and validity tests. The second part deals with tests of regression assumptions and descriptive statistics of the variables. The last section gives the correlation and regression results for the proposed models.

4.1 Response Rate:

Out of the targeted 119 respondents, 91 completed the questionnaire. This gave a response rate of as 76% presented in table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Response Rate

Targeted	Realized	Response Rate (%)
119	91	76

Source: Survey Data (2015)

4.2 Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents:

The respondents were required to provide information about their gender, age, work experience and education level. The gender distribution of the survey respondents was 58.2% female and 41.8% male. The age distribution for the respondents was 20.6% were in the age bracket 20-30, 36.2% age bracket 31-40, 30.3% age bracket 41-50, and 12.9% were above 50 years old. Thus majority of the respondents were between 31-40 years (36.2%). Analysis of the educational level for the respondents indicated that 10.6% had masters, 62.3% had degree level, and 12.4% had diplomas while 10.0% had certificate and secondary level education. The majority of the respondents had degree level of education. For work experience 4.4% had less than one year experience, 3.3% had 1-2 years, 51.6% had 3-4 years, 7.7% had 5-6 years, 17.6% had 7-8 years, 12.1% had 9-10 while 3.3% had more than 10 years experience. The demographic characteristics of the respondents are as summarized in table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Summary of Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

Variable	Category	Percentage
Gender	Male	41.8
	Female	58.2
Age	20-30	20.6
	31-40	36.2
	41-50	30.3
	Above 50 years	12.9
Education Level	Master's degree	5.6
	Degree	54.9
	Diploma	12.4
	Certificate	10.0
	Secondary Education	17.1
Work Experience	Less than one year	4.4
	1-2 years	36.5
	3-4 years	51.6
	5-6 years	7.7
	7-8 years	17.6
	9-10 years	12.1
	More than 10 years	3.3

4.3 Descriptive Statistics of the Variables:

Descriptive statistics of means, standard errors, and standard deviation were obtained for the variables networking skills, impression management, self-promotion, use of tactics influence, career success, and reputation. The results are presented in table 4.3.

Table 4.3: Descriptive Statistics of the Variables (N=91)

	Minimum Statistic	Maximum Statistic	Mean Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Deviation Statistic
Networking Skills	1.00	6.20	3.6242	.14212	1.35576
Impression Management	1.75	6.75	3.7225	.14672	1.39963
Self Promotion	1.00	5.60	3.6835	.12545	1.19669
Use of Influence Tactics	1.00	5.00	3.5495	.11324	1.08026
Career Success	1.00	7.00	3.9356	.14796	1.41142
Reputation	1.00	6.00	3.8379	.12865	1.22722

Source: Survey Data (2015)

The results indicated that the mean values of networking skill=3.6242 ($SD= 1.35576$), Impression Management=3.7225 ($SD=1.39963$), Self Promotion=3.6835 ($SD=1.19669$), Use of Influence Tactics ($SD=3.5495$), Career Success ($SD=1.41142$), and Reputation=3.8379 ($SD=1.22722$). The values of the mean were between 3.9356 to 3.5495 thus the respondents showed above average traits of the variables that were measured.

4.4 Reliability Test:

Cronbach's alpha reliability test was used to determine the internal consistency of the question items that measured the interpersonal skills and career success variables. Sekeran (2000) benchmark of Cronbach's coefficient value of greater

than 0.7 indicates the tool was reliable to measure the variable. Table 4.4 presents the results of the reliability test for the variable absenteeism.

Table 4.4: Cronbach's Alpha Reliability Coefficient

Variable	No of items used	Alpha
Networking	5	.789
Self- promotion	4	.701
Impression Management	4	.799
Use of Influence Tactics	4	.890

Source: Survey data (2015)

From tabulated results in Table 4.4, alpha coefficient values are in the range .701-.890. Hence is above the benchmark of 0.7 suggested by Sekeran (2000) and thus the scales were reliable for measuring the variables of interest.

4.5 Test of Regression Assumptions:

The data was tested to determine whether the assumptions of ordinary least square (OLS) were met.

4.4.1 Test of Normality:

Both kurtosis and skewness were used to determine the normality of the data distribution for the variable under study. The results of the kurtosis and skewness tests are as shown in table 4.5.

