

When Territoriality Meets Agency: An Examination of Employee Guarding as a Territorial Strategy

Timothy M. Gardner

Utah State University

Timothy P. Munyon

University of Tennessee

Peter W. Hom

Arizona State University

Rodger W. Griffeth

Ohio University

Do managers behave territorially toward their employees? Despite accumulating evidence demonstrating the prevalence of territoriality over nonagentic organizational resources, key questions remain regarding the extent to which psychological ownership and territorial behavior occur within supervisor-subordinate relationships. To explore this question, we drew on territoriality and mate-guarding theory to ascertain how and why managers might utilize one form of territoriality, anticipatory defenses, toward their employees. In a four-study investigation, we find that managers consistently engage in two forms of anticipatory defense tactics, persuasion and nurturing, that are intended to defend ownership claims over their employees and limit employee defection. Our results demonstrate a positive relationship between psychological ownership of subordinates and employee guarding directed toward those subordinates. We also find that managers engage in employee guarding more when they anticipate an employee is likely to defect, and they adapt guarding tactics in response to the subordinate's general mental ability. Collectively, our results identify the motivations and conditions under which supervisors act territorially toward agentic subordinates, contributing to theory in territoriality and downward social influence.

Acknowledgments: This article was accepted under the editorship of Patrick M. Wright. The authors would like to thank Carl P. Maertz Jr., Debra L. Shapiro, and Charlie Trevor for helpful feedback on early drafts of this manuscript.

Supplemental material for this article is available with the manuscript on the JOM website.

Corresponding author: Timothy M. Gardner, Utah State University, 3555 Old Main Hill, Logan, UT 84322, USA.

E-mail: tim.gardner@usu.edu

Keywords: *employee guarding; territoriality; psychological ownership; downward influence tactics; supervisor-subordinate relationship; turnover; defection*

Human beings are territorial by nature. Across contexts and cultures, people universally feel ownership toward tangible resources, such as physical space and possessions, as well as intangible resources, such as ideas and information. Feelings of ownership translate into territorial behaviors designed to *establish, communicate, maintain, and restore* claims of ownership (Brown, Crossley, & Robinson, 2014; Brown, Lawrence, & Robinson, 2005). The ubiquitous human tendency to establish and protect ownership claims extends to work settings (Brown et al., 2014), and the past two decades have witnessed an explosive growth in research examining the influences of psychological ownership and territoriality in organizations (e.g., Brown & Robinson, 2007; Pierce, Kostova, & Dirks, 2001, 2003).

Psychological ownership is a mental state in which individuals feel as though a particular target is “theirs.” The essence underlying felt ownership is proprietary attachment: feeling the right to control the permissible use of a specific target and taking action to prevent impermissible use by others (Brown et al., 2005; Ellis, 1985; Furby, 1978; Pierce et al., 2001; Snare, 1972). For example, employees feeling ownership toward a work role express higher job satisfaction and commitment, while engaging in more organizational citizenship and stewardship (Pierce et al., 2003; Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004). Recent research further established that psychological ownership increases individuals’ readiness to take credit for work outcomes (Graham & Cooper, 2013) and adopt others’ suggestions for organizational change (Baer & Brown, 2012). Besides these responses, psychological ownership is more directly expressed as territorial behaviors intended to establish and defend exclusive usage of organizational resources (Altman, 1970; Brown et al., 2005). In support, studies have linked psychological ownership to territorial behavior (Brown et al., 2014), mapped how infringement and anger incite territorial acts (Brown & Robinson, 2011), documented how trust hinders territorial behavior (Brown et al., 2014), and demonstrated how territorial behavior reduces knowledge sharing (Webster, Brown, Zweig, Connelly, Brodt, & Sitkin, 2008).

With few exceptions (i.e., Brown et al., 2014), nearly all empirical work on psychological ownership has focused on individuals’ feelings toward a job or organization (Mayhew, Ashkanasy, Bramble, & Gardner, 2007; Wagner, Parker, & Christiansen, 2003), while the study of territorial behavior has focused on controlling access to and usage of a wide range of tangible (e.g., workspaces, computers) and intangible organizational (e.g., knowledge, ideas, job roles) resources (Brown, 2009; Brown et al., 2014; Brown & Robinson, 2011). Incredibly, scholarly inquiry on psychological ownership and territoriality has yet to be conducted on organizations’ most valuable resource—namely, its employees.

Despite such conspicuous omission, anecdotal and theoretical evidence suggests that individuals feel ownership toward other people and engage in territorial behaviors to establish and defend these claims (e.g., Altman, 1975; Ellis, 1985; Pierce et al., 2001, 2003). For example, in an early treatment of human territoriality, philosopher Leon Litwinski (1947) wrote “The ‘self’ never appears without bringing ‘mine’ in its wake. My men, *my workers* [italics added], my soldiers, we talk of them all as though these beings were ourselves, incorporated in us” (p. 240). Likewise, pioneering works in environmental psychology listed people as “possessions” that are protected with territorial behaviors (Altman, 1975; Ellis, 1985).

Lately, Brown et al. (2005) alluded to “owning” employees when listing *people* among physical space and possessions as an organizational “territory” protected by territorial behaviors. Finally, Brown and Robinson (2011) reported an employee replying, “I have a personal secretary who only works for me” (p. 218), when describing when someone had used or taken something of the employee’s.

