



## Personal reputation in organizations: Two-study constructive replication and extension of antecedents and consequences

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Personal reputation has been argued to demonstrate important influences on work outcomes. However, substantive research on personal reputation is relatively scarce. This two-study investigation empirically supports and extends existing theory regarding the temporal development of personal reputation (i.e., antecedents and consequences), and thus contributes to a more informed understanding of both the construct and criterion-related validity of this important construct. Study 1 is conducted longitudinally, in order to assess the development of personal reputation over time, which is undertaken to demonstrate the effects of human capital and social effectiveness as antecedents of reputation. Study 2 complements and extends the first study by conducting a field investigation examining the effects of time, human capital, and social effectiveness as antecedents of personal reputation, while also exploring the reputation consequences of autonomy, power, and career success. Our findings suggest that human capital, time, and social effectiveness play a part in the development of a reputation. Furthermore, career success, power, and autonomy were shown to be outcomes of the reputation construct. Contributions and strengths of this investigation, limitations, and directions for future research are discussed.

Personal reputation is a fact of both social and organizational life (e.g., Bromley, 1993). Individuals can develop reputations for many things in everyday life, but at work, reputations most likely focus on issues related to individuals' capacity to perform their jobs effectively, and to be cooperative and helpful towards others. Although there are examples of individuals intentionally creating negative reputations for themselves, this is

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not normally the case (Ferris, Zinko, Brouer, Buckley, & Harvey, 2008). Most individuals attempt to create a positive image of themselves in the workplace (Baumeister, 1982).

Our working definition of personal reputation in organizations is the extent to which individuals are perceived by others, over time, as performing their jobs competently, and being helpful towards others in the workplace. This builds upon previous work characterizing reputations in the workplace by work-related behaviour and personal characteristics that others perceive over time, with emphasis on the performance and character dimensions (Ferris, Blass, Douglas, Kolodinsky, & Treadway, 2003; Zinko, Ferris, Blass, & Laird, 2007). We do not suggest that performance and character represent the only possible dimensions of personal reputation. However, prior theory and research has indicated that these two might provide high-order dimensions that serve as initial representative characterizations of the personal reputation construct domain.

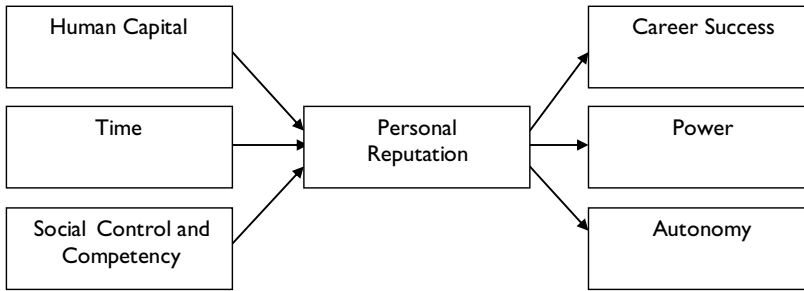
Time, or the temporal component of personal reputation, simply suggests that reputations typically are not formed instantaneously (i.e., except under unusual circumstances). Instead, reputations are formed through the consistent demonstration of distinctive and salient behaviours on repeated occasions, or over time. This time, or temporal consideration was suggested by others, and more recently by Anderson and Shirako (2008), who argued that reputation relates to a person's history of behaviour.

Unfortunately, systematic investigation of the nature of personal reputation at work has been virtually non-existent, and in need of more extensive consideration (Ferris *et al.*, 2003; Zinko *et al.*, 2007). Recently, Zinko *et al.* (2007) presented a model of the antecedents and consequences of personal reputation in organizations, which focused on human capital and social control and competency characteristics, along with time, as antecedents, and power, autonomy, and career success as outcomes. Thus, we seek to investigate personal reputation by arguing that individuals will be perceived as being competent and/or helpful at work. That these individuals possess work-related competency abilities, social control, and competence abilities to make others realize such work competencies and their willingness to work well with others, and that these individuals have sufficient opportunity to make others aware of such foregoing competencies. In the present paper, we conduct a two-study investigation to examine these ideas.

Specifically, Study 1 is a laboratory investigation that examines the antecedents of time (i.e., use of three different time periods), human capital (i.e., general mental ability, GMA), and social control and competency (i.e., self-efficacy) on personal reputation. Study 2 is a field investigation that seeks to constructively replicate the antecedents of personal reputation from the first investigation (i.e., in Study 2, tenure was used as a measure of time, expertise was used as a measure of human capital, and political skill was used as a measure of social control and competency), and extend this work by investigating the autonomy, power, and career success consequences of personal reputation.

### **Theoretical foundations and hypothesis development**

Figure 1 below, shows the model tested in the present research is an adaptation of Zinko *et al.* (2007), and it investigates time, human capital, and social control and competency factors as antecedents of personal reputation, and autonomy, power, and career success as consequences. We argue that individuals will be perceived as being competent and/or helpful at work to the extent they possess work-related competency abilities, social control, and competence to make others aware of these competencies, and that



**Figure 1.** Model of personal reputation (adapted from Zinko et al., 2007).

these individuals have sufficient opportunity to make others aware of such foregoing competencies. Thus, the focus is placed on the overarching concepts of ‘skills’ and ‘time’ (Rindova, Williamson, Petkova, & Sever, 2005). As such, it is argued that personal reputation is influenced by individuals’ personal characteristics and accomplishments, including their human capital and social control and competency, which reflect certain observable qualities or attributes on which their personal reputations may be built (Ferris et al., 2003; Zinko et al., 2007; Zinko, Furner, Royle, & Hall, 2010).

Also, a temporal aspect suggests that personal reputation does not develop instantaneously, but through the consistent demonstration of distinctive and salient behaviours on repeated occasions, or over time (e.g., Ferris et al., 2003; Zinko et al., 2007). It is suggested that this temporal buildup of personal reputation can develop through direct observation by an audience, and/or through the transference of information from secondary sources. This is consistent with findings by Anderson and Shirako (2008) indicating that the social connectedness of people to an individuals’ history of behaviour makes the behaviour more salient in becoming part of that individual’s personal reputation.

The main theoretical argument for the positive outcomes we expect from a personal reputation is based on uncertainty reduction. Reflecting a personal reputation for a behaviour helps decrease the uncertainty about an individual’s future behaviour by suggesting predictable patterns in particular situations in the future. Organizational scientists have suggested that reputation can represent a form of ‘signaling’, because it gives people an opportunity to tell others something about themselves (e.g., Erdem & Swait, 1998; Ferris et al., 2003; Spence, 1974). The reduction in uncertainty that a personal reputation brings to interactions with the reputed individual allows economization in monitoring, and freer assignment of power to that individual.