Table 4.5: Results for Skewness and Kurtosis Analysis (N=91)

	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Networking Skills	.285	.253	-.321	.310
Impression Management	.633	.153	-.537	.401
Self Promotion	-.310	.053	-.110	.500
Use of Influence Tactics	-.855	.253	.916	.310
Career Success	.080	.453	.283	.601
Reputation	-.579	.653	.262	.320

Source: Survey data (2015)

The skewness statistic and kurtosis statistic obtained for absenteeism were in the range -.855 to .633 for skewness and .310-0.601 for kurtosis. According to Hair *et al.*, (2010) the requisite range for normally distributed data is between -1.00 and +1.00. All the values of skewness and kurtosis fell in the range -1.00 and +1.00 and it was concluded that the distribution of data for the variables was normal.

Further, Kolmogrov-Smirnov test was used to check the normality of the distribution for the variables. Kolmogrov-Smirnov test compares scores in the sample to a normally distributed set of scores with the same mean and standard deviation and if the test is non-significant ($p > 0.5$) then the distribution of the sample is not significantly different from normal distribution (Field, 2005). The results of the K-S test were as indicated in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6: Kolmogrov-Smirnov Test (N=91)

		Networking	Impression Management	Self Promotion	Influence Tactics	Career Success	Reputation
		Normal Parameters ^{a,b}	Mean	3.6242	3.7225	3.6835	3.5495
	Std. Dev	1.35576	1.39963	1.19669	1.08026	1.41142	1.22722

Most Extreme Absolute Differences	.185	.168	.143	.207	.132	.216
Positive	.185	.168	.143	.167	.115	.184
Negative	-.107	-.085	-.143	-.207	-.132	-.216
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z	1.762	1.598	1.366	1.971	1.264	2.058
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.074	.092	.058	.661	.082	.087

Survey Data (2015)

4.4.2 Test of Independence of the Error Terms:

Test of independence of the error terms was done using Durbin-Watson test. The test was used to test for presence of serial correlation among the residuals. This assumption of independence of errors requires that the residuals or errors in prediction do not follow a particular pattern from case to case. The value of Durbin-Watson test statistic ranges from 0 to 4 as suggested by Hair *et al*(2010), the residuals are not correlated if the Durbin-Watson statistic is approximately 2 and the acceptable range is 1.5-2.50. The Durbin-Watson statistic for the estimated models is summarized in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7: Independence of Error Terms for the Predictor Variables

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.933 ^a	.871	.870	.50967	
2	.933 ^b	.871	.868	.51214	
3	.937 ^c	.878	.874	.50054	
4	.943 ^d	.889	.884	.48157	
5	.951 ^e	.904	.899	.44940	2.246

Source: Survey (Data 2015)

The results in table 4.9 indicate that the Durbin-Watson statistic obtained was 2.246 that was within the threshold range of 1.5-2.5.

4.5 Validity of Study Measures:

Validity is the degree to which a variable actually measures what it has intended to measure (Nunnally and Burnstein, 1994). Content validity refers to the adequacy of indicators to measure the concepts. The better the scale items measure the domain of content, the greater the validity. An assessment of content validity requires experts to attest to the content validity of each instrument (Sekaran, 2000). In order to ensure content validity, previously validated measures were pretested and the preliminary questionnaire was pre-tested on a pilot set of respondents for comprehension, and relevance. Respondents in the pre-test were drawn from educational institutions in Uasin Gishu County which were similar to those in the actual survey in terms of background characteristics, familiarity with the topic of research. The pre-tested institutions were not part of the target population of study as this would have brought about assessment biases. As recommended by Malhotra (2007), the questionnaire pre-tests were done by personal interviews in order to observe the respondents' reactions and attitudes. All aspects of the questionnaire were pre-tested including question content, wording, sequence, form and layout, question difficulty and instructions. The feedback obtained was used to revise the questionnaire before administering it to the study respondents.

4.6 Correlation Analysis:

Correlation analysis was done to determine the strength and direction of the relationships between the variables in the study. Pearson product moment correlation coefficient was used. This test was done as a precursor to regression analysis so as to first determine whether the variables were related in a linear manner. The results of the correlation analysis are presented in table 4.8.