In our research, we explore territoriality directed toward employees by focusing on an important facet of territorial behavior: anticipatory defenses and their antecedents. Anticipatory defenses are actions used by individuals to *maintain* ownership of a resource by preventing or thwarting infringements before they succeed, often by creating impassable and durable barriers forestalling others’ access to—or usage of—that resource. For instance, an owner might install a password on a computer to prevent the cleaning crew from using it during the night (Brown et al., 2005). In a multistudy investigation, we examine the anticipatory defense tactics managers use to prevent infringements on their perceived ownership and control of subordinate employees. We seek to demonstrate that antecedents of managers’ anticipatory defense tactics (including psychological ownership and feared infringement) also predict their deployment to enforce proprietary claims on employees. In addition, we establish that the agentic nature of human resources activates territorial actions differently than processes that unfold in the protection of nonhuman tangible and intangible resources. As we are inaugurating new research on heretofore overlooked organizational territoriality toward employees, the driving questions we strive to answer are *do* managers behave territorially toward their agentic subordinates, and *why*?

Two reasons justify our focus on anticipatory defenses as a manifestation of manager territoriality over agentic human resources. First, subordinate retention is a key responsibility for managers for which they are often held accountable and rewarded (e.g., Frank & Taylor, 2004), giving managers a “legitimate” context in which to behave territorially. Due to the pejorative implications associated with claiming ownership over human beings (Rector, 2014), we expect that the tactics managers use to establish, communicate, or restore claims of ownership will manifest when such claims are legitimated by others, including the employing organization. Second, supervisor-subordinate and personal relationships share structural similarities (Ferris, Liden, Munyon, Summers, Basik, & Buckley, 2009; Rousseau, 1989, 2004), enabling us to draw from existing theoretical frameworks used to study related phenomena.

Specifically, “mate guarding” is a behavioral strategy persons use to maintain a romantic partner’s exclusive involvement with them by simultaneously (a) preventing the encroachment of romantic rivals and (b) preventing a mate from defecting to another relationship (Buss, 2002). Originating from felt ownership and proprietary attachment, anticipatory defense tactics used by individuals to guard mates include vigilance, monopolization of time, derogation of competitors, and threats (Buss, 2002; Buss & Shackelford, 1997; Finn, 1988; Low, 2003; Starratt & Shackelford, 2009). Thus, mate guarding provides an appropriate theoretical metaphor to inform our inquiry into how managers “guard” their employees to prevent their loss.

The idea that managers treat certain employees differently is not new but has not been examined with a territoriality lens. Leadership research (e.g., Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995) demonstrates that managers maintain unique relationships with individual subordinates. Mentors also develop feelings of ownership toward their protégés (Pierce

et al., 2001: 303-304). Finally, managers' own effectiveness depends to a great extent on their subordinates' loyalty and performance (Boyatzis, 1982), suggesting that managers may act territorially toward certain employees. To begin to develop a model of manager-subordinate territoriality, we investigate a form of threatened infringement that likely arouses managers' feelings of ownership and anticipatory defenses: anticipated subordinate defection to another employer. Defection to another employer is particularly distressing as both the potentially departing employee and new employer are claiming, taking away, and using the employee's human capital, diminishing managers' felt control and ownership (Brown, 2009).

A study of managers' use of anticipatory defenses to control access to and utilization of employees, which we term *employee guarding*, can contribute to research streams beyond territoriality in organizations. The strategic human capital literature has long recognized that employees' ability to quit can hamper employers' capacity for deriving competitive advantage from human capital (Coff, 1997), noting that loss of key individuals increases the risk of firm dissolution (Phillips, 2002; Wezel, Cattani, & Pennings, 2006), client losses, and lost revenues (Somaya, Williamson, & Lorinkova, 2008). The available (sparse) research, however, scrutinized a limited number of tactics firms and managers use to preclude human capital flight (e.g., litigation threats against poaching firms, noncompete agreements; Agarwal, Ganco, & Ziedonis, 2009; Campbell, Coff, & Kryscynski, 2012; Gardner, 2005). Accordingly, our development and validation of employee guarding tactics provide insight into actual practices firms use to build and sustain competitive advantage from human resources, while extending the territoriality literature to encompass managerial safeguarding of agentic human capital.

Theoretical Foundations

As Brown et al. (2005) highlight, territoriality is a social-behavioral construct intended to serve several purposes. First, territoriality *expresses* ownership and attachment over valued tangible and intangible resources. Second, territoriality *signals* one's relationship with a given resource to potential interlopers within a social system, setting boundaries and limits on their expropriation of that resource (Brown, 2009). When the target of territoriality is a person with associated agency and free will, territoriality serves a third purpose of *influence*. Here, territorial actions are intended to maintain access to and control of a person by discouraging the use of his or her skills or labor outside of the boundaries set by the "owner."

As noted above, empirical work in the organizational sciences has primarily investigated territoriality toward nonagentic resources. However, the mate-guarding literature has extensively examined territoriality within romantic relationships where both partners have agency (e.g., Buss, 2002; Buss & Shackelford, 1997; Finn, 1988; Low, 2003; Starratt & Shackelford, 2009), and its findings yield valuable insight regarding the anticipatory defenses managers may use to claim ownership and attachment toward their agentic human resources. After all, employer-employee relationships have often been compared to romantic partnerships (e.g., Rousseau, 1989, 2004; Rusbult & Farrell, 1983), and work and nonwork relationships share many characteristics in common (Ferris et al., 2009). Besides structural similarities, abandoned partners and managers face similar harmful consequences for failing to retain mates or employees: (a) the loss of a romantic partner to another mate or an employee to another firm, (b) loss of all investments in the partner/employee and relationship, (c) required effort and

costs to find another partner/employee, and (d) the romantic rival or new employer gains the advantages of previous investments in the exiting individual (Aime, Johnson, Ridge, & Hill, 2010; Buss, 2002). Thus, we begin by proposing a theoretical correspondence between the triad of key actors composing employment relationships (i.e., employees, employers, and outside employers/recruiters) and romantic relationships (i.e., individuals, romantic partners, and romantic rivals).

