

NOTE

PERCEIVED BENEFICIARY OF EMPLOYEE DEVELOPMENT ACTIVITY: A THREE- DIMENSIONAL SOCIAL EXCHANGE MODEL

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We present a model of employee decision making and behavior in which employees may sometimes decide to pursue learning and development activities, depending on personal values, leader-member exchange, perceived organizational support, self-efficacy for development, and credibility of information source. Within a three-dimensional "perceived beneficiary" system, employees may perceive these activities to benefit not only themselves but also (or alternatively) a supervisor and/or the organization. We show connections involving prosocial organizational behavior and organizational citizenship behavior and offer five propositions.

The act of taking personal responsibility for their own development and continuous learning has become a key part of employees' continuing career success (cf. Hall & Mirvis, 1995), and it is also crucial for organizational effectiveness (cf. Senge, 1990). One of the most important resources organizations have for adapting to competitive and turbulent markets is employees who readily acquire new knowledge and skills (Davenport & Prusak, 1997). When it comes to employee development, many organizations use a personal responsibility strategy, meaning that employees are personally responsible for their own learning and development (American Productivity and Quality Center, 1996). Further, in the midst of rampant reorganization, globalization, mergers, downsizing, and rapid change, managers and organizations are being called upon to accomplish more and more with the same or a diminished number of employees. Therefore, it is increasingly important to understand decision making by employees regarding their own learning and development within complex organizational contexts.

Employees may face a variety of options for development activities that could lead to skill development. Many powerful developmental experiences involve unusual tasks or assignments (cf. McCauley & Brutus, 1998) that may go beyond employees' "usual job responsibilities." In many cases, employees may not perceive themselves to be direct beneficiaries of such activity or, if they do, not the sole beneficiaries. A supervisor or the organization may benefit greatly from an employee's undertaking tasks that lead to learning—that are "above and beyond" and that help to solve a problem or achieve some outcome that cannot be addressed using traditional organizational resources and personnel time. So which types of activities will an employee be motivated to pursue and why?

In this article we develop a model of the employee decision-making process. The model describes the decision process from the point of view of the actor/employee. We emphasize the concept of "perceived beneficiary" of engaging in a development activity or behavior, and we develop a three-dimensional scaling system that features the employee (person), the supervisor, and the organization as beneficiaries perceived (by the employee) to benefit to varying degrees from each behavioral option. It is our

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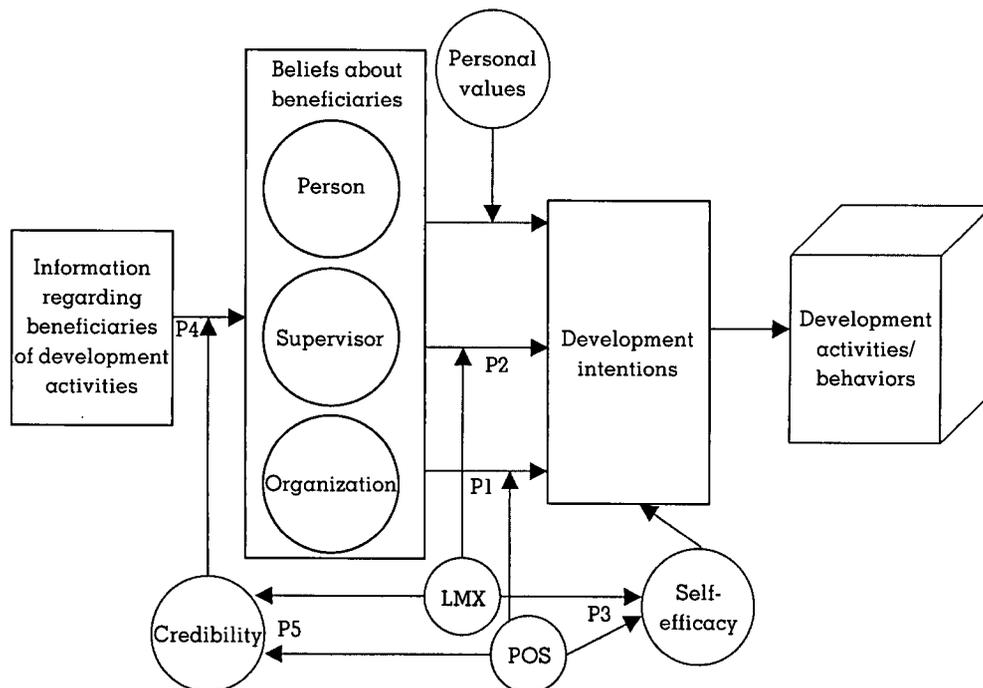
contention that development behaviors take place in the context of employee perceptions of existing exchange relationships with the supervisor and the organization. Employees consider whether developmental activities that go beyond work requirements are appropriate responses in light of these exchange relationships. That is, employees consider whether the supervisor, organization, and/or the individual employee will benefit from particular developmental activities and whether the activities seem appropriate given the nature of the relationships. Thus, in our model we use social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) to describe how leader-member exchange (LMX) and perceived organizational support (POS) serve as the backdrops for employee development activity. Additionally, we outline the role self-efficacy and personal values play in this process, and we describe the key role of credibility of the source of development-related information about benefits. Within the model, we offer five propositions (see Figure 1).