Table 4.8: Correlation Matrix (N=91)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Gender	1									
2. Age	.105	1								
3. Experience	-.185	.041	1							
4. Educational	-.104	-.080	.099	1						
5. Networking Skills	-.021	.073	.142	-.006	1					
6. Impression Management	.039	.047	.178	-.040	.839**	1				
7. Self Promotion	.063	.113	.131	-.021	.879**	.885**	1			
8. Influence Tactics	.023	.140	.093	-.033	.897**	.723**	.894**	1		
9. Career Success	-.033	.076	.090	.014	.933**	.775**	.850**	.896**	1	
10. Reputation	.024	.110	.074	-.015	.909**	.829**	.933**	.896**	.909**	1

Source: Survey Data (2015)

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The results as presented in table 4.8 show a significant positive correlation between networking skills and career success ($r = .933, p=0.000$), impression management and career success ($r = .775, p=0.000$), self promotion and career success ($r = .933, p=0.000$), use of influence tactics and career success ($r = .896, p=0.000$). Also there was a significant positive correlation between reputation and networking skills ($r = .909, p=0.000$), impression management ($r = .829, p=0.000$), self promotion ($r = .933, p=0.000$), and use of influence tactics ($r = .896, p=0.000$), ($r = .909, p=0.000$). The results showed linear relationships between the variables of interest that were to be used in regression analysis to construct the regression models of interest.

4.7 Regression Analysis:

Regression analysis was done as per models 1, 2, 3, and 4 and the results are presented in table 4.9.

Table 4.9 Regression Results

Model	Unstd Coeff.		Std Coeff.			Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
1 (Constant)	.033	.185		.177	.860		
Networking Skills	.682	.110	.655	6.197	.000	.116	8.649
Impression Management	.023	.098	.023	.236	.814	.136	7.354
Self Promotion	-.041	.150	-.035	-.275	.784	.079	12.581
Influence Tactics	.421	.149	.323	2.827	.006	.099	10.069

Source: Survey data (2015)

Thus the model postulated was:

$$CS = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 X_4 + \mu$$

Where:

CS = Career success

X_1 = Networking skills

X_2 = Impression management

X_3 = Self promotion

X_4 = Use of influence tactics

$\beta_0, \beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3, \beta_4$ = Regression coefficients

μ = Error term

The model was estimated as:

$$CS = .033 + .682X_1 + .421X_4$$

Hypothesis 1 (H_{01}) stated that networking skills has no significance effect on career success. The results of the regression analysis ($\beta = .682, p < 0.05$) suggested that networking skills had a significant positive effect on career success. Hence hypothesis H_{01} was not supported.

Hypothesis 2 (H_{02}) predicted that impression management had no significant effect on career success. The results indicated that impression management had no significant effect on career success ($\beta = .023, p > 0.05$). Hence hypothesis H_{02} not supported.

Hypothesis 3 (H_{03}) postulated that self promotion does not have significant effect on career success. The results found self promotion had no significant effect on career success ($\beta = -.041, p > 0.05$). The results supported the hypothesis H_{03} .

Hypothesis 4 (H_{04}) stated that use of influence tactics does not have significant effect on career success. The results found that there exists a significant positive effect of use of influence tactics on career success ($\beta = .421, p < 0.05$). The results rejected the hypothesis H_{04} .

4.9 Test for Mediation:

To test for the mediating effects of reputation, the three step approach procedures suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986) was used.

Step 1: Sought to establish whether the independent variable was related to the dependent variable .this was done by regressing the interpersonal skills on career success. The purpose was to establish whether there was a direct effect that could be mediated.

Step 2: Sought to establish if the independent variable was related to the mediator variable(s). This was done by treating the mediating variable(s) as the dependent variable.

Step 3: Sought to establish that the mediator affects the relationship between the independent variable and dependent variable, while controlling for the mediator.

4.9.1 Mediating Effect of Reputation:

To examine the mediating effects of reputation as per hypotheses $H_{05a}, H_{05b}, H_{05c},$ and H_{05d} a hierarchical regression analysis was done and the results are presented in table 4.10.

Table 4.10: Mediation Results

Step		Model 5a	5b	5c	5d
1	(Constant)	.414(.153)*			
	Networking Skills	.972(.040)*			
2	(Constant)	.072(.164)			
	Networking Skills	.643(.088)*			
1	Reputation	.400(.097)*			
	(Constant)		1.026(.268)*		
1	Impression management		.782(.068)*		
	Constant		-.082(.205)		
2	Impression management		.068(.080)		
	Reputation		.980(.091)*		

1	Constant	.244(.255)	
	Self-Promotion	1.002(.066)*	
2	Constant	-.078(.208)	
	Self-promotion	.013(.146)	
	Reputation	1.003(.143)*	
1	Constant		-.219(.228)
	Use of Influence tactics		1.170(.062)*
2	Constant		-.359(.195)
	Use of Influence tactics		.541(.117)*
	Reputation		.617(.103)*

Source: Survey Data (2015)

Values of unstandardized registration coefficients, with standard errors in parenthesis * $p < 0.05$.