Given similar negative consequences flowing from partner and employee defection and conceptual parallels between preventing agentic individuals from defecting and blunting the lures of outside rivals, we explore the anticipatory defense tactics managers use to guard employees and forestall their defection. Defection occurs when an employee voluntarily ends the employment relationship with one employer and begins employment with another employer without an intervening period of unemployment. This includes voluntarily seeking and finding alternative employment (Steel, 2002) to responding to unsolicited offers to consider new employment (Lee & Mitchell, 1994). It also includes quitting to join direct competitors in the same geographic area to distant competitors in unrelated industries (cf., Martin, 1972).

Although subordinates can be expropriated in the work world in many ways (e.g., managers poaching their peers' direct reports), external defection is arguably the most threatening to managers and therefore likely to be prevented with anticipatory defenses (Brown et al., 2005). First, defection is consequential and often negative to managers and their firms (e.g., disrupting local production, enlarging competing firms' human capital; Jiang, Baker, & Frazier, 2009; Phillips, 2002; Somaya et al., 2008; Wezel et al., 2006). Defection is also widespread, with evidence demonstrating it is the most common form of voluntary turnover (Bjelland, Fallick, Haltiwanger, & McEntarfer, 2008) or pervasive in certain key industries (e.g., high-tech startups, professional services firms; Agarwal et al., 2009; Somaya et al., 2008). Given its adverse impact and prevalence, managers could be expected to anticipate this type of voluntary turnover among their subordinates and take defensive actions to avert their defection to other employers.

Employee defection also shares structural similarities with the expropriation of romantic partners in the mate-guarding literature. Specifically, both employee guarding and mate guarding involve a partner seeking a new relationship with alternative partners who seek to profit from that defector's human resources. The loss of employees to defection may arise from external interlopers or employees themselves. Specifically, some employees are actively poached by outside recruiters via unsolicited and unexpected employment offers that must be negotiated by the target employee (Sullivan, 2005). However, employees also actively seek more desirable employment relationships, initiating contact with potential interlopers who are aware of the applicant's employment status (Barber, 1998). Thus, anticipatory defensive tactics designed to guard employees may be directed at both current employees and potential interlopers.

In the next section, we draw on the mate-guarding literature (i.e., Buss, 1988) to explore anticipatory defenses for guarding employees. Beyond identifying employee-guarding tactics, Study 1 evaluates the internal consistency and test-retest reliability of measures assessing these tactics. While we generally follow Hinkin (1995) for scale development and validation, this study is better understood as an exploratory effort to identify anticipatory defense tactics used by managers to limit employee defection (cf., Kipnis, Schmidt, & Wilkinson, 1980). In Study 2, we explore the influence of psychological ownership as an

antecedent to employee guarding, including a test of competing rival explanations. In Study 3, we explore relational, employee, and managerial antecedents to employee guarding.

Study 1

Procedure and Participants

Study participants were panelists of eLab, a nonprofit, university-affiliated survey service. At the time of our study, eLab maintained a panel of nearly 5,000 survey volunteers. A total of 1,425 individuals responded to our initial survey request. However, we designed several screening questions intended to ensure that respondents were employed managers supervising direct-report subordinates. Respondents were required to (a) be employed for pay outside the home for 12 or more consecutive months prior to the survey, (b) supervise at least two full-time equivalents for at least 12 previous months, and (c) have significant authority to hire, fire, promote, and make work assignments for employees they manage. A total of 160 respondents met requirements for survey participation, and 88 individuals completed the survey (55% effective response rate).

Several design features were incorporated to improve confidence in the validity of responses and mitigate potential bias. First, we randomized the order in which respondents received employee-guarding items to reduce potential item-context and systematic response tendency effects (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Second, we included one marker question to mitigate programmed responses (“Please click the Occasionally option”). Respondents who failed to answer this question or answered this question incorrectly were discarded ($n = 12$), resulting in a final usable sample of 76 individuals. Finally we examined the Internet protocol (IP) addresses of the 76 respondents and found no duplication. This suggests no single individuals were submitting multiple questionnaires (Sue & Ritter, 2012).

The final sample was 62% female. The median level of education was a bachelor’s degree. Regarding nationality, 84% of the panel resided in the United States, 7.9% in Canada, 3.9% in the United Kingdom, and 2.6% in Australia, and 1.3% indicated other English-speaking countries. Finally, over the previous 12 months, respondents reported supervising an average of 5.64 full-time-equivalent employees.

Item Generation and Scale Development

We measured usage of employee-guarding tactics using a 74-item scale developed for this study, which is outlined in the online supplemental materials. To reduce the 74 items to a parsimonious scale, each respondent was asked to consider each tactic in response to the following stem: “In the last 12 months, I [*never* (1), *rarely*, *sometimes*, or *often* (4)] used this practice to prevent an employee from quitting their job to join another company.” The entire statement was provided for each of the four response options. We purposefully chose this anchor to measure tactics utilized to prevent defection. If 70% or more respondents indicated they never used a tactic in Time 1 of the pilot study, the item was deleted from further analyses ($M = 38.6\%$, $SD = 20.6\%$). This reduced the subsequent employee guarding scale to 40 items (cf., Buss, 1988). We then readministered the 40-item scale one month later (Time 2) to the same subject pool to calculate within-subject variability. Thirty-six of the 76 respondents (47%)

completed the second survey. Subsequent analyses showed no significant differences between respondents in Time 1 and Time 2 with regard to age, gender, and education.