In line with this argument, Pfeffer (1992) suggested that a personal reputation for being a powerful individual brings that individual even more power. Additionally, Hall, Blass, Ferris, and Massengale (2004) suggested that as individuals’ reputations increase, their accountability decreases, because such reputations lead these individuals to be granted greater discretion to deviate from situational behaviour norms. Therefore, we argue that power and autonomy are related to an individual’s personal reputation. Finally, because personal reputation reduces uncertainty, and is used in place of complete information about an individual, it is logical to assume that many human resources decisions (e.g., hiring and promotion) are affected by personal reputation. Therefore, it is argued that career success is a consequence of personal reputation (Ferris et al., 2003; Zinko et al., 2007).

### *Antecedents of personal reputation*

*Time.* Organizational scientists have argued that reputation exists because an audience has imperfect knowledge regarding an individual, and thus that reputations become a proxy for observed actions (e.g., Elmer, 1984; Herbig & Milewicz, 1993). In this regard, reputations take time to develop, in that observers need to perceive consistency of behavioural demonstration across occasions. Although scholars have suggested that personal reputation may be lost or greatly reduced with one wrong move, most researchers have argued that personal reputation is not achieved with just a single event, but must be proactively built and maintained over time, through the consistent demonstration of distinctive and salient behaviours on repeated occasions, or over time (Ferris *et al.*, 2003). Zinko *et al.* (2007) argued that although the exact amount of time it takes to develop a reputation may vary, few would dispute that time is a necessary component to reputation development.

Because personal reputation is shared and transmitted by word of mouth, it can be surmised that the longer individuals have been in an organization, the more likely they will possess a personal reputation. Furthermore, the more time individuals spend in an organization, the better they will be able to evaluate their surroundings, and use those surroundings to their advantage in meaningful ways by developing behaviourally consistent images and impressions (e.g., develop a positive personal reputation; Elmer, 1984).

*Hypothesis 1:* Because reputations are not formed instantaneously, but require time to develop gradually, time will positively relate to personal reputation.

*Human capital.* The attainment of increased individual worth or value through acquisition of knowledge, skills, and abilities by means of intellectual, educational, and experiential achievements has become known as ‘human capital theory’. Therefore, human capital is individuals’ knowledge and skill that is the direct result of their investments in education and training (Becker, 1993). As such, human capital is proposed by Zinko *et al.* (2007) to be an important antecedent of personal reputation in organizations, and it is operationalized in the present investigation using GMA (i.e., Study 1) and expertise (i.e., Study 2).

A review by Schmidt and Hunter (1998) suggests that GMA is often the single most valid predictor of future job performance and learning. Furthermore, GMA has been suggested as the link between social reputation and innate talent (e.g., Simonton, 2004). Those who are considered ‘fast trackers’ (i.e., in the leadership literature) have been found to possess a positive personal reputation and benefit from high GMA (Dulewicz & Higgs, 2000). Therefore, GMA may be an important component in building and maintaining a personal reputation.

*Hypothesis 2:* GMA will positively relate to personal reputation.

Personal reputation is usually built on an individual’s ability to excel in some particular area of activity. In fact, it can be argued that perceived expertise in the eyes of one’s peers is the first step towards gaining a personal reputation. These personal reputation-building events include times when others observe the actions of the individuals while they are performing a work-related task. If such individuals exhibit unusual proficiency

over time, they may become regarded as experts (Littlepage, Robison, & Reddington, 1997), and be easily recognizable as such (Laughlin, VanderStoep, & Hollingshead, 1991).

*Hypothesis 3:* Expertise will positively relate to personal reputation.

*Social control and competency.* In order for individuals to influence their personal reputations, they must be able to communicate effectively to those around them in a manner consistent with the reputations they wish to develop, and to do so in influential ways (Ferris & Judge, 1991; Spence, 1974). Furthermore, they must possess an internal belief that they can exercise control over their environment and important elements in such contexts. Such competencies indicate social control and competency, which is a necessary component in the building and maintenance of personal reputation, because reputation is a social cognitive construct (Bromley, 1993; Tsui, 1984; Zinko 2010). Like other social constructs, those who are socially confident, competent, and efficacious are able to influence those around them to improve their social standing.

This image management ability not only increases perceived credibility, but also may allow the personal reputation-building individuals to co-opt those around them into their network (Ferris *et al.*, 2005). Because personal reputation is a social cognitive construct, individuals lacking in social control and competency may misconstrue how others see them, and as such, may not be able to properly develop a positive reputation due to their flawed self-assessments (i.e., Dunning, Heath, & Suls, 2004). In order to increase generalization, this research operationalizes social control and competency using both self-efficacy (i.e., Study 1) and political skill (i.e., Study 2), and constructive replication (e.g., Lykken, 1968) is sought across studies using different operationalizations of constructs.

Baumeister (1982), who defined self-efficacy as the belief one can successfully perform a task or a particular behaviour change, suggested that one of the motivators for building a personal reputation is self-fulfilment. Furthermore, Cohen (1959) stated that individuals wish others to see them as they see themselves. This implies that those with a powerful self-image (i.e., high self-esteem, high general efficacy) will wish for others to see them in the same positive light, and often will desire for others to acknowledge their abilities and talents (Crowne & Marlow, 1964).

These suggestions are consistent with concepts presented in signalling theory, suggesting that personal reputation builders send signals to others regarding how they seem themselves, and such signals are efforts to influence perceptions and meaning (Spence, 1974). Finally, those with higher self-efficacy have been shown to perform at higher levels (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998), resulting in the development of personal reputations based upon those actions.

*Hypothesis 4:* Self-efficacy will positively relate to personal reputation.

Because personal reputations are based on observed events as well as word of mouth (Ferris *et al.*, 2003; Zinko *et al.*, 2007), the talent to develop and manipulate a network is crucial to personal reputation. Although social effectiveness has been investigated under many different labels (savvy, street smarts, etc.), Ferris *et al.* (2005, p. 127) conceptualized political skill as the social control and competency construct developed explicitly to address influence at work, defined it 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 organizational objectives', and it has been shown to be an effective measure of social influence and effectiveness (see Ferris *et al.*, 2007 for a review).

Research in the field has demonstrated a link between political skill and personal reputation in that reputation mediates the relationship between political skill and job performance ratings (Liu *et al.*, 2007). Also, Anderson and Shirako (2008) recently found that having behaviour noticed enough to form part of one's reputation is partially a function of the degree of social connectedness to those observing and evaluating. Because politically skilled individuals are particularly adept at making their behaviour salient and attracting attentional focus, while also building social connections with others, political skill should serve as an antecedent of personal reputation (Ferris *et al.*, 2007).