Three points should be noted regarding this model. First, we distinguish between perceptions of self-benefit and perceptions of benefit to a supervisor and the organization. This is based

mostly on a Western, individualistic culture in which such distinctions between the self and others are often made. Such distinctions are more blurred in collectivistic cultures (cf. Kim, Triandis, Kagitcibasi, Choi, & Yoon, 1994). Second, we base the conceptualization underlying major portions of this model on an expectancy-valence-type model (Vroom, 1964), as will be apparent when we explain specific components of the model below. Third, we assume that "learning or development experiences" involve mastering tasks or information the person has not previously mastered and, therefore, represent a true opportunity for growth. For example, novel tasks, such as a special job assignment or taking on a new responsibility in which one is not simply applying skills or knowledge in the same way as in a prior assignment, might constitute such an experience. A key point here is that there must be development or learning of new skills or new levels of existing skills. Those activities that produce no learning or development are not addressed in this model.

Most learning/development comes about through job-related experiences that are challenging or difficult (McCall, Lombardo, & Morrison, 1988; McCauley, 1986). Thus, activities like

FIGURE 1
Model of Development Behavior with Numbered Propositions Described in Text



serving on a task force or taking on a novel job assignment will likely produce some development if they have never been done before or if they address an issue that has a level of complexity and difficulty significantly beyond what the employee has previously mastered.

DEFINING A KEY MODEL COMPONENT: PERCEIVED BENEFICIARY OF DEVELOPMENT ACTIVITIES

In prior literature researchers have tied motivation for participation in training and development activity to beliefs regarding the outcomes of participation (cf. Fishbein & Stasson, 1990; McEnrue, 1989; Noe & Wilk, 1993). First, Maurer and Tarulli (1994) discussed the idea that a variety of *personal* benefits (extrinsic, intrinsic, psychosocial) can come from development activity. Second, Maurer and Palmer (1999) expanded the range of beneficiaries in empirical research on employee development by including co-worker outcomes as a potential benefit of personal development. In this study the researchers recognized that recipients *other* than the employee engaging in the behaviors may benefit from that activity and that the employee's knowledge of that fact may serve as a motivator of his or her development. Third, Katz (1964) identified self-development as one of three behavioral patterns thought to be necessary for effective organizational functioning. Therefore, *organizations* are the third possible beneficiaries of development by employees. Of course, such perceived benefits by all three entities could be believed to occur immediately or in a delayed fashion; the key defining feature here is that the employee perceives these activities to be beneficial at some level, whether immediate or delayed. Table 1 illustrates some examples of employee development activities that are perceived to be beneficial in various ways to the employee and/or a supervisor and/or the organization.

While the belief that one will personally benefit is expected to be a consistent and primary motivator of development activity, the perception that the organization or a supervisor will benefit may also serve as an additional or alternate motivator. This means that perceptions of organization and/or supervisor benefit can contribute, along with perceptions of personal benefit, to overall motivation. Or, in the absence of

personal outcomes, these perceptions may sometimes serve in place of personal benefits as the motivator. The question then becomes "Under what conditions would employees be more likely to undertake developmental activities that are self-sacrificing and of perceived primary benefit to others?" Potential answers to this question come from an analysis of the overlap of development activity with the domain of prosocial organizational behavior (PSOB).

THE NATURE OF DEVELOPMENT ACTIVITIES AND THEIR CONNECTIONS TO PSOB

Generally speaking, PSOB (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986) is behavior directed toward an individual, group, or organization, with the intent of promoting the welfare of the individual, group, or organization. Thus, PSOBs can be intended to benefit an individual (such as a supervisor) or the organization. In fact, according to Organ (1988), some PSOBs intended to help an individual might actually hurt the organization.