Study 1 Results

We tested internal consistency and average interitem correlations of the 40-item scale over both survey administrations. The scale exhibited acceptable measurement properties over Time 1 ($n = 76$, $\alpha = .95$, $\bar{r} = .33$) and Time 2 ($n = 36$, $\alpha = .95$, $\bar{r} = .33$) according to acknowledged heuristics (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Within-subjects test-retest reliability ($r = .76$, $n = 36$) was also acceptable.

Study 1 Discussion

Study 1 had several goals. First, to provide evidence of content validity of the measure, we incorporated a deductive theoretical approach and multiple subject matter experts to independently construct a list of anticipatory defense tactics potentially used in employee guarding. After distilling the list to remove redundant, misworded, or similar items, we then administered the remaining items to a sample of employed managers. Our results suggest that managers report regularly using 40 of these tactics in practice, providing evidence of face validity. The 40-item scale also exhibited acceptable internal consistency and test-retest reliability. Collectively, these results provide initial evidence of construct validity.

The results of Study 1 suggest that managers engage in what we have termed “employee guarding.” For example, managers indicated that they provided encouragement ($M = 3.79$), public praise ($M = 3.51$), and a positive and professional work environment ($M = 3.50$) in an effort to keep subordinates from defecting. It is interesting to note that of the original 74 items derived through deduction, 63 involved tactics attempting to influence the target employee from defecting (see previous examples), and 11 involved tactics communicating ownership claims to a specific outside employer (e.g., “I mentioned to another employer that our company would fight to keep one of my employees”). Of the 40 guarding tactics reported to be regularly used, only two involved communicating ownership claims to the rival employer. Given our focus on defending against infringement and not establishing and restoring ownership claims, it is not surprising managers rarely reported using identity marking, control-oriented marking, and reactionary defenses. With these preliminary small-sample findings, we then sought to (a) test the reported usage of these tactics with another sample, (b) examine the underlying factor structure of the items, and (c) test whether, consistent with territorial behaviors used to claim ownership of objects and intangibles, employee guarding is associated with feelings of psychological ownership of subordinates.

Study 2

Having identified anticipatory defensive tactics used by managers to guard employees, we sought to assess whether feelings of psychological ownership are associated with these behaviors as they are for territorial behaviors used to make and protect ownership claims over nonagentic tangible and intangible objects (Brown et al., 2014). Consistent with Brown et al.’s (2014) findings, we propose that managers feel psychological ownership for their

subordinates. After controlling for a set of theoretically specified managerial differences that may explain variance in employee guarding behavior, we seek to test the incremental validity of psychological ownership in predicting employee guarding.

Three main “routes” or experiences result in the emergence of psychological ownership between an individual and an object (i.e., possession; Pierce et al., 2001). The “routes” include controlling or using the target, coming to intimately know the target, and investing the self into the target. When control is exercised over an object, feelings of ownership arise (Pierce et al., 2001, 2003). Through communication, monitoring, discipline, and enforcement of performance standards, managers often control subordinates and ensure their conformity to desired outcomes and behaviors (Long, Bendersky, & Morrill, 2011). Feelings of ownership also emerge from associating with, knowing, and utilizing an object. Here, too, supervisors have ample opportunity to know, associate with, and collaborate with subordinates (aka human objects; Liden, Wayne, & Stilwell, 1993). Finally, investment of one’s time, energy, attention, and emotion results in felt ownership toward a target (Pierce et al., 2001). Managers make similar investments in subordinates, such as assimilating or training them, thus developing feelings of control and ownership over subordinates (Pierce et al., 2003). As managers control, know, and coach employees, we anticipate that they will develop feelings of psychological ownership over employees (see Buss, 1988, for a theoretical correspondence in the mate-guarding literature).

Brown et al. (2005) further make a compelling theoretical case that feelings of psychological ownership result in the usage of territorial behaviors to secure a possession, which was demonstrated empirically by Brown and colleagues (2014). Territorial acts to protect a target object ensure that owners continue to feel self-efficacious, self-identity, and confident that others recognize that the object is theirs (Ellis, 1985; Pierce et al., 2001). As maintaining control of and access to subordinates can fulfill similar needs (Brown et al., 2005; Pierce et al., 2001, 2003), we expect that psychological ownership felt toward subordinates would be positively related to reported usage of employee-guarding tactics.

However, because other managerial traits and attitudes may also be associated with the use of employee guarding, it is important to demonstrate that psychological ownership provides unique explanatory power in a multivariate comparison. First, managerial territorial responses may be affected by a manager’s ability to react to situational cues, and self-monitoring is a personality trait influencing how individuals regulate self-presentation in response to such cues (Lennox & Wolfe, 1984). Those high in self-monitoring are more aware of and responsive to behavior appropriate for different situations. Self-monitors believe they possess the skills to respond to social contingencies and are likely to utilize social tactics to achieve desired ends (Snyder & Gangestad, 1986). Thus, we expected low self-monitors to be less likely to diagnose the need for and initiate the use of employee-guarding tactics, while we expected high self-monitors to more adeptly interpret social cues from defecting employees (Felps, Mitchell, Hekman, Lee, Holtom, & Harman, 2009) and tailor behavior to guard against their loss.

Likewise, people are influenced by multiple motivations that operate simultaneously (Grant & Mayer, 2009; Latham & Pinder, 2005). Beyond exhibiting a motivation to defend against potential infringements, managers also vary in the extent to which they are motivated to act on behalf of others. Prosocial motivation is the desire to expend effort to help or benefit other individuals (Batson, 1987; Grant, 2007), and many of the employee-guarding tactics identified in Study 1 are geared toward improving the work environment to induce an

employee not to defect. Consequently, we expect that prosocial motivation will also predict such guarding tactics.