*Hypothesis 5:* Political skill will positively relate to personal reputation.

#### *Consequences of personal reputation*

It can be argued that there are many different outcomes associated with a positive personal reputation (e.g., job satisfaction, intent to turnover, etc.). However, the Zinko *et al.* (2007) model of reputation sharpens the focus to just a smaller set of reputation consequences, which are examined in the present research. By no means do we suggest that these are the only outcomes of reputation, but rather we present them as a well-grounded foundation on which to begin the examination of reputation outcomes (i.e., with specific reference to a positive reputation). Thus, the outcomes chosen for this research (i.e., autonomy, career advancement, and power) are justified theoretically as direct consequences of personal reputation in the conceptualization proposed by Zinko *et al.*

*Autonomy.* Autonomy has been defined as 'the freedom an individual has in carrying out work' (Humphrey, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007, p. 1333). Because reputation exists in order to reduce ambiguity, to the extent that individuals feel they can predict the behaviour of others, they will not feel a need to monitor their actions as closely. Both agency theory and the recently developing stream of celebrity literature support this theory by suggesting that those responsible for hiring may seek out individuals who have established reputations because they do not need supervision since their actions are predictable in certain environments (Hayward, Rindova, & Pollock, 2004).

*Hypothesis 6:* Personal reputation will positively relate to autonomy.

*Power.* When individuals have a strong, positive reputation, others will wish to be identified with them. Current research regarding the phenomena of 'basking in reflected glory' suggests such actions (see Snyder, Lassegard, & Ford, 1986 for a review). As individuals gain personal reputations, they gain power (Gioia & Sims, 1983; Pfeffer, 1992), which may derive from not only formal but also informal authority, and the authority to delegate tasks is an example of these powers.

*Hypothesis 7:* Personal reputation will positively relate to power.

*Career success.* Career success often is based more on social factors than performance (Ferris & Judge, 1991; Ng, Eby, Sorensen, & Feldman, 2005). A personal reputation is a social factor that may be able to affect performance evaluations, promotions, employee mobility, and compensation (Ferris *et al.*, 2003). First, because personal reputation often is related to perceived performance (Herbig & Milewicz, 1993), supervisors will set higher goals because they expect more from those with a positive personal reputation. However, goal setting has been shown to demonstrate a positive relationship with performance evaluations regardless of actual performance (Dossett & Greenberg, 1981; Kierein & Gold, 2000).

Second, the importance of first impressions has been well established in the field (e.g., Cooper, Graham, & Dyke, 1993), and personal reputation has the advantage of establishing an impression before an individual is even present in an organization. This 'pre-established' first impression directs the attention of those around the individual in what could be essentially a halo effect regarding the individual's actions (Fox, Bizman, & Herrmann, 1983). At first, those around the individual in question will focus on what the individual is known for, which is advantageous because it gives the new individual time to adapt to the new environment.

For example, if a new employee is entering an organization with an already established personal reputation as being a hard worker, others will assume that being a hard worker is simply a manifestation of a stable trait the individual possesses (Rudolph & Kleiner, 1992). Therefore, others will assume that this citizenship trait should manifest itself in other ways, and treat the new employee in such a manner (i.e., giving them the benefit of the doubt, increased trust, and autonomy).

Finally, personal reputation affects career success in the form of compensation by organizations' 'purchasing' reputation. This suggestion supports organizational theorists' views that part of the value of reputation is intangible, manifesting itself in higher compensation packages than those given to individuals with similar skills who are less well known (Wade, Porac, Pollock, & Graffin, 2006). Furthermore, individuals who are helpful to others, and who are perceived to possess good reputations, receive greater rewards than helpful individuals with bad personal reputations (Johnson, Erez, Kiker, & Motowidlo, 2002).

*Hypothesis 8:* Personal reputation will positively relate to career success.

### **Plan of the research**

Two complementary studies were conducted to develop a more informed understanding of personal reputation, and its antecedents and consequences proposed by Zinko *et al.* (2007). Study 1 is a laboratory investigation of the antecedents of personal reputation as it is developed over time. The temporal dimension is particularly the focus of attention in this study, although other antecedents of personal reputation are investigated as well. Thus, Study 1 provides tests of Hypotheses 1 (i.e., time), 2 (i.e., GMA as operationalization of human capital), and 4 (i.e., self-efficacy as an operationalization of social control and competency) regarding antecedents of personal reputation.

Study 2 attempts to constructively replicate the results from Study 1, using a different sample, setting, and operationalizations of constructs (i.e., tenure as a measure of time, expertise as a measure of human capital, and political skill as a measure of social control and competence). Furthermore, Study 2 extends the first study by examining consequences of personal reputation (i.e., autonomy, power, and career

success), thus providing tests of Hypotheses 1, 3, 5, 6, 7, and 8. Because different measures of constructs are used in both studies, the research seeks confirmation through 'constructive' replication, which provides stronger confidence in the validity of the obtained findings (e.g., Eden, 2002; Lykken, 1968; Tsang & Kwan, 1999).

## STUDY I

### Method

#### *Participants and procedure*

Participants were upper level business undergraduates at a public university ( $n = 102$ ) and a private university ( $n = 62$ ) in the United States, enrolled in sections of negotiation/conflict resolution courses taught by three of the authors. As part of the class, participants completed individual differences questionnaires at the beginning of the semester, 12 negotiation simulations throughout the semester, and negotiation reputation questionnaires at three points throughout the semester. The individual differences and negotiation reputation questionnaires were both used for developmental purposes in the class.

During the first week of the class, participants were asked to complete the individual differences questionnaire. During 12 of the subsequent weeks of the semester, students completed various negotiations, and students were randomly assigned partners for each negotiation. At three points during the semester (weeks 5, 10, and 15), students completed the personal reputation questionnaire, thus permitting measurement of the time dimension of personal reputation.

#### *Measures*

##### *Personal reputation*

Personal reputation was measured by adapting a well-developed descriptive matching technique from various psychological fields. This method consists of individuals rating other subjects from best to worst in categories provided (see Zeller, Vannatta, Schafer, & Noll, 2003). Students were asked to think about people in the class and their personal reputations, and they were instructed to provide the names of up to five classmates who fell into the category of 'best negotiators'. On average, students provided 2.62 names for the 'best negotiators' category. Students were presented with names and pictures of all classmates to aid in making the classifications. They were guaranteed that their individual responses to the personal reputation questionnaires would remain completely anonymous, and only the aggregated results from the class would be presented to any student.