One type of PSOB is organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). The OCB concept was introduced by Organ (1977), who defines OCBs as "individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and in the aggregate promotes the efficient and effective functioning of the organization" (Organ, 1988: 4). Organ (1997) refers to individual- versus organizational-level OCB concepts based on work by Williams and Anderson (1991); these researchers refer to OCBI (individually directed) and OCBO (organizationally directed).

In the current framework we also define behaviors along these two continua: beneficial to the organization and beneficial to the supervisor (an individual). Note that behavior that is intended to help either a supervisor or the organization can be categorized as PSOB, whereas to be considered an OCB, a behavior directed at a supervisor must also ultimately benefit the organization. Given the less restrictive definition of PSOB, it is a more inclusive category of behavior and, thus, includes OCB as a subset, as stated above (Van Dyne, Cummings, & McLean Parks, 1995).

Employee development activities can take many forms, including assessment and feedback, training programs or courses, relationships, and work experiences (Noe, Wilk, Mullen,

TABLE 1
Examples of Development Activities and Perceived Beneficiaries^a

Activity	Beneficiary
Participating in non-job-related courses and career planning	Employee is likely to perceive himself/herself as the immediate and primary beneficiary who gets the most direct rewards from this activity; may perceive some secondary or delayed benefits for the organization or a supervisor
Participating in job-related courses or programs to enhance job performance	Employee, supervisor, and organization are perceived to be cobeneficiaries
Volunteering for a challenging and interesting community project unrelated to job or organizationally valued competencies	Employee is sole beneficiary
Moving into an undesired but challenging and important role under a current supervisor—for example, a nonquantitative professor's agreeing to teach a statistics course rather than one more consistent with his/her career goals; will likely lead to his/her being called upon to teach statistics in the future, rather than a topic of his/her preference	Supervisor and organization are perceived to be cobeneficiaries; employee does not perceive this experience nor the development that comes from it as being personally beneficial
Serving on a task force addressing a challenging/difficult issue in which the employee will be absent from the department for a time, costing the supervisor in terms of department productivity	Organization is beneficiary; possibly, the employee is as well, if this is a desired assignment likely to lead to development of desired skills
Employee who intends to leave the organization develops a nonportable skill/knowledge specific to the current organization in order to help a current supervisor and/or the organization; the skill/knowledge will not be useful in the new job/organization	Organization and/or supervisor is beneficiary

^a These are illustrative examples. The nature of the tasks to be performed relative to the situation, including messages from the organization or supervisor, along with the employee's beliefs and experiences, will determine the extent to which each entity is actually perceived by the employee to be a beneficiary. High-benefit development activities are those that benefit all three entities (employee, supervisor, and organization).

& Wanek, 1997). Some of the most extensive employee development occurs through various types of work experiences, such as job enlargement; job rotation; transfers; promotions; downward moves; employee exchanges; special assignments; participation in task forces, projects, or special committees; and other events in which something is learned or skills are developed (McCall et al., 1988; McCauley, 1986). Many of these kinds of activities may not formally be part of an employee's actual job. Thus, developmental experiences can come in a variety of forms, many of which overlap with activities that occur in connection with performing work.

Prior researchers have recognized that some types of behavior that are developmental might be categorized as PSOBs (cf. Borman & Motowidlo, 1997; George & Brief, 1992; McEnrue, 1989)—for example, volunteering for committees

(Brief & Motowidlo, 1986), as well as taking on extra responsibility and continuing one's education (Scholl, Cooper, & McKenna, 1987; Van Dyne, Graham, & Dienesch, 1994). According to McEnrue, "The process of self-development requires employees to sacrifice their own time, energy and other resources both on and off the job. It, therefore, represents a form of prosocial behavior" (1989: 58). Thus, development activity and PSOB can overlap. However, they can also be distinguished. As pointed out elsewhere (cf. Maurer, 2001), there must be development or learning of new skills or new levels of existing skills for an activity to be considered developmental. If the "development activity" involves only application of existing knowledge or skills, then it is not really development; rather, it is performance. Thus, PSOB can be developmental or not. If it involves learning/development, it is a

development activity. Conversely, in the current framework, development activity can be PSOB or not.