From the results in table 4.10 it was found that reputation as a mediator in the relationship between networking skills and career success was statistically significant ($\beta = .400, p=0.000$) while the regression coefficient of networking skills reduced from $\beta=.972$ with $p=0.000$ to $\beta= .643$ that was significant ($p=0.000$). It was therefore concluded that reputation partially mediates the relationship between networking skills and career success hence hypothesis H_{05a} was not supported.

From the results in table 4.10 it was found that reputation as a mediator in the relationship between impression management and career success was statistically significant ($\beta = .980, p=0.000$) while the regression coefficient of impression management was still significant ($p=0.000$). It was therefore concluded that reputation partially mediates the relationship between impression management and career success hence hypothesis H_{05b} was not supported.

From the results in table 4.10 it was found that reputation as a mediator in the relationship between self promotion and career success was statistically significant ($\beta = 1.003, p=0.000$) while the regression coefficient of self promotion reduced from $\beta=1.002$ with $p=0.000$ to $\beta= .013$ that was not statistically significant ($p>0.000$). It was therefore concluded that reputation fully mediates the relationship between self promotion and career success hence hypothesis H_{05c} was not supported.

From the results in table 4.10 it was found that reputation as a mediator in the relationship between use of tactics influence and career success was statistically significant ($\beta = .16, p=0.000$) while the regression coefficient of use of tactics influence reduced from $\beta=1.170$ with $p=0.000$ to $\beta=.617$ that was statistically significant ($p=0.000$). It was therefore concluded that reputation partially mediates the relationship between use of tactics influence and career success hence hypothesis H_{05d} was not supported

Table 4.11 Summary of the Hypotheses Test Results

Statement	Verdict
H_{01} : Networking skills does not have significant effect on career success.	Rejected H_{01}
H_{02} : Impression management does not have significant effect on career success.	Fail to reject H_0
H_{03} : self promotion does not have significant effect on career success.	Fail to reject H_0
H_{04} : Use of influence tactics does not have significant effect on a career success.	Rejected H_0
H_{05a} : Reputation does not have mediating effect on the relationship between networking and career success	Rejected H_{05a}
H_{05b} : Reputation does not have mediating effect on the relationship between networking and career success	Rejected H_{05b}
H_{05c} : Reputation does not have mediating effect on the relationship between networking and career success	Rejected H_{05c}
H_{05d} : Reputation does not have mediating effect on the relationship between networking and career success	Rejected H_{05d}

Source: Survey data (2015)

5. SUMMARY, DISCUSSIONS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction:

This chapter contains a detailed examination of the research findings analyzed in the previous chapter. Effects of interpersonal skills on career success were evaluated against empirical evidence obtained from the study. Objectives of the study are evaluated against the findings to inform the conclusions of the study while multiple and hierarchical regression was used to test the direct hypothesis and mediation effects respectively. Conclusions of the study are based on results of the study hypotheses testing to determine the effects of interpersonal skills on career success. Recommendations on the implications of the research on policy and practice, limitations of the study and suggestions for further research are discussed.

5.2 Summary of Findings and Discussion

The broad objective of this study was to determine the effects of interpersonal skills on career success in Uasin Gishu County, Kenya. Preliminary results focused on the personal characteristics of the respondents and descriptions of response on the measures of study variables. The discussions highlight the key findings of the study.

The result of the study indicated that networking does not have a significant effect on career success. The hypothesis H_{01} was therefore supported. This finding is contrary to prior researches which appear to suggest that individuals with networking skills are at a vantage point of building their career because they transmit signals conducive to a favorable image to the public through their proactive networking activities, and the use of (Liu *et al.*, 2007).

Impression management was found to have a positive significant relationship with career success. Thus hypothesis two (H_{02}) was not supported. The finding was consistent with previous studies showing that Impression management affects the level of employee career development. Viewed through this lens of organizational politics, careers can be seen as interpersonal campaigns (Inkson, 2004), involving contact hunting (Granovetter, 1974), self-promotion (Higgins *et al.*, 2003), impression management (Bolino & Turnley, 2003), and use of influence tactics (Judge & Bretz, 2012). The success of such campaigns depends critically on individual competencies (e.g., interpersonal skill) that enable the effective impression management and projection of positive images across different work environments, especially for images that influence the assessment of performance and career potential.