After the questionnaire was completed, a personal reputation score was first calculated by summing the total number of times a student's name was mentioned for a specific category across questionnaires. This number was then divided by the number of students in the class to calculate the strength of the reputation. For example, if 10 of 25 students in a class entered John Smith's name into the best reputation category, he would receive a score of .40.

##### *Time*

Personal reputation was measured at three different time periods. Therefore, time was operationalized as the different data collection points (i.e., early, mid, and late in the



semester), and was turned into a variable by creating two dummy codes reflecting the different time periods, where time 1 was set as the referent category.

#### *Human capital*

GMA was used as the operationalization of human capital in this study, and it was measured via participant self-reported grade-point average (GPA). GPA has been shown to be a reliable proxy of GMA in previous research (Caldwell & Burger, 1998).

#### *Social control and competency*

Self-efficacy was used as the operationalization of social effectiveness in this study, and it was measured by adapting the eight-item Chen, Gully, and Eden (2001) self-efficacy scale to the specific negotiation context, and ask participants to provide self-report responses. The coefficient alpha reliability estimate for this scale was .82.

#### **Data analysis**

Because the data were hierarchically structured (i.e., there were multiple assessments of personal reputation for a given participant), one concern might be dependence in the data caused by analysing the same person multiple times (Humphrey, Morgeson, & Mannor, 2009). We address the potential dependence using multi-level modelling because this procedure ‘provides the correct parameter estimates and significance tests for multilevel and non-independent data by estimating within-team and between-team variances and covariances separately, and by using the correct standard errors’ (Chen, Kirkman, Kanfer, Allen, & Rosen, 2007, p. 337).

The data were structured such that personal reputation was assigned to level 1, whereas the individual differences (e.g., GMA) were assigned to level 2. The hypotheses were tested using MLwiN Version 2.02 (Rasbash, Steele, Browne, & Prosser, 2004). To facilitate comparability of the different variables, all measures were standardized, which made the parameter estimates reflect standardized ( $\beta$ ) coefficients (Chen, Bliese, & Mathieu, 2005). This process essentially grand-mean centered the variables, which is consistent with normal multi-level modelling conventions.

A series of models of different relationships is presented in Table 1. For each model, the coefficients and standard errors are presented for all parameters in the model. Additionally, the variances at each level (i.e., time and individual) for each model are presented, and comparisons are made with the total variance for the model to the null model. When coupled with the likelihood ratio test, this allows for a determination of the explanatory value of a particular model and the effect size associated with the addition of specific parameters.

#### **Results**

Table 2 presents the correlation matrix for the variables of interest. Given the hierarchical nature of our data, the null model for performance was first calculated (Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002). As shown in Table 1, 70% of the total variance in individual best reputation is attributable to individual phenomena, independent of the time periods in which personal reputation is measured. This means that most of the variance in personal reputation is a function of constructs that are stable across the three measurement contexts.

**Table 1.** Model comparisons for best reputation in Study 1

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
Intercept ( $\beta_{0j}$ )	.136 (.074)	.011 (.083)	.002 (.081)	-.010 (.080)
Time 2		.124 (.063)	.124 (.063)	.124 (.063)
Time 3		.249 (.063)	.249 (.063)	.249 (.063)
Self-efficacy			.223 (.071)	.215 (.070)
Cognitive ability				.182 (.072)
Variance (individual level)	.787 (.100)	.792 (.100)	.741 (.094)	.709 (.091)
Variance (time level)	.340 (.027)	.325 (.025)	.325 (.025)	.325 (.025)
Total variance	1.127	1.117	1.066	1.034
$-2 \times \log$ likelihood	1,205.432	1,190.147	1,180.55	1,174.26
% of total variance explained	0	.01*	.05*	.08*

Note.  $N = 492$  at time level, 164 at individual level. For variables, the first value in a cell is the beta coefficient, and the value in parentheses is the standard error.

\* $p < .05$ .

As seen in Model 2 of Table 1, time exhibited a significant effect on best reputation ( $\Delta R^2 = .01$ ,  $p < .001$ ), with best reputation increasing from time 1 ( $M = .01$ ) to time 2 ( $M = .14$ ) to time 3 ( $M = .26$ ). These results support Hypothesis 1, because a personal reputation as the best negotiator increased over time within the population. Next, Hypotheses 2 and 4 were tested. As shown in Table 1, GMA (i.e., as an operationalization of human capital) significantly influenced best reputation ( $\beta = .18$ ,  $\Delta R^2 = .03$ ,  $p = .01$ ), supporting Hypothesis 2. Furthermore, self-efficacy (i.e., as an operationalization of social control and competency) significantly influenced best reputation ( $\beta = .22$ ,  $\Delta R^2 = .05$ ,  $p < .01$ ), supporting Hypothesis 4.

## STUDY 2

### Method

#### Participants and procedure

The study began with a sample of 201 subjects drawn from three different organizations (i.e., 102 nurses, 59 antique book repair specialists, and 40 pub employees). Ten subjects were dropped due to an acquiescence response style (Guilford, 1954; Peterson & Wilson, 1992). The remaining 191 subjects were pooled together to comprise a useable sample. We controlled for gender in this study, as the majority of the participants (over 85%) were female.

**Table 2.** Intercorrelations of Study 1 variables

	Variable	1	2	3
1	Self efficacy	–		
2	Cognitive ability	0.05	–	
3	Best reputation	0.21	0.18	–

Note.  $N = 492$  at time level, 164 at individual level.

Correlations greater than .09 are significant  $p < .05$ .

Correlations greater than .11 are significant  $p < .01$ .

**Table 3.** Source of variables collected for Study I

	Self report	Direct contact other report*	Indirect contact other report**	Supervisor report
Reputation			XX	
Political skill	XX			
Expertise		XX		
Tenure				XX
Autonomy	XX			
Power		XX		
Career advancement				XX

Note. XX denotes the means of collecting the measure (e.g., political skill was self report).

\*Individuals who have daily contact with the subject.

\*\*Individuals who have contact with the subject less than three times a month.

The sample for this study was chosen in an effort to be as diverse as possible. The reasoning behind this was, as stated earlier, that actions that would develop someone a positive reputation as a nurse would be completely different than those of a book repair specialist. What would be similar in the groups is the agreement of peers and supervisors regarding an individual's abilities to excel at the task at hand. Some of the nurses might develop a reputation for becoming an expert in placing a difficult IV line, while one of the antique book repair specialists may become known for being the best in the shop at repairing a 600-year-old book spine.