In this model we highlight this intersection between the employee development activity domain and the PSOB domain, and we do so from the point of view of the actor. As used here, OCB and PSOB are defined from the point of view of the actor and his/her intended beneficiary. By noting whether the person was acting to benefit the organization or another person and not the self, categorization of the act incorporates the motive of the actor. If a development activity is undertaken to benefit the organization, or if the activity is undertaken to benefit both a supervisor and the organization, it is an OCB. (Given the definition of OCBs as promoting the effective functioning of an organization, a behavior must be undertaken to benefit the organization either directly or along with benefiting the supervisor to be considered an OCB.) If the activity is undertaken to help either a supervisor or the organization, it falls in the more inclusive category of PSOB. Likewise, if the activity is undertaken to benefit the supervisor but not the organization, this is also a PSOB, because there is no requirement that PSOBs help the organization. If the activity is undertaken to benefit the self only, it is neither an OCB nor a PSOB.

What perceived benefits might there be for a supervisor or an organization to induce an employee to engage in development activity? There are two general categories of benefit for either beneficiary (organization, supervisor). First, valuable development activity often exists in connection with performing some type of work. To the extent that it involves getting some type of task done that otherwise might not should the employee stick to his or her mandated job requirements, the development activity may contribute to the effectiveness of the supervisor and/or organization.

A second benefit for a supervisor and/or an organization that could result from an employee's engaging in a development activity comes from developing a skill or capability. By developing talent or competence in a specific area of skill or knowledge, the employee might benefit either a supervisor or the organization. For example, by learning how to help out with a specific responsibility that is normally done only by a supervisor, the employee may perceive that he or she is benefiting the supervisor. If this learn-

ing is done in addition to the employee's current job duties and competes with them, it might actually detract from his or her mandated job performance. Yet although the employee might perceive this as a cost to the organization, he or she might perceive the favor for the supervisor as being a worthwhile motivator. Another example is when an employee engages in an activity to develop skills that are valuable to the organization, but possibly not to a supervisor. If a high-performing employee who works for a supervisor develops skills that will likely facilitate his or her transfer to a new function in the organization, this will result in the high-performing employee's transfer out of the supervisor's workgroup, resulting in the supervisor's loss of a good worker. This would make the supervisor less effective and would result in the supervisor's incurring costs associated with hiring and training a replacement. Thus, the employee may perceive this as an overall contribution to the organization's effectiveness, but of no real benefit to the supervisor.

The literature suggests that a model of employee behavior should include perceived benefits of actions to both supervisors and organizations. Wayne, Shore, and Liden's (1997) research shows that employees' exchanges with leaders and with the organization have distinct antecedents and consequences. They conclude that researchers need to incorporate *both* types of exchanges in predictive models of employee behaviors. Settoon, Bennett, and Liden (1996) similarly show that employees' exchange relationships with organizations and with supervisors are differentially related to employee behaviors. They state that it has been well accepted that employees engage in multiple exchange relationships and derive different benefits from each (Gergen, Greenberg, & Willis, 1980). The "coalitional" nature of organizations leads to multidimensional commitments (Becker, 1992; Reichers, 1986). McNeely and Meglino (1994) indicate that separate factors are responsible for PSOBs intended to benefit specific individuals and an organization. They suggest that when helping is intended to benefit an individual, the benefit that may exist for an organization is an unintended consequence. Along these lines, Wayne and Liden (1995) illustrate how doing favors for a supervisor is one important aspect of impression management. When doing things to benefit the supervisor,

although the employee's direct concern is benefiting the supervisor, there may be secondary or unintended benefits to the organization.