In summary, to support our claim that anticipatory defensive tactics are used to protect ownership claims over subordinate employees, we strive to show a positive relationship between psychological ownership and the use of these tactics. However, we also expect employee guarding to covary as a function of a manager's ability to read and respond to situational cues (i.e., self-monitoring) and a manager's desire to benefit others (i.e., prosocial motivation). Anticipating other managerial factors that may affect usage of guarding tactics, we also controlled manager age, position tenure, gender, and educational attainment. Thus, we propose the following:

Hypothesis 1: Manager psychological ownership will predict employee guarding after controlling for managerial self-monitoring, prosocial motivation, age, position tenure, gender, and educational attainment.

Procedure and Participants

We recruited respondents from StudyResponse.net (SR; cf. Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006). SR matches individuals willing to complete surveys with researchers needing research participants. According to the website at the time of our usage of the panel (March 2012) the service was affiliated with Syracuse University, with 50,538 individuals registered as willing survey takers. This broad sample from diverse industries, companies, and occupations enhances the generalizability of our findings (Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006).

We asked SR to prescreen its participants and create a subsample of panelists residing in the United States, age 21 or older, and employed in a managerial capacity. SR sent a brief survey to these panelists asking about the number of employees they supervise, their supervisory responsibilities, and their ability to read and understand written English. A total of 568 individuals matched the needs for our study (outlined in Study 1). SR staff sent recruitment e-mails with links to our online survey to these prescreened respondents. A total of 562 attempts were made to complete the survey, and the sample included 375 managers (66.7% adjusted response rate). Significant efforts were made to screen data for quality, which are outlined in the online supplemental materials.

The final set of respondents was 62.1% male, age 37.6 years ($SD = 7.9$), with 6.9 years ($SD = 4.25$) tenure in their current position. A review of respondents' IP addresses showed no duplication among the remaining respondents. The median educational attainment was a college bachelor's degree. SR data showed respondents were employed in a wide range of occupational categories. The most common were banking and engineering/design; the least common were transportation and law enforcement/security. Subjects completed the 40-item employee-guarding scale developed in Study 1. Response options were the same used in Study 1. The proportion of respondents indicating they never utilized each guarding tactic to prevent employees from defecting did not exceed 29.6%; thus, all items were retained.

Factor Structure and Summarization

As the 40 items did not exhibit significant violations of multivariate normality assumptions, we conducted an exploratory factor analysis using maximum likelihood extraction and

varimax rotation. Review of the eigenvalues and scree plot suggested three factors. Given the sample size of 338, factor loadings of 0.30 or higher were considered statistically significant (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998: 112). The third factor explained 9.2% of item variance but exhibited an eigenvalue of only 1.16. All 17 items loading at 0.30 or higher on Factor 3 exhibited cross-loadings of 0.37 or higher on Factors 1 or 2; thus, these items were dropped. Twelve items in Factor 1 (34.9% of variance) and five items in Factor 2 (15.6% of variance) exhibited factor loadings of 0.30 or higher with no significant cross-loadings. Repeating the same factor analysis with the 17 items resulted in a more interpretable two-factor solution, identical to the above, accounting for 63.9% of item variance with all factor loadings exceeding 0.58 and no cross-loading exceeding 0.30. The 17 items can be found in Study 3 below.

Reliability of Summated Employee-Guarding Scale and Underlying Dimensions

The 12 items composing Factor 1, which we term *persuasion*, constitute anticipatory defense tactics used by respondents to influence employees through reason, fear induction, coercion, or reward ($\alpha = .96$). The five items composing Factor 2, which we term *nurturing*, represent tactics used by managers to influence employees by expressions of cultivating, caring for, and cherishing employees and their contributions ($\alpha = .84$).

Psychological ownership of subordinates. At the time these data were collected, existing psychological ownership scales were designed to measure individuals' feelings of ownership toward their organization (e.g., Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004: 449); thus, we measured psychological ownership of subordinates using a scale developed for the current investigation. The online supplemental materials detail the development of this scale. The final tested scale reflected the items "I feel a high degree of ownership toward these employees," "These employees are mine," "I am uncomfortable 'loaning' these employees to other managers or departments within this company," and "It is important that other managers check with me before using these employees for assignments outside of my department." Response options were *completely disagree* (1) to *completely agree* (7). Coefficient alpha for the four-item measure was .80 with a clear one-factor structure.

Self-monitoring. We utilized the 12-item Lennox and Wolfe Revised Self-Monitoring Scale (O'Cass, 2000). A sample item included "In social situations, I have the ability to alter my behavior if I feel that something else is called for." Response options were *completely disagree* (1) to *completely agree* (7). Prior research (e.g., O'Cass, 2000) showed this construct to consist of two factors (self-expression and presentation), and we sought to confirm the factor structure of this measure. The reverse-scored item (i.e., Item 4) formed a third factor, suggesting a measurement artifact. Attempting to replicate the original factor structure of this measure, we removed Item 4. The resulting matrix confirmed the original two-factor solution, and scale reliability (α) also improved from .83 to .87. Thus, we used the remaining 11 items for this scale.