In either case, when a difficult situation arose, supervisors would turn to the employee who was best reputed to handle the situation. If the entire sample had been drawn from a single, specific field, one could argue that the survey was measuring a specific behaviour (e.g., repairing a book spine), as opposed to a general feeling of competence by others in the organization. Using an identical survey for three different organizations eliminates the possibility of this potential noise.

The research utilized a dyadic design in which employees responded to a questionnaire that was coded in order to match responses to supervisors or team leaders, as well as evaluations from other employees. As shown in Table 3, data were first gathered from supervisors regarding career success and tenure of their employees. Then, data were gathered from the employees to include political skill, and autonomy. Next expertise and power were gathered from a co-worker who saw the subject on a day to day basis. Finally, data were gathered from a co-worker, who did not work with the employee on a daily basis, in order to assess personal reputation. In order to correctly assign co-workers, a supervisor first was asked to sort employees into lists of frequently seen and rarely seen. Employees were then asked how often they saw the subject (i.e., never, rarely, often, daily). All scales (i.e., other than tenure) utilized a 7-point response format ranging from (1) *strongly disagree* to (7) *strongly agree*.

## Measures

### Personal reputation

Personal reputation was measured using the 12-item scale developed by Hochwarter, Ferris, Zinko, Arnell, and James (2007), and completed by others. This scale consisted of items such as 'I am regarded highly by others' and 'If people want things done right,

they ask me to do it' (items were re-worded when gathering other reports). In an effort to get a more robust finding, individuals were asked to rate others with whom they had little to no direct contact. This suggests that the reputation would be based solely on information provided by an audience. This is especially relevant as it builds upon Study 1, in that it removed any direct action by the subject in the development of the reputation (i.e., most knowledge of the subject was gleaned second hand, via reputation).

#### *Time*

Time was measured in this study by asking the individual's supervisor how long the individual had been employed in the organization.

#### *Human capital*

Expertise was used as the operationalization of human capital, and it was measured by adapting the three-item measure developed by Brady and Cronin (2001), reported by a co-worker who had daily interactions with the subject. A sample item is 'I can count on my co-worker to know his/her job'. An additional item was added stating 'My coworker is an expert at his/her job'. In an effort to minimize same source bias, expertise was measured by a co-worker that is in daily contact with the subject. This not only provides a third point of contact, but also suggests theoretical parsimony from the personal reputation measure as the report of expertise comes from direct observation of the subject.

#### *Social control and competency*

Gathered through employee self report, political skill was used as the operationalization of social control and competency, and it was measured using the 18-item *Political Skill Inventory* developed by Ferris *et al.* (2005). 'I am good at getting people to like me' and 'It is easy for me to develop good rapport with most people' are representative items.

#### *Power*

Power was operationalized as referent power, using the four-item measure developed by Hinkin and Schriesheim (1989). Like expertise, this measure was collected from individuals who had direct contact with the subject.

#### *Autonomy*

Autonomy was measured using a three-item, self-report scale developed by Hackman and Oldham (1975) as part of their Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS). The job autonomy sub-scale measures the degree to which an employee has freedom, independence, and discretion in performing job tasks. Although this is a mature scale with strong reliability evidence, a fourth item (also developed from the JDS scale) that had been used in several previous studies (Abraham, 1998) was added.

#### *Career success*

Career success was measured using the Turban and Dougherty (1994) three-item scale. Managers were asked to rate their employees on this measure. A sample question is 'This employee has been promoted more rapidly than his/her peers'.

### **Data analysis**

Following the widely accepted approach of Anderson and Gerbing (1998), first the scales were tested (i.e., measurement model), then the structural model was tested on a variable (i.e., as opposed to item) level. Both the measurement model and the structural model were tested using AMOS 4.0. SEM (Arbuckle & Wothke, 1999) was used as opposed to regression analysis so that all variables could be tested at once.

#### *Measurement model*

Before the measurement model could be tested, an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was performed on the personal reputation scale. Although the personal reputation scale has been shown to be of theoretical value, it has not been extensively developed as a psychometrically sound measurement instrument. Therefore, to further advance the refinement of the measure, an EFA was conducted using SPSS 11 (SPSS, Inc., 2003) to perform a principal-axis factor analysis with an oblique, direct oblimin factor rotation scheme. Because they were established scales, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used to test the remaining variables.

#### *Structural model*

The test of the structural model was conducted on the variable level. The items were collapsed into a single variable, and an error was assigned to each. Whereas the model could be examined on the item level, this model was carried out at the variable level as a path diagram (Anderson & Gerbing, 1998) because the proposed research question is concerned with the variables as opposed to any variance (noise) that may be produced by already established variables. Like the measurement model, the structural model was held up to similar fit requirements. Additionally, to validate the hypothesis, the alternative models approach was used whereby several models were evaluated (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Paths were added and removed based on theoretical likelihood of a superior fit, and  $\chi^2$  values (divided by degrees of freedom) were compared to determine the best fitting model.

#### *Controlling for organization*

The final model (Model 5) was run on each organization separately, which cut the sample size down to between 40 and 60 for each model. To compensate for the low numbers, bootstrapping was performed on each sample. There was no significant difference between the  $\chi^2/df$  for each model, so the samples remained combined.

## **Results**

Table 4 presents the means, standard deviations, reliabilities, and correlations for all Study 2 variables. The CFA showed a necessity to drop some items from the other scales (see Appendix). Expertise, power, and autonomy, all dropped one item. Additionally, six items were dropped from the 18-item political skill measure. None of the items that were dropped from the political-skill scale were those of the original, single-dimensional political skill scale. This is significant because this study examines political skill as a single dimension and as such can present findings with a reduced scale that still hold the same psychometric properties of past empirical work that viewed political skill

**Table 4.** Intercorrelations of Study 2 variables

	Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	Reputation	5.53	1.18	.98						
2	Political skill	5.53	1.18	.46	.98					
3	Expertise	5.12	1.44	.52	.45	.95				
4	Tenure	5.15	3.53	.30	.17	.31	1.00			
5	Autonomy	5.14	1.54	.51	.67	.50	.17	.94		
6	Power	5.13	1.50	.49	.42	.48	.31	.49	.97	
7	Career success	4.76	1.48	.49	.36	.51	.18	.43	.49	.97

Note.  $N = 191$ ; reliabilities are on the diagonal. Correlations greater than .14 are significant  $p < .05$ . Correlations greater than .18 are significant  $p < .01$ .

uni-dimensionally (e.g., Ferris *et al.*, 1999). Furthermore, all measures presented retained coefficient reliability alphas of .94 to .98. Such high reliabilities suggest that dropping the items did not retract from the psychometric properties of the scales due to the high correlations of the items (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Jarvis, 2005).