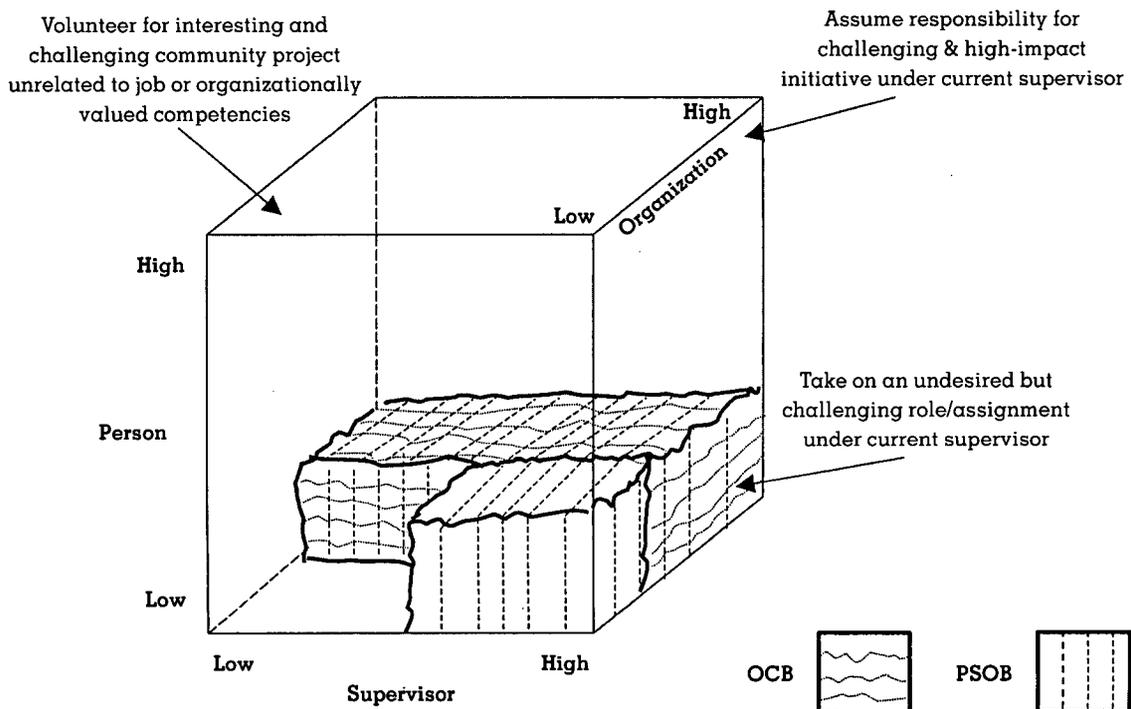
In this model we emphasize the concept of perceived beneficiary, which is based on the perceptions of the actor. Any development activity can be scaled according to the degree to which three entities (self and/or supervisor and/or organization) are perceived to benefit. That is, although there may be numerous activities that actually benefit multiple parties in reality, either immediately or over time, the perceptions of the employee are the constructs that are most proximal to the employee's own development behavior (McEnrue, 1989). So, if the employee wants to benefit a supervisor and perceives a specific activity as doing only or primarily that, even if the activity really also benefits someone else (or the organization), it is the perception of supervisor benefit that will be most relevant to the employee's decisions and behavior.

In Figure 2 we arrange the three perceived beneficiaries in a three-dimensional fashion, thus creating a cube. Each development activity

or behavior can be scaled according to the degree to which it is perceived to benefit each potential beneficiary (several examples are given). The three-dimensional cube illustrates a simulated, rough surface area that signifies a point below which behaviors are not perceived to be beneficial to the person. This can be regarded as a threshold for attractiveness of benefit to the person. Above this threshold, behaviors are seen as at least minimally worthwhile to the person; below it, they are not seen as beneficial. In our model those behaviors perceived to benefit the organization in some way but are low in personal benefit are OCBs and PSOBs. Additionally, those behaviors perceived to benefit a supervisor in some way but are low in personal and organizational benefit are PSOBs. This is an alternate or additional way of conceptualizing OCBs and PSOBs.

Van Dyne et al. (1995) recommend that in future research on extrarole behavior, which includes both PSOB and OCB, scholars should focus on specific dimensions or aspects rather than simply on a more global construct. Our discussion focuses on that aspect of PSOB that

FIGURE 2
Three Dimensions of Perceived Beneficiary of Development Behaviors and Subthreshold Region of Personal Benefit (OCB and PSOB)



can be considered developmental to the individual. Following the rationale provided by Settoon et al., (1996), we propose that voluntary employee development is an "acceptable commodity for exchange." Development behaviors, like PSOBs, are reasonable ways for employees to reciprocate in a social exchange relationship. It is our contention that this is particularly the case when the employee views developmental activity as beneficial to the supervisor and/or the organization.

SOCIAL EXCHANGE AND PSOB/EMPLOYEE DEVELOPMENT

The exchange between an organization and an employee is the focus in POS (perceived organizational support), defined as a global belief concerning the extent to which an organization values employee contributions and cares about their well-being (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson, & Sowa, 1986). The exchange between an employee and a supervisor is the focus in theories of LMX (leader-member exchange; Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975). A favorable leadership relationship is characterized by high levels of trust, interaction, support, and formal/informal rewards (Dienesch & Liden, 1986). In the social exchange process the employee is motivated to benefit the other party through both a feeling of mutual obligation and trust that the other party will come through in some way (cf. Blau, 1964).