Prosocial motivation. Prosocial motivation was measured using the four-item scale from Grant (2008). Respondents were presented with an introductory question, "Why are you

Table 1
Study 2 Descriptive Statistics and Intercorrelations

| Variable | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
|----------------------------|----------|-----------|---------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|-----|
| 1. Age | 37.61 | 7.87 | | | | | | | | | |
| 2. Position tenure | 6.90 | 4.25 | .38*** | | | | | | | | |
| 3. Gender | 0.62 | 0.49 | -.06 | -.13* | | | | | | | |
| 4. Education | 5.92 | 1.66 | -.03 | .20*** | .12* | | | | | | |
| 5. Self-monitoring | 5.36 | 0.71 | .09 | .09 | -.09 | .14* | .87 | | | | |
| 6. Prosocial motivation | 5.69 | 0.80 | .17** | .15** | -.03 | .16** | .53*** | .88 | | | |
| 7. Psychological ownership | 4.95 | 1.12 | -.08 | .15** | .23*** | .42*** | .27*** | .30*** | .80 | | |
| 8. Persuasion tactics | 2.59 | 0.88 | -.37*** | .09 | .22*** | .37*** | .11* | .11* | .50*** | .96 | |
| 9. Nurturing tactics | 3.11 | 0.64 | -.14** | -.02 | .01 | .15** | .30*** | .31*** | .27*** | .41*** | .84 |

Note: $N = 338$. Gender: 0 = female; 1 = male. Reliability estimates are on the diagonal in italics.

* $p < .05$.

** $p < .01$.

*** $p < .001$ (all two-tailed tests).

motivated to do your work?" and then indicated level of agreement for each of the four statements. An example item is "Because I want to help others through my work." Response options were *completely disagree* (1) to *completely agree* (7). The scale had acceptable measurement characteristics (one factor; $\alpha = .88$).

Controls. To estimate psychological ownership's incremental validity for predicting the use of guarding tactics, we controlled manager's gender, age, position tenure, and education. Gender was measured using the item, "What is your gender?" Potential responses were either "male" (1) or "female" (0). Age was continuously measured using the item, "What is your age?" Education was measured using the item, "What is your highest level of education?" Responses included nine items ranging from "not yet a high school graduate or equivalent" to "research doctorate (Ph.D., D.Sc.)." Finally, position tenure was continuously measured using the item, "How many years have you been working in your current position?"

Study 2 Results

Table 1 shows study intercorrelations and descriptive statistics, while Table 2 shows regression analyses predicting persuasion and nurturing forms of employee guarding. Consistent with expectation, psychological ownership explained significant variation in the persuasion form of employee guarding ($\beta = 0.33, p < .001$) after controlling for manager self-monitoring ($\beta = 0.02, ns$), prosocial motivation ($\beta = 0.02, ns$), age ($\beta = -0.41, p < .001$), gender ($\beta = 0.12, p < .01$), position tenure ($\beta = 0.17, p < .001$), and educational attainment ($\beta = 0.17, p < .001$). In total, managerial characteristics explained 42.3% of the variance in the persuasion form of employee guarding. Likewise, psychological ownership explained significant variation in the nurturing form of employee guarding ($\beta = 0.16, p < .01$), after controlling manager self-monitoring ($\beta = 0.16, p < .01$), prosocial motivation ($\beta = 0.21, p < 0.001$), age ($\beta = -0.17, p < .01$), gender ($\beta = -0.03, ns$), position tenure ($\beta = -0.03, ns$), and

Table 2
Study 2 Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analyses

| Variable | Model 1 | Model 1 | Model 3 |
|---------------------------|---------|---------|---------|
| Persuasion tactics | | | |
| Manager traits | | | |
| Age | -.44*** | -.45*** | -.41*** |
| Gender | .18*** | .19*** | .12** |
| Position tenure | .22*** | .21*** | .17*** |
| Education | .30*** | .27*** | .17*** |
| Manager controls | | | |
| Self-monitoring | | .07 | .02 |
| Prosocial motivation | | .08 | .02 |
| Predictor variable | | | |
| Psychological ownership | | | .33*** |
| R^2 | .33*** | .35*** | .42*** |
| ΔR^2 | | .02* | .08*** |
| Nurturing tactics | | | |
| Manager traits | | | |
| Age | -.14* | -.19*** | -.17** |
| Gender | -.02 | .01 | -.03 |
| Position tenure | .00 | -.01 | -.03 |
| Education | .14** | .08 | .03 |
| Manager controls | | | |
| Self-monitoring | | .18** | .16** |
| Prosocial motivation | | .24*** | .21*** |
| Predictor variable | | | |
| Psychological ownership | | | .16** |
| R^2 | .04** | .17*** | .18*** |
| ΔR^2 | | .13*** | .02** |

Note: $N = 338$. Coefficients represent standardized Beta coefficients. Gender: 0 = female; 1 = male.

* $p < .05$.

** $p < .01$.

*** $p < .001$ (all two-tailed tests).

educational attainment ($\beta = 0.03$, ns). In total, managerial characteristics explained 18.4% of the variance in the nurturing form of employee guarding. Thus, these results support Hypothesis 1.

Study 2 Discussion

Study 2 advances our objectives of demonstrating that managers feel psychological ownership toward their subordinates and utilize anticipatory defenses to protect these claims. Of the 17 retained employee-guarding tactics, no more than 29.6% of respondents reported never using a particular tactic to “prevent an employee from quitting their job to join another company” (range = 5.3% to 29.6%, $M = 17.72\%$, $SD = 8.68\%$). When considered along with the results of Study 1, these results strongly suggest that managers use employee-guarding tactics to thwart potential infringements of their ownership claims of their employees.

The two-factor structure of employee-guarding tactics, persuasion and nurturing, demonstrates the adjustment managers need to make to protect employee ownership claims. When attempting to protect possessions, space, and intangibles from anticipated infringement, organizational actors will create enduring obstacles that “thwart” rivals’ infringement attempts. For instance, to protect a new product idea, a research scientist may lock important documents in a file cabinet. When anticipating employee defection, individual managers must adopt a different approach. First, unlike typical objects of ownership, managers face infringement threats from both outside rivals actively inducing employees to join their firms and agentic employees seeking better employment for themselves and responding to overtures of rival firms. Second, the use of impermeable boundaries preventing employees from leaving and preventing rivals from gaining access to employees is functionally and legally dubious.