The initial measurement model allowed satisfactory data re-computation ( $\chi^2/df = 3.01$ ,  $p < .05$ ; Normed Fit Index (NFI) = .89; Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI) = .91; Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = .92; the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = .10). All factor loadings were significant, and most were sizeable (mean loading = .67). Because Lagrange multiplier tests identified several multi-dimensional indicators (Bentler & Wu, 1998), five multi-dimensional scales were discarded in a series of measurement model tests to improve scale uni-dimensionality. Although loading on their intended factors, these indicators reflected other factors. The final model fit the data well ( $\chi^2/df = 2.83$ ,  $p < .05$ ; NFI = .94; NNFI = .97; CFI = .97; RMSEA = .04, with a CI of 90%). All factor loadings were significant, and the average factor loading was .72. In discriminant validity tests, no confidence interval for any factor correlation included 1.0, suggesting that all factors differ from one another.

Of the 12 reputation scale items, 11 loaded on a single factor at an acceptable level, explaining 85% of the variance. Item 4 loaded on the same factor at .61 and, therefore, was removed (Conway & Huffcutt, 2003). The item in question was unique in that it specifically asked about trust. The other items of the survey focused more on the aspects of job performance (i.e., 'If people want things done right, they ask this person to do them') and positive social perception (i.e., 'This person is highly regarded by others'). Due to the complex, multi-dimensional aspects that the word 'trust' carries, it has been known to produce unpredictable results in measures (e.g., Hall, Camacho, Dugan, & Balkrishnan, 2002). Dropping this item leaves 11 items to capture a single-dimension reputation. This is more than a sufficient number of items to perform a CFA (Anderson & Gerbing, 1998).

Table 5 presents the results of the SEM, nested models comparison. Figure 2 presents the best fitting model, which was arrived at by considering both theory and fit indices. Additional main effect paths were needed from expertise to both power and career. The main effect paths were chosen because in this study, human capital was operationalized by the measurement of expertise. As expected, expertise manifested itself via reputation to positively correlate with power and career advancement. Due to halo effect and other such common social perception errors (i.e., as well as legal issues), organizations often

**Table 5.** Model comparison results in Study 2

Model	Description	$\chi^2$	df	$\chi^2/df$	CFI	TLI*	RMSEA
1	Hypothesized model	394.8	15	26.32	0.88	0.8	0.10
2	No mediation model	259.65	9	28.85	0.92	0.78	0.13
3	Null model	590.94	21	28.14	1	0.78	0.08
4	Partial mediation model	194.46	6	32.41	0.94	0.75	0.17
5	Best model	58.24	13	4.48	0.99	0.97	0.04

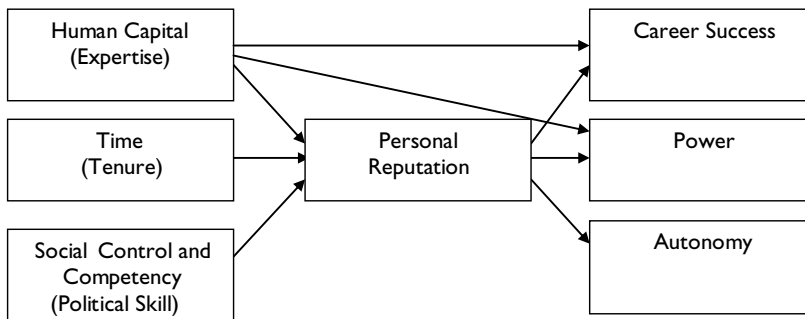
\*Tucker-Lewis Index

attempt to standardize their advancement processes (e.g., a ‘checklist’ of sorts that all employees are measured by).

As such, although reputation would certainly play a strong role, promotions may be granted on a more objective basis than other rewards. In this, one would expect that expertise at a job may demonstrate a direct effect on advancement (i.e., due to the objective nature of many workplace tasks). Likewise, a certain level of social power may be expected when an individual has advanced knowledge of a task (Pfeffer, 1992). We tested an additional direct path from human capital to autonomy, but this relationship was found to be fully mediated by reputation. This lack of a main effect could be expected because autonomy deals with more than expertise at a task. Therefore, the final model presented has additional paths from human capital to both power as well as career advancement.

Table 6 shows that the three antecedents accounted for 27.6% of the variance that comprises personal reputation. The results demonstrate that the hypotheses tested in Study 2 were all confirmed. Political skill (i.e., as an operationalization of social control and competency) positively predicted personal reputation with an effect size of .31, thus supporting Hypothesis 5. Expertise (i.e., as an operationalization of human capital) was found to demonstrate a positive relationship with personal reputation (.39 effect size), providing support for Hypothesis 3. Furthermore, tenure (i.e., as an operationalization of time) was found to demonstrate a significant and positive relationship with personal reputation, reflecting an effect size of .18, thus supporting Hypothesis 1. Therefore, these results ‘constructively replicate’ (e.g., Lykken, 1968) the predictive (i.e., antecedents of personal reputation) results from Study 1.

Furthermore, personal reputation positively predicted autonomy (.19 effect size), power (.13 effect size), and career success (.27). Table 7 presents the results of the



**Figure 2.** Best fitting model as suggested by theory and modification indices.

**Table 6.** Squared multiple correlations and standardized total effects of Model 5 in Study 2

	R <sup>2</sup>	Tenure	Expertise	PS*	Reputation
Political skill	0.688	0	0	0	0
Reputation	0.276	0.179	0.386	0.308	0
Power	0.558	0.024	0.737	0.041	0.133
Career success	0.276	0.049	0.424	0.084	0.273
Autonomy	0.563	0.035	0.074	0.059	0.193

Note. All results are significant at  $p < .01$ ; \*Political Skill.

mediation analysis, showing the direct as well as the indirect standardized effects. Like Table 6, Table 7 reflects empirical support for all hypotheses tested in Study 2, in that personal reputation was found to mediate the effects of the independent variables (i.e., tenure, expertise, and political skill) on the dependent variables (i.e., power, autonomy, and career success), thus providing support for Hypotheses 6, 7, and 8. Thus, the Zinko *et al.* (2007) conceptualization of the antecedents and consequences of personal reputation in organizations received empirical support in this research.