Hypothesis three (H_{03}) had postulated that self promotion had no significant effect on career success. The result showed education level does affect level of career success. This result resonates with findings by Scott's (2010) who found no relationship self promotion and career success. Pfeffer (2012) suggested that the powerful image that self promoting individuals portray in the eyes of observers over time helps them to gain more power and influence, which permits them to accomplish things with less effort, thus resulting in higher performance and effectiveness and thus career success.

For hypothesis H_{04} , the results of the study indicated no significant effect of use of influence tactics on career success. These findings are contrary to with results of research done by various scholars. For example, career success has been linked with tactics of influence (e.g., Higgins, Judge, & Ferris, 2003; Judge & Bretz, 1994; Wayne *et al.*, 2007), interpersonal behaviors (e.g., Wolff & Moser, 2009), as well as interpersonal knowledge and skill (Liden, 2001).

Reputation was found to partially mediate the relationship between and career success and hence hypothesis H_{05a} was not supported. It was also found that reputation partially mediated the relationship between use of tactics influence and career success and hence hypothesis H_{05d} was not supported.

On the other hand, results indicated that reputation fully mediate the relationship between impression management and career success and hence hypothesis H_{05b} was not supported. It was also found that reputation fully mediated the relationship between self promotion and career success and hence hypothesis H_{05c} was not supported. Thus the higher an individual's interpersonal skill, the greater was the reputation perceived by evaluators and, thus, the greater was the attainment of different career outcomes. The sponsored mobility model of career success (Turner, 1960) suggests that early impressions by decision makers are very important in advancement or promotion decisions.

Those who are able to create favorable impressions in their early career stages receive greater attention and career sponsorship from the elites in their organization, which help them to gain competitive advantage in the career tournament, eventually leading to career success (Cooper, Graham, & D ke, 1993; Rosenbaum, 1989; Wayne *et al.*, 2007). Thus, it is

reasonable to expect that favorable reputations will make individuals stand out from other employees, and receive career sponsorship and career success. Moreover, reputable individuals also are perceived as being more powerful, capable, and attuned to the workings of the organization (Ferris *et al.*, 2003).

5.3 Conclusion:

This study was an attempt to investigate concept of career success in the context of interpersonal skills of networking skills, impression management, self promotion, and use of tactics influence and the mediating role of reputation in the relationships. The interpersonal view of organizations has generated a considerable amount of research in the past few decades. The recognition of organizations as a interpersonal arena reveals the important role of individual competencies (e.g. interpersonal skill) in individuals' career advancement and success. Using empirical data the current study demonstrates convincing evidence that interpersonal skill helps individuals to obtain early career success in its extrinsic, objective, and intrinsic dimensions.

5.4 Recommendations of the Study:

The study provides valuable recommendations to both theory and practice. The researcher believes that these recommendations will create vital insights to both scholars and practitioners in human resource management and help fill the knowledge gap in the model of absenteeism in the context of personal characteristics of gender, age, educational level, and marital status. The following sections highlight the recommendations.

The study makes important contributions to the literature. This investigation tested some central predictions from the meta-theoretical framework of interpersonal skill by Ferris *et al.* (2007), and theory and research on reputation in organizations (Ferris *et al.*, 2003; Zinko *et al.*, 2007). In support of Ferris and colleagues' (2007) theoretical framework of interpersonal skill, the present results suggest that interpersonal skill is an effective predictor of the subsequent career-success measures of hierarchical position, income, and career satisfaction attained. This is the first study that has examined the main effects of interpersonal skill on career outcomes using a predictive design, which adds to the knowledge base of both the organizational-politics and the career-success literatures.

Based on their meta-analysis, Ng and colleagues (2005) pointed out that future research on career success should consider variables that reflect the interpersonal reality of promotion decision making, including building network ties and individual characteristics that help increase one's visibility within the organization. Interpersonal skill appears to represent such a variable that helps reveal the interpersonal factor in human-resource decisions within organizations.