The results of Study 1 and Study 2 suggest that instead of creating durable barriers to thwart rivals’ infringement attempts, managers use persuasion and nurturing tactics to influence employee behavior. Rusbult’s (1980, 1983) investment model of romantic partnership duration is an appropriate lens by which to interpret these influence attempts. This theory has a long empirical history of predicting relationship survival based on actors’ perceived costs of, perceived benefits of, and perceived alternatives to the existing relationship (Le & Agnew, 2003). The pattern of tactics that manifest in the current study suggests that without the ability to create physical or technological barriers to keep rivals away and employees from acting on their agency to leave, managers attempt to create *mental barriers* that discourage employees from leaving. Nurturing and persuasion tactics appear to be designed to influence employees’ perception of the benefits of the existing employment relationship. Several persuasion tactics appear designed to alter employees’ beliefs about the quality of employment offerings of specific rivals. Future research on the impact of guarding tactics on employee behavior is warranted.

These findings support our assertion that employee-guarding tactics are a behavioral manifestation of psychological ownership and thus a form of territorial behavior used to prevent the loss of subordinates to rival employers (Avey, Avolio, Crossley, & Luthans, 2009; Brown et al., 2005; Ellis, 1985; Pierce et al., 2001). Our robust examination showed that psychological ownership explains unique variance in persuasion and nurturing forms of employee guarding after controlling managerial demographic and dispositional characteristics, which also contribute toward such behavior. While many scholars have suggested that individuals feel and protect ownership claims over subordinate employees, this study is the first—to our knowledge—to demonstrate this association empirically (e.g., Brown & Robinson, 2011; Ellis, 1985; Litwinski, 1947; Pierce et al., 2001, 2003). Having established the influence of psychological ownership and managerial dispositions as an influence on employee guarding, we now conduct an additional test of the antecedents of employee-guarding tactics in Study 3 by exploring the employee-specific and managerial factors that may catalyze employee guarding.

Study 3

Study 3 has several objectives. First, because employee guarding is by definition a behavior used by managers to protect ownership claims over specific employees, we sought to measure managers’ guarding behaviors directed at *specific* subordinates rather than the generalized manifestation of these behaviors identified in Studies 1 and 2. Second, we provide

additional evidence that employee guarding is a form of territoriality by demonstrating that, like other anticipatory defense tactics, expectation of a loss of a specific subordinate results in the increased guarding behaviors directed toward that subordinate. Third, we also show that, like territorial tactics used to defend nonagentic objects, the effect of anticipated infringement is moderated by the value of the specific employee. Fourth, to claim that employee guarding is a universal “human” response to anticipated defection of a subordinate, we test the generalizability of the model with a global sample of managers and employees. Our final objective is to replicate and confirm the previously identified two-dimensional structure of the guarding scale with a new sample of managers.

Study 2 demonstrated that felt psychological ownership of subordinates is associated with greater use of employee-guarding tactics. While the use of anticipatory defenses generally increases with strengthened psychological ownership, such defenses are not invariably manifest but lie dormant until activated by an anticipated or attempted ownership infringement. Greater fear of infringement increases the use of anticipatory defense tactics (Altman, 1970; Brown et al., 2005; Buss & Shackelford, 1997; Edney, 1976; Pierce et al., 2003). For example, individuals in committed relationships guard mates as a function of both the interpretation of behavioral cues exhibited by the partner that suggest possible infidelity (Neal & Lemay, 2014) and endogenous estimates of the partner’s likelihood of committing infidelity (Buss & Shackelford, 1997; Starratt, McKibbin, & Shackelford, 2013).

Using these theoretical examples as a corollary, the managerial use of employee guarding should be catalyzed when managers suspect a specific subordinate will defect, infringing on their ownership claims to an employee’s skills and labor (Ellis, 1985; Furby, 1978; Pierce et al., 2001; Snare, 1972). In support, Goffman (1974: 162) suggested that employees seeking alternative employment may “leak” behavioral cues of their intentions and job-search activities that can be observed and interpreted by managers. Additionally, Chen, Hui, and Sego (1998) demonstrated that managers can predict if employees will quit in the future by observing their (low) organizational citizenship behaviors, suggesting that managers also make inferences regarding the probability of employee defections. Accordingly, we posit that managers will use employee-guarding tactics when they expect that specific employees are at risk of defecting:

Hypothesis 2a: Greater expectation that an employee will defect is positively associated with a manager’s use of persuasion tactics to discourage such defection.

Hypothesis 2b: Greater expectation that an employee will defect is positively associated with a manager’s use of nurturing tactics to discourage such defection.

In addition to the role of attitudinal factors (i.e., degree of feared infringement) as a cause of anticipatory defenses, existing psychological ownership theory suggests that perceived and actual value of ownership targets will boost utilization of territorial behaviors to protect these claims (Buss, 2002; Pierce et al., 2003; Taylor & Brooks, 1980). Individuals cognitively assess resource gains and losses when deciding how to respond to the environment (Hobfoll, 1989). In the context of territoriality, this suggests that managers will consider the costs of defending a resource claim relative to the benefits accrued to the individual from maintaining that resource claim. Thus, individual territorial responses to anticipated or actual infringement function, in part, based on the value of the threatened object, with effort

expended to defend claims being positively related to the value of the claimed resource (Buss, 2002; Sundstrom & Altman, 1974).