Thus, employees should be motivated to benefit their organizations to the extent that they perceive mutual organization support, and they should be motivated to benefit their supervisor to the extent that they perceive mutual supervisor support. Variables relevant to both POS and LMX have been found to be related to PSOB, including OCB as a specific type of PSOB (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Settoon et al., 1996; Shore & Wayne, 1993; VanYperen, van den Berg, & Willering, 1999; Wayne & Green, 1993). Organ (1990) proposed that social exchange theory was the best theoretical explanation for OCB, and researchers have linked POS and LMX, measures of exchange relationships, to OCB (cf. Wayne et al., 1997). Further, because OCB is included as part of PSOB by definition, this research also ties PSOB to exchange processes. Thus, support has been found for the social exchange explanation of PSOB.

As discussed above, employee participation in development activities can be likened to PSOB. Because of the similarities between development and PSOB, it would be logical to propose social exchange theory as a possible explanation for some development behavior. Of course, we acknowledge that development activity can be (and often is) undertaken solely for the benefit of the individual. The argument we make here is that, in certain cases, development may be a way for an employee to reciprocate the benefits bestowed by the organization or supervisor. As in the PSOB literature, the exchange relationships of interest are those between the employee and the organization (POS) and between the employee and the supervisor (LMX). Learning more about the job, participating in committees where something will be learned, obtaining new skills, and so forth are ways in which an employee can benefit the organization or supervisor in an exchange relationship.

Relationships Between Perceived Beneficiaries and Intentions to Engage in Development Activities

Maurer and Tarulli (1994) studied perceived intrinsic, extrinsic, and psychosocial outcomes for individual employees participating in development activities. These researchers found that not only do employees have differing perceptions about whether they will receive these outcomes as a result of engaging in self-development but they also vary in how much they value each of these types of outcomes. The study indicated that these values can make a difference in (i.e., can moderate) the relationships the perceived outcomes have with intentions or behavior. Note that this idea is rooted in expectancy valence theory (Vroom, 1964): to the extent the person believes that the development activity will lead to certain valued outcomes, he or she more likely will be motivated to pursue it. This approach to understanding how to motivate employees to develop themselves allows for individual differences in values and acknowledges diversity in the concerns individuals may have in relation to development (Maurer & Tarulli, 1994). To effectively motivate all employees to develop, one needs to fully understand the perceived benefits for development and the value placed on those benefits by employees. Consistent with this research, we expect that perceived

benefits to the employee will be positively related to the employee's intentions to engage in the activity; however, the degree to which he or she values those benefits will make a difference in this relationship (see Figure 1).

Yet beyond this prior research focusing on personal benefit, we also hypothesize that development will be used as a means of reciprocation if the employee perceives the activity as beneficial to the organization or supervisor. In our model POS and LMX should interact separately with perceived benefit to the organization and to the supervisor to explain intentions to engage in development activity. When POS or LMX is high, employees may be motivated to engage in developmental activities that are beneficial to the organization and/or supervisor. However, when POS or LMX is low, employees are less likely to be motivated by benefits to the organization or supervisor. This idea also can be tied, to some extent, to expectancy valence theory (Vroom, 1964). When POS and/or LMX are high, benefits for those entities should be perceived as more valuable and, thus, lead, to a greater extent, to motivational intentions.

Proposition 1: The effect of perceived benefit to the organization on intentions to pursue development activity will be moderated by POS. The relationship will be stronger when POS is high.

Proposition 2: The effect of perceived benefit to the supervisor on intentions to pursue development activity will be moderated by LMX. The relationship will be stronger when LMX is high.

Development Intentions, Self-Efficacy, POS, and LMX

One of the best predictors of a behavior should be the intention to perform the behavior (Ajzen, 1991). Thus, in our model we expect that intentions to engage in the development activity will be positively related to participation. Self-efficacy should also relate to intentions. The higher one's self-efficacy for performing a behavior, the more one should intend to do it (Gist, 1987; Gist & Mitchell, 1992; Sadri & Robertson, 1993).