## GENERAL DISCUSSION

In this two-study investigation, we proposed a working definition of personal reputation in organizations as the extent to which individuals are perceived by others, over time, as performing their jobs competently, and being helpful towards others in the workplace, thus building on previous work characterizing reputations in the workplace by work-related behaviour and personal characteristics that others perceive over time (Ferris *et al.*, 2003; Zinko *et al.*, 2007). Thus, it was argued that individuals will be perceived as

**Table 7.** Direct and mediated effects of Study 2

	Tenure	Expertise	Political skill	Reputation
Standardized direct effects				
Reputation	0.179	0.386	0.308	0
Power	0	0.686	0	0.133
Career success	0	0.318	0	0.273
Autonomy	0	0	0	0.193
Standardized indirect effects				
Reputation	0	0	0	N/A
Power	0.026	0.053	0.039	N/A
Career success	0.04	0.084	0.062	N/A
Autonomy	0.033	0.07	0.051	N/A
Percent of effect that is mediated				
Reputation	0%	0%	0%	N/A
Power	100%	8%	100%	N/A
Career success	100%	26%	100%	N/A
Autonomy	100%	100%	100%	N/A

Note. All results are significant at  $p < .01$ .



being competent and/or helpful at work to the extent they possess work-related skills and abilities, social control, and competency to make others aware of these skills and abilities, and that these individuals have the opportunity to make others aware of their competencies at work.

Testing portions of the Zinko *et al.* (2007) model (i.e., that time, human capital, and social control and competency factors serve as antecedents of personal reputation), Study 1 provided support for the hypotheses. Study 2 constructively replicated the antecedents found in Study 1, and extended the research by also demonstrating support for hypotheses autonomy, power, and career success as consequences of reputation.

### **Contributions to theory and research**

The overall intention of this research was to test features of the conceptualization proposed by Zinko *et al.* (2007), which articulated antecedents and consequences of personal reputation in organizations, and the results of the two studies provided strong support. More specifically, researchers have suggested that personal reputation is formed over time (Ferris *et al.*, 2003; Tsui, 1984; Zinko *et al.*, 2007). Power, discretionary behaviour (i.e., autonomy), job performance, and compensation (i.e., as an indicator of career success) also have been suggested as relating to personal reputation (Ferris *et al.*, 2003; Gioia & Sims, 1983; Pfeffer, 1992; Tsui, 1984; Zinko *et al.*, 2007). This two-study investigation provides empirical support for the assumptions set forth by these authors, thus contributing support to theory in this area.

The findings of this research suggest that a large amount of the influence that tenure has demonstrated on career success is mediated by personal reputation. This suggests that developing and maintaining personal reputation is important at any stage of career. Likewise, almost the entire main effect of expertise on autonomy (95%) was mediated through personal reputation. This finding implies that being an expert is not enough to gain increased independence in a position; an individual must be 'known' as an expert.

A final contribution of the present investigation concerns the measure of personal reputation, which was assessed from two different individuals who did not have daily contact with the subject. This suggests that the correlation between the two independent assessments of the subject's reputation was based upon a collective agreement as opposed to observed actions. The data collected offer additional validation for a scale that has been shown to be of theoretical value, but has not been extensively developed as a psychometric instrument. Furthermore, in the present research, personal reputation is viewed as a generally 'good' reputation (Study 2), and a negotiation-specific 'good' reputation (Study 1). Measuring reputation in both contexts permits recording both a general reputation and a context-specific reputation, and the results contribute to research in both of these areas (e.g., see the Tinsley, O'Connor, & Sullivan, 2002 study on tough negotiator reputation, for a context-specific example).

Although the present research investigation did not address the specific amount of time it takes to build a personal reputation, it took the first step in developing this relationship by supporting the theory that time is a necessary component in personal reputation building (Ferris *et al.*, 2003; Zinko *et al.*, 2007). Anderson and Shirako (2008) reported that personal reputation is related to individuals' history of behaviour, but some behaviours receive more careful scrutiny and have more impact than others. Confirmation of the other antecedents proposed by Zinko *et al.* (2007) is a first step in empirically establishing what constitutes the personal reputation construct. Different

operationalizations of both human capital (i.e., GMA in Study 1 and expertise in Study 2) and social control and competency (i.e., self-efficacy in Study 1 and political skill in Study 2) converged to confirm the importance of these antecedents of personal reputation.

Even though political skill was significantly related to personal reputation in Study 2, it could be argued that the relationship between personal reputation and social control and competency presented here is artificially low due to the restrictions placed on how personal reputation was defined and measured. Many of the items comprising the personal reputation measure asked about performance and results. Once the stream of research is better developed, personal reputation can be examined in a more robust light to include negative, unintentional, and purely social reputations. As the domain of personal reputation is expanded, it can be argued that social control and competency will play an even larger role in shaping personal reputation.

The outcomes of reputation, articulated in the Zinko *et al.* (2007) conceptualization, and tested in this investigation, reflect the benefits of a positive personal reputation at work. These outcomes are not intended to represent an exhaustive list of personal reputation consequences, but rather an initial step in identifying the outcomes of a favourable personal reputation. Nevertheless, the results of Study 2 (i.e., direct and indirect paths) account for 27–56% of the variance explaining these outcomes. These strong results suggest that the outcomes tested in this model reflect the consequences of a positive personal reputation in organizations.

### **Limitations of the research**

The intentional positive view of personal reputation presented in this investigation does not account for purely social reputations, negative reputations, or unintentional reputations. This ‘limitation’ is by design. A narrow view of reputation was chosen in order to give crisp definition and findings to the underdeveloped phenomenon that is personal reputation, as opposed to presenting broad, nebulous results that lacked interpretability. Furthermore, this more focused perspective on personal reputation allowed for a cleaner initial test of the Zinko *et al.* (2007) conceptualization regarding the proposed antecedents and consequences of personal reputation. As personal reputation becomes better understood, research should expand how this construct is conceptualized, in terms of favourability, domain, and scope, and also how it is measured.

Although research to date in this area has tended to focus largely on reputation favourability (i.e., with most concentrating on positive personal reputation), limited work has been done on negative reputation (e.g., Flynn, Reagans, Amanatullah, & Ames, 2006; Tinsley *et al.*, 2002). Moreover, the measurement of personal reputation must be able to capture the norms and values of the group to which the individual is anchored.

Additionally, a potential limitation of this research could be the use of a student sample in Study 1, assessing personal reputation within the context of in-class negotiation sessions, and the generalizability of this to real-world contexts. If this was a stand-alone study, that might represent a valid concern, because external validity evidence would be unavailable, and merely speculative. However, the fact that the results of this investigation were constructively replicated and extended in a field study (i.e., Study 2) examining personal reputation indicates that there is generalizability across contexts. Thus, this does not appear to be a serious concern here.