The finding that interpersonal skill appeared to make a difference over time provides strong support for the interpersonal metaphor of careers that views careers as interpersonal campaigns (Inkson, 2004). Moreover, in support of Ferris and colleagues' (Ferris *et al.*, 2003; Zinko

et al., 2007) theoretical framework of reputation in organizations, the present results suggest that reputation mediated the effects of interpersonal skill on all three career-success measures studied (i.e., hierarchical position, income, career satisfaction). The fact that reputation, as a socially constructed reality, explained the relationships between interpersonal skill and career outcomes reflects the notion proposed earlier by Ferris and colleagues (e.g., Ferris *et al.*, 1994) that the essence of organizational politics is about the creation and management of shared meaning.

Finally, the present investigation has contributed to the emerging literature on reputation in organizations by examining the contribution of interpersonal skill in the formation of reputation. The results of our study provide evidence that interpersonal skill plays a vital role in developing a favorable personal reputation, unveiling the interpersonal nature of reputation and confirming the prior notion that reputation building involves deliberative effort (e.g., Bozeman & Kacmar, 1997; Bromley, 1993).

5.5 Limitations of the Study:

It is important to recognize that the current findings have some limitations. First limitation of this study is not that the study made use of a cross-sectional survey which does not allow conclusions regarding causality nor does it fully capture the dynamic nature of the relationship between study variables as espoused by the respondents.. Replication of the findings in studies using different methods, for instance longitudinal design would be highly valuable.

The other limitation of this study is the self-reported nature of the variables of interest. However, self-reports have been shown to correlate highly with archival company records (Judge et al., 1995; Turban & Dougherty, 1994). For example, Liu et al. (2007) found that self-reports of reputation at the workplace and assessments by two other persons from the same workplace exhibited a great level of agreement

Another limitation of the present study is that the mediator variable was measured at the same time as the criteria. In an ideal study, it would have been preferable to measure the mediator variable at an intermediate point in time between the predictor and the criteria. However, all statistical mediator analyses were consistent with a mediator interpretation of the data. This study also exhibited several strengths that increase confidence in the validity of the findings. First, the study had an accepted and solid theoretical foundation.

5.6 Suggestions for Further Research:

The mechanisms through which interpersonal skill influence performance and career outcomes require continuous investigation. Besides reputation, other factors, such as network position (Ferris et al., 2007), personal power (Pfeffer, 1992), and access to information (Jawahar et al., 2008) also have been suggested to be influenced by interpersonal skill. The relationships between these potential mediators with interpersonal skill and its outcomes deserve scholarly attention.

The role of interpersonal skill in reputation building and maintenance also can be examined further. Drawing on the branding literature in marketing, Ranft, Zinko, Ferris, and Buckley (2006) discussed how reputable CEOs of large corporations, like celebrities, build with the help of media “brands” for themselves that are so unique and strong representing “deep brands” that no longer need to promote themselves. If this branding metaphor applies to all interpersonal actors on the within-organization platform, how these actors choose their branding target, media, and branding tactics to build a strong and favorable brand image is an interesting question to explore. Finally, a potentially fruitful area for future research is studying the underlying mechanisms that explain how reputation delivers its impact on career-related outcomes; for example, whether reputation enhances career success through greater objective performance, or primarily through performance-irrelevant cognitive, affective, or social mechanisms discussed earlier.

REFERENCES

- [1] Ahmed, Ali M. (June 2007). “Group Identity, Social distance and Intergroup Bias”. *Journal of Economic Psychology* 28(3): 342-337
- [2] Anderson, J. C., & Shirako, A. (2008). Are individuals’ reputations related to their history of behavior? *Journal of personality and social Psychology*, 94, 320-333.
- [3] Chen, G., Bliese, P.D., & Mathieu, J.E. (2005). Conceptual framework and statistical procedures for delineating and testing multilevel theories of homology. *Organizational Research Methods*, 8, 375-409.
- [4] Chen, G., Gully, S.M., & Eden, D. (2001). Validation of new general self-efficacy scale. *Organizational Research methods*, 4, 62-83.
- [5] Chen, G., Kirkman, B.L., Kanfer, R., Allen, D., & Rosen, B. (2007). A multilevel study of leadership, empowerment and performance in teams. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92, 331-346.
- [6] Dulewicz, V., & Higgs, C., & Suls, J.M. (2004). Flawed self-assessment: Implications for health education, and the workplace. *Psychological sciences in the public interests*, 5, 69-82.
- [7] Einsenhardt, K.M. (1989). Agency theory: an assessment and review. *Academy of management review*, 14, 57-74.
- [8] Ferris, G.R., Blass, F.R., Douglas, C., Kolodinsky, R.W., & Treadway, D.C. (2003). Personal reputation in organizations: interpersonal influence perspective. *Journal of management*, 17, 447-488.
- [9] Ferris, G.R., Treadway, D.C., Perrewe, Douglas, C., & Lux, S. (2007). Interpersonal skill in organizations. *Journal of Management*, 33, 290-320.