Two key variables in the current model—POS and LMX—should enhance self-efficacy for de-

velopment. The rationale for this comes from self-efficacy research and theory (Bandura, 1997), as well as from the literature on POS and LMX. In general, if an employee has a good supportive relationship with his or her supervisor, feels supported by the organization, and receives developmental resources from a supervisor and the organization, the employee should feel more confident about successfully carrying out development activities (Maurer, 2001). In expectancy-valence theory, the key idea would be that LMX and POS would contribute to the expectation that one could successfully perform the activity of interest.

Wayne et al. (1997) found development-related variables to be associated with POS and LMX. The history of rewards experienced by an employee will contribute to POS, and these rewards can come from human resources practices and decisions. These researchers identify the provision of developmental experiences—providing the employee with formal and informal training and development opportunities—as one way in which the organization can show support.

One key aspect of LMX addressed by Wayne et al. (1997) is leader expectations for the subordinate. Having high expectations is expected not only to have an impact on the quality of the relationship between supervisor and subordinate but also to affect the types of tasks the supervisor assigns the subordinate. If the supervisor has high expectations, the subordinate may be given more challenging tasks, feedback, and training. Similar to POS, LMX may lead to the assignment of developmental tasks to the employee.

If an employee is frequently involved in challenging task assignments that require learning new skills or knowledge, these discrete learning experiences—if successfully completed—are essentially "learning mastery experiences" (Maurer, 2001). These mastery experiences should enhance self-efficacy for learning (Gist & Mitchell, 1992). Likewise, if the organization supports learning experiences to a great extent, the person is more likely to observe others successfully engaging in development. This acts as a source of vicarious experience to enhance self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997). Also, Maurer and Tarulli (1996) found that social support for development at work (support by coworkers and supervisors) was related to employees' beliefs that they were

capable of improving and developing their skills. Further, several researchers (cf. Dubin, 1990; Kozlowski & Farr, 1988; Kozlowski & Hults, 1987; London, 1991; Maurer & Tarulli, 1994) have noted the relevance of policies and/or a development orientation by the organization in general to development by employees. In one study the researchers found that the perceived availability of development resources to employees across several geographic locations in a large company was positively related to their self-efficacy for development (Maurer, Mitchell, & Barbeite, 2002). Supervisors and an organization that support employees and their development will enhance employees' beliefs that they can successfully develop.

Proposition 3: LMX and POS will contribute positively to self-efficacy for successful participation in development activities.

Influence of Credibility in Shaping Beliefs About Beneficiaries

As discussed previously in this paper, employees may face a large variety of options for developing and enhancing skills at work, each of which may be perceived to benefit the employee, a supervisor, and/or the organization. These perceptions of benefit are susceptible to shaping, as is any socially or cognitively constructed reality. In expectancy-valence theory (Vroom, 1964), the perception of primary interest here is that performance of an activity/behavior will lead to some beneficial outcome. Of course, the self can serve as an obvious source of this information (prior experiences, beliefs, and so on). However, what is perhaps less obvious is the fact that the employee may receive various messages about the benefits and positive outcomes of engaging in various types of developmental or learning activities, and these messages may affect perceptions of those activities. These perceptions, in turn, can have an impact on subsequent motivation. The current model is designed to enhance understanding of the key influence of supervisors and the organization as sources of information in the decision-making process, because there may be wide variability in the degree to which these alternative information sources are believed or trusted as sources of this information.

One construct that should greatly influence whether the employee believes and accepts information provided to him or her from the organization or other individuals is credibility. In Giffin's (1967) review of the source credibility literature, the researcher identifies five aspects of credibility, which he labels *expertise*, *reliability*, *intentions toward the listener*, *dynamism* (boldness and energy), and *personal attraction*. A source that possesses these characteristics will be perceived as more credible. There is considerable support for the notion that source credibility is an important attribute when it comes to information-recipient responses (cf. Ilgen, Fisher, & Taylor, 1979). Information is perceived to be more accurate when coming from a source with high credibility. As the individual receives information from different sources regarding the benefits of participation in various types of activities (e.g., "this will really be helpful to you"), this information will have more impact on the person's actual beliefs if the source is credible.

Proposition 4: Perceived credibility of the source (organization, supervisor) will moderate the effect that development activity information has on beliefs about beneficiaries of development activities. The information will have greater impact when credibility is high.

Influence of LMX and POS on Credibility

Analysis of the basis for leader and organization credibility reveals close correspondence between dimensions underlying credibility and key aspects of LMX and POS. With respect to LMX, Dienesch and Liden (1986) identify three dimensions upon which the LMX relationship develops: (1) perceived contribution to the exchange (e.g., amount, direction quality), (2) loyalty to the other through expression of public support, and (3) affection or mutual attraction. Overall, there is a high level of trust and support.