Finally, both Ferris *et al.* (2003) and Zinko *et al.* (2007) have suggested the potential existence of a non-recursive loop leading from outcomes back to reputation. Therefore,

considering that autonomy, career success and power feeding into reputation is a relevant concern. Reputation exists in order to reduce ambiguity (e.g., Zinko *et al.*, 2007). To the extent that individuals feel they can predict the behaviour of others, they will not feel a need to monitor their actions as closely. In the case of reputation, because specific behaviours are associated with that individual (i.e., what that individual is 'known for'), a level of autonomy may be granted to the individual (i.e., because the individual's behaviour can be predicted).

This is supported by agency theory that dictates that a board of directors must consider the cost of monitoring a manager's actions versus the extent of positive gain the individual will bring to the company (Eisenhardt, 1989). If there is a solid personal reputation in place, the board can expect certain behaviours, and will not need to monitor the individual as closely. Therefore, although autonomy may give an individual a greater opportunity to shine (Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006), without the original reputation in place, there would be no motivation on the manager's part to extend a level of autonomy to the subordinate. Similar arguments can be made for power. Not at all surprising, autonomy and power correlated at  $r = .49$  ( $p < .01$ ) for this investigation (i.e., Study 2). In order for power to be granted to an individual in an organization, a supervisor must feel that the individual can properly brandish this power.

For all three consequences examined in Study 2 (i.e., autonomy, career success, and power), there is a level of control built into the sample. None of the subjects were at a level where they would have been hired in by a top-level executive search firm, based upon their reputation (i.e., there were no executives in the sample). Therefore, it can be legitimately assumed that the individuals who were granted power and autonomy, and achieved career success, had done so over time (i.e., after impressions of them were gleaned by others).

### **Directions for future research**

Although the test of features of the Zinko *et al.* (2007) conceptualization provides a good first step at developing a more informed understanding of this important organizational science construct, more research is needed in the future to consider other potential predictors and outcomes of personal reputation, as well as additional moderators and mediators. For example, although this investigation examined political skill as it relates to reputation, Ferris *et al.* (2007) has shown there to be a distinction between political skill and constructs such as charisma. Such variables as charisma may be relevant in examining how effectively one may 'sell' their reputation to others. Furthermore, those high in charisma frequently are liked by others and, therefore, their actions may be viewed in a more positive light.

Furthermore, future research should begin to examine and distinguish 'situational motivations' from basic human motives that transcend specific situations. Fiske (2004) identified a small set of basic human motives that underlie social interactions, and self-enhancement is one of them. In this regard, we must consider the effects of such situations on not only the motivations behind personal reputations, but also how others will feel about our reputations. Indeed, those interested in basking in the reflected glory of others' reputations must be considered.

Following from Hochwarter *et al.* (2007) and Zinko *et al.* (2007), 'character/integrity' and 'performance/results' should be more extensively investigated as key higher order dimensions of personal reputation. Tsui (1984) found that personal reputations for performance are formed, and others have argued that reputations can form according to

behaviours of fairness and integrity (e.g., Becker, 1998; Schlenker, Weigold, & Schlenker, 2008). Furthermore, performance/results and character/integrity assessments have been found to be related to trust (e.g., Kim, Ferrin, Dirks, & Cooper, 2004) and selection (e.g., Cook & Emler, 1999).

Additionally, although most of those developing a reputation intend for that reputation to be positive, there may be times when individuals may wish to reflect a more aggressive reputation. In such situations, further examination of the reputation phenomenon should be explored. Likewise, specific situations may call for those of either gender to develop a reputation that departs from gender-specific norms (e.g., female top-level executives). Future research might consider evaluating these dimensions of personal reputation with respect to dimension-specific antecedents and consequences.

For example, recent research has demonstrated that improved status or personal reputation is a consequence of helping or citizenship types of behaviours (Flynn *et al.*, 2006; Hall, Zinko, Perryman, & Ferris, 2009). However, upon closer examination, it might be the case that such helping behaviour really impacts personal reputation mainly through the character/integrity dimension (i.e., more than the performance/results dimension). Alternatively, consistently producing high-level performance should build effective personal reputation mainly through the performance/results dimension.

## Conclusion

The systematic examination and development of personal reputation as a unique phenomenon in the organizational sciences is important and needed. This two-study investigation builds upon previous research and existing theory to test a conceptualization developed by Zinko *et al.* (2007) of the antecedents and consequences of personal reputation in organizations. We hope that these results will stimulate further research interest in this important area.

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## Appendix

### **Scales from Study 2 that had items dropped**

#### *Reputation items*

1. This individual is regarded highly by others.
2. This individual has a good reputation.
3. This individual has the respect of his/her colleagues and associates.
4. This individual has the trust of his/her colleagues.\*
5. This individual is seen as a person of high integrity.
6. This individual is re-garded as someone who gets things done.
7. This individual has a reputation for producing results.\*
8. People expect this individual to consistently demonstrate the highest performance.
9. People know this individual will produce only high-quality results.
10. People count on this individual to consistently produce the highest quality performance.
11. This individual has the reputation of producing the highest quality performance.
12. If people want things done right, they ask this individual to do it.

#### *Autonomy*

1. I have a significant amount of autonomy in determining how I do my job.\*
2. I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work.
3. I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job.
4. My job allows me many opportunities to use my own initiative and judgment.

#### *Expertise*

1. My co-worker is an expert at his/her job.
2. My co-worker gives me good technical suggestions.
3. My co-worker shares with me his/her considerable experience and/or training.\*
4. My co-worker provides me with sound job-related advice.
5. My co-worker provides me with needed technical knowledge.

#### *Power*

1. My co-worker makes me feel valued.
2. My co-worker makes me feel like he/she approves of me.\*
3. My co-worker makes me feel personally accepted.
4. My co-worker makes me feel important.

#### *Political skill*

1. I spend a lot of time and effort at work networking with others.\*
2. I am able to make most people feel comfortable and at ease around me.



3. I am able to communicate easily and effectively with others.
4. It is easy for me to develop good rapport with most people.
5. I understand people very well.
6. I am good at building relationships with influential people at work.
7. I am particularly good at sensing the motivations and hidden agendas of others.
8. When communicating with others, I try to be genuine in what I say and do.\*
9. 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.\*
10. At work, I know a lot of important people and am well connected.
11. I spend a lot of time at work developing connections with others.
12. I am good at getting people to like me.
13. It is important that people believe I am sincere in what I say and do.\*
14. I try to show a genuine interest in other people.\*
15. I am good at using my connections and network to make things happen at work.
16. I have good intuition or 'savvy' about how to present myself to others.
17. I always seem to instinctively know the right things to say or do to influence others.
18. I pay close attention to peoples' facial expressions.\*

\*Denotes dropped items.