- [10] Ferris, G.r., Zinko, R.A., Brouer, R.H., Buckley, M.R., & Harvey, M.G. (2008). Strategic bullying as a supplementary, balanced perspective on destructive leadership. *Leadership Quarterly*, 18, 195-206.
- [11] Flynn, F.J., Reagans, R.E., Amanatullah, E.T., & Ames, D.R. (2006). Helping one's way to the top: self-monitors achieve status by helping others and knowing who helps whom. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 91, 1123-1137.
- [12] Gardini, S. Cloninger C. R, Venneri A. Individual differences in personality traits reflect structural variance in specific brain regions. *Brain Res Bull.* 2009 Jun 30; 7a (5): 265-70.
- [13] Griffin, E.(2000). *A first look at communication theory*. 4th ED. Boston, MA; Mc Graw-Hill
- [14] Hall, A.T., Blass, F.R., & Massengale, R. (2004). Leader reputation and accountability: implications for dysfunctional leader behavior. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 15, 515-536.
- [15] Hall, A.T., Zinko, R., Perryman, A., & Ferris, (2009). Organizational citizenship behavior and reputation: Mediators in the relationships between accountability and the job performance and satisfaction. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 15, 381-392.
- [16] Hochwarter, W. Ferris, G. & Mannor, J. (2007). Reputation as a moderator of interpersonal behavior-work outcomes relationships: A two study investigation with convergent results. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92, 567-576.
- [17] Hogg, M. Vaughan, G. (2002). *Social Psychology*. Upper Saddle River; Prentice Hall.
- [18] Humphrey, S.E., Morgeson, F.P., & Mannor, M.J., (2009). Developing a theory of the strategic core of teams: A role composition model of team performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 94, 48-61.
- [19] Humphrey, S.E., Morgeson, F.P. (2007). Integrating motivational, social and contextual work design features; A meta-analytic summary and theoretical extension of the work design literature. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92' 1332-135.
- [20] Johnson, D.E., Erez, A., Kiker, D.S., & Motowidlo, S. J.(2002). Liking and attributions of motives as mediators of the relationships between individuals' reputations: Helpful behaviors and raters' reward decisions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87, 808-815.
- [21] Kierein, N.M., & Gold, M.A. (2002). Pygmalion in work organizations: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 21, 913-928.
- [22] Kim, P.H., Ferrin, D.L., Dirks, K.T., & Cooper, C.(2004). Removing the shadow of suspicion: The effects of apology versus denial for repairing competence- versus integrity-based trust violations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89, 104-118
- [23] Liu, Y., Ferris, G. R., Perrewe, P. L., Weitz, B., & Xu, J.(2007). Dispositional antecedents and outcomes of interpersonal skills in organizations: A four-study investigation with convergence. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 71, 146- 165.
- [24] Mac Kenzie, S.B., Podsakoff, P.M., & Jarvis, C.B.(2005). The problem of measurement model misspecification in behavioral and organizational research and some recommended solutions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90, 710-730.
- [25] Morgeson, F.P., & Humphrey, S.E. (2006). The Work Design Questionnaire (WDQ): Developing and validating a comprehensive measures for assessing job design and the nature of work. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91, 1321-1339.
- [26] Ng, T. W. H., Eby, L T., Sorensen, K.L., & Feldman, D.C.(2005). Predictors of objective and subjective career success: A meta-analysis. *Personnel Psychology*, 58, 367-408.
- [27] Postmes, T. & Branscombe, N. (2010). Sources of social identity. In T. Postmes & N. Branscombe (Eds). *Rediscovering social identity*. Core sources. Psychology press.