Dansereau et al. (1975) assert that leadership involves open and honest communication and support. Clearly, there is conceptual overlap between these dimensions and those of credibility (expertise, reliability, intentions toward the listener, dynamism, and personal attraction). Per-

ceived contribution to the exchange in the form of high capability, knowledge, and effort will influence the leader's perceived expertness, and treatment of the employee in the past, including accurate, honest communication, will influence the leader's perceived reliability. Expressed loyalty, trust, and support of the person by the leader will also affect the leader's perceived intentions toward the person. The affect between the individuals will influence the personal attraction dimension of credibility.

Along these lines, Posner and Kouzes (1988) found that three key dimensions of credibility (trustworthiness, expertise, and dynamism) all significantly correlated with five behavioral practices of leaders. In general, it makes intuitive sense that if an employee has a constructive, trusting, and positive relationship with a supervisor, he or she will be more likely to perceive that person as being more credible.

Likewise, there seems to be a correspondence between credibility and POS. To the extent that the organization is perceived to value and care about the well-being of the employee and to the extent it provides praise and approval, the perceived intentions of the organization toward the employee should be influenced in a positive way. Likewise, to the extent that the organization is perceived to put value on development activity, support it, and invest in it through supportive policies and a learning culture (Maurer & Tarulli, 1994), the organization should be perceived to have more expertness with respect to this area of behavior. Also, if the organization is perceived to have treated the employee fairly and to have provided accurate communications in the past, the organization's perceived reliability will also be enhanced. These things enhance trust in the organization.

Along these lines, O'Reilly and Roberts (1976) found that perceived information accuracy, communication openness, and high interaction rates are all related to the perceived credibility of the information milieu in organizational units. It makes intuitive sense also that if an employee believes that the organization values his or her contributions and cares about his or her well-being (the definition of POS), the employee should also perceive the organization as a more credible source of information.

Proposition 5: LMX and POS will positively influence perceived credibility

of the supervisor and the organization as sources of information.

INCREMENTAL VALUE OF THE MODEL AND PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

The model we propose here offers incremental value to the literature on employee development and PSOB for several reasons. One important contribution of this paper is that it fleshes out in greater detail than any previous work, where the overlap of development activity has been addressed in a limited way, the theoretical intersection of PSOB and development activity. Also, we present a novel way of conceptualizing PSOB and OCB here using the concept of perceived beneficiary. This represents an alternate way to think about OCBs and PSOBs from the point of view of the actor.

There are also potential practical benefits of the current model. When building a learning culture in an organization, it is desirable to have employees motivated to engage in all types of high-impact and maximally beneficial learning activities. Organizations and managers need to understand the various potential benefits of different types of development and learning activities and how these are perceived by employees. They also need to ensure that this information is understood and perceived by employees. However, consistent with expectancy-valence theory, what will most motivate various individuals will depend on what they truly value, and this may differ among individuals and across various demographic (e.g., race, age, and so on) groups (Maurer & Tarulli, 1994). To know what personal benefits to address, one must first understand exactly what will be most valued by different individuals or groups. This is a basic tenet of managing diversity.

This also implies that organizations able to elicit development behavior that will maximally help the organization achieve its goals will be those organizations that provide high support for employees and that foster good relationships between managers and their subordinates. If LMX and/or POS is weak, then only personal benefits are likely to motivate development behavior, and this may limit the types of activities in which employees will engage. Ideally, employees will be motivated to pursue activities that will benefit the organization in addition to themselves.

Another contribution of this model is that it highlights the process by which organizations can encourage employees to undertake personal development they otherwise might not opt to do if left only to their own personal interests. Not every employee will view all situations that have potential to produce skill development as being personally beneficial in light of their own career plans. In the context of rapid change in organizations, combined with tight labor markets, organizations need to be able to get existing human resources to develop needed talent and to get work done that needs to be done. If employees pursue development that they perceive to benefit only themselves, this may limit the total range of development activities pursued. The current model describes how employees may pursue development that is perceived to benefit, either in addition to or in place of themselves, a supervisor or the organization as part of a social exchange process. To the extent that decision making by employees is an important precursor to behavior in this domain, analyses of the decision-making process and the contexts in which it occurs are also increasingly important. Therefore, researchers should continue to explore these processes and phenomena. This paper provides ideas to help guide that research.

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