- [28] Seibert, S.E; Sparrowe,R.T., Liden, R. C (2003). "A group exchange structure approach to leadership in groups." In peace, C.L; Conger, J. A. shared leadership. Reframing the hows and whys of leadership. Thousand Oaks, CA; Sage publications.
- [29] Takano A, et al. Relationship between neurotism personality trait and serotonin.Transporter binding. Bio/ Psychiatry. 2007 Sep 15;62(6); 588- 92.
- [30] West,R., & Turner, L. H. (2000). Introducing communication theory; Analysis and application.Mountain view, CA; May field.

APPENDIX

Appendix A: Letter of Introduction

Dear Respondent

I am a student in Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology undertaking a Master of Science in Human Resource Management degree and currently gathering data for research project. The title of the project I am researching is the influence of personal reputation on career success. The questionnaire forms a major part of my research and I would value it highly if you agree to participate by filling it in. All the information you provide was dealt with anonymously and confidentially and will only be used for the purpose of this study. You are required to provide information regarding an employee that you was evaluating in your institution.

Thanks in Advance

Dorcas Jepkorir Kiplagat

ADM NO HD312-COO8-0542/13

Phone:0722446077

Email:dorcasjkiplagat@gmail.com

Appendix B: Questionnaire

Part 1: Background/Personal Information

1. Please indicate your gender: Male [] Female []
2. How old are you?.....years
3. What is your current level in the organization
 - a) Junior staff
 - b) Supervisor
 - c) Middle level manager
 - d) Top level
4. For how long have you been working for this institution? -----
5. What is your highest level of Education?
 - [] Certificate
 - [] Diploma
 - [] Degree
 - [] Postgraduate
6. Kindly indicate the community you come from.....

Part II: Interpersonal Skills

Using the following 7-point scale, please indicate with a tick (✓) what best describes how much you agree with each statement about yourself using the key: 1-Never, 2-Rarely, 3-Occasionally, 4-Frequently 5-Very Frequently, 6-Almost Always 7-Always.

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Networking							
N1	I spend a lot of time and effort at work networking with others.							
N2	At work, I know a lot of important people and am well connected.							
N3	I am good at using my connections and networks to make things happen at work.							
N4	I have developed a large network of colleagues and associates at work who I can call on for support when I really need to get things done.							
N5	I spend a lot of time at work developing connections with others.							
	Impression Management							
I6	It is important that people believe I am sincere in what I say and do							
I7	When communicating with others, I try to be genuine in what I say and do							
I8	I try to show a genuine interest in other people.							
I9	I pay close attention to people's facial expressions.							
	Self Promotion							
S10	I have good intuition or savvy about how to present myself to others							
S11	It is easy for me to develop good rapport with most people.							
S12	I am able to make most people feel comfortable and at ease around me.							
S13	I am able to communicate easily and effectively with others							
S14	I am good at getting people to like me							
	Use of Influence Tactics							
T15	I always seem to instinctively know the right thing to say or do to influence others							
T16	I am particularly good at sensing the motivations and hidden agendas of others							
T17	I understand people very well							
T18	I am good at building relationships with influential people at work.							

Part III: Career Success

1. **Annual Gross Income:** Please indicate your current annual gross income:

Below 150K [] 151-200K [] 201-250K [] 251-300K [] 3001-350K 351-400K [] 401-450K 451-500K [] Above 500K

2. **Hierarchical Position:** Kindly indicate your hierarchical position in the county government using the scale 0% for bottom of the organization and 100% for top of the organization:

0-10% [] 11-20% [] 21-30% [] 31-40% [] 41-50 [] 51-60 [] Above 61 []

Part IV: Reputation

Using the following 7-point scale, please indicate with a tick (✓) what best describes how much you agree with each statement about yourself using the key: 1-Never, 2-Rarely, 3-Occasionally, 4-Frequently, 5-Very frequently, 6-Almost Always 7-Always.

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
R1	My company views me as an asset to the organization;							
R2	I could easily obtain a comparable job with another employer;							
R3	Given my skills and experience, the company that I work for views me as a value-added resource.							
R4	There are many opportunities available for me in my company.							

Appendix C: Random Table for Sample Size Determination

Population Size	Alpha =0.01 t = 1.65	Alpha =0.05 t = 1.96
100	46	55
200	59	75
300	65	85
400	69	92
500	72	96
600	73	100
700	75	102
800	76	104
900	76	105
1000	77	106
1500	79	110
2000	83	112
4000	83	119
6000	83	119
8000	83	119
10000	83	119

Source: Bartlett, Kotrlík, & Higgins(2001)

Appendix F: Uasin-Gishu County Map