Empirical support can be found for value as an influence on territorial behavior and anticipatory defenses. For example, when faced with the loss of spaces to rivals, juvenile offenders living in a detention facility utilized more territorial behaviors for more desirable spaces (Sundstrom & Altman, 1974). Likewise, Taylor and Brooks (1980) demonstrated that students were more likely to demand the departure of interlopers that had taken over valuable (i.e., private) study carrels compared with common (i.e., nonprivate) study tables at a university library. Next, in studies of heterosexual couples, both men and women reported greater use of mate-guarding tactics commensurate with the value of the spouse or partner (Buss & Shackelford, 1997; Gangestad & Thornhill, 2004; Goetz et al., 2005). Finally, Brown and Robinson (2011) showed that organization members' responses to territorial infringements are a function of an object's subjective value.

The findings above suggest that while owners' perception of object value influences the use of territorial tactics, researchers rely on both owners' reports of value as well as outside objective measures. For instance, Taylor and Brooks (1980) conducted a preliminary study with a separate sample to demonstrate that private study carrels are valued more than public study carrels. Buss and Shackelford (1997) measured objective female value using age and observer reports of physical attractiveness and perceived value via husbands' reports of their wives' attractiveness. Accordingly, we chose to focus on a measure of a subordinate's objective value (i.e., cognitive ability test) to ensure our results were less plagued by mono-method bias arising from managerial reports of perceived employee value and social desirability bias arising from employees' self-perceptions of their value to their manager or organization.

Employee cognitive ability is an excellent measure of employee value because of its reliable relationship with job performance across a wide variety of organizational roles and contexts (Schmidt & Hunter, 1998). General mental ability (GMA), or cognitive ability, reflects the capacity for general information processing that facilitates learning, decision making, problem solving, and reasoning (Gottfredson, 1997). Further research shows that managers can accurately assess this construct (Borkenau, Mauer, Riemann, Spinath, & Angleitner, 2004) and value it over nearly all other employee attributes (e.g., Dunn, Mount, Barrick, & Ones, 1995; Tews, Stafford, & Zhu, 2009). Managers may believe that those who can readily learn new skills and quickly solve problems will perform jobs effectively (Dunn et al., 1995). This suggests that the value of a subordinate employee (operationalized as cognitive ability) should moderate the relationship between managerial defection expectations and resultant use of persuasion and nurturing guarding tactics directed at that subordinate. Specifically, we propose that managers will use both forms of employee guarding more often when they expect a subordinate to defect and that the subordinate's cognitive ability will strengthen this positive relationship due to the subordinate's increased value. Thus, we propose the following:

Hypothesis 3a: The relationship between a manager's defection expectation and the use of persuasion tactics will be stronger for subordinates with higher GMA than for subordinates with lower GMA.

Hypothesis 3b: The relationship between a manager's defection expectation and the use of nurturing tactics will be stronger for subordinates with higher GMA than for subordinates with lower GMA.

Procedures and Participants

Research participants consisted of a global sample of managers and subordinates of a Fortune 100 manufacturing and service company. Human resources (HR) leaders agreed to participate in this study to improve supervisory training by learning how managers treat employees. HR leaders wanted to develop supervisory skills of their global set of managers supervising two or more subordinates working in professional positions (information technology, marketing, engineering, etc.), and 450 midlevel managers met this profile. The HR group sent three e-mails to all 2,772 subordinates reporting to these managers, explaining the study's purpose and asking them to click on a hyperlink to complete a brief survey. Employees entered a unique identification number to match subordinate-manager responses. Employees first completed a survey reporting their demographic background and attitudes and then completed the Wonderlic Cognitive Ability Pretest. The employee response rate was 66.74%. Of these respondents, 906 completed both survey and cognitive ability test, while 944 completed only the attitude survey (a 32.7% final subordinate response rate).

At least one subordinate of all 450 managers completed both the attitude survey and cognitive ability test. However, the company limited the number of individual subordinates toward whom each manager would be asked to report his or her employee-guarding tactics. Thus if more than one of a manager's subordinates completed both measures, we randomly selected one of the employees for whom the manager would report guarding activities. The HR group sent e-mail invitations and two reminders to all 450 managers with a hyperlink to complete the survey. The e-mail informed them of the employee they were to focus upon when answering survey questions. Of the 450 managers invited, 253 (56.2%) logged in and completed their survey.

Hypotheses were tested with 253 manager-subordinate dyads where the subordinate completed both the survey and Wonderlic test. Subordinates were on average 41.2 years of age, 25.3% female, with a mean organizational tenure of 11.1 years and job tenure of 5.5 years. Managers averaged 46.3 years of age, 17.1 years of organization tenure, and 5.2 years of job tenure, and 12.3% were female. Manager-employee dyads came from 23 countries, including the United States (38.3%), China (11.9%), India (7.9%), United Kingdom (7.9%), Mexico (7.5%), Singapore (4.3%), and Germany (4.0%). Countries with only a single dyad were Spain, Poland, Argentina, Indonesia, and the Netherlands.

Measures

Persuasion. Employee-guarding persuasion was measured using the 12-item scale from Study 2 ($\alpha = .83$). Participants responded to the following statement for each item: "In the last 12 months, I have used this practice to prevent [employee] from quitting his/her job to join another company," with responses ranging from *never* (1) to *very frequently* (5).

Nurturing. Employee-guarding nurturing was measured using the five-item scale ($\alpha = .88$) from Study 2 and the same statement and anchors as the persuasion form of guarding above.

Defection expectations. Manager expectation of subordinate defection was measured with the item, "Over the next 12 months, what is the probability this employee will leave your company for a job at another organization?" Response options ranged from *highly*

unlikely (1) to *highly likely* (5). The emphasis on the subordinate leaving to join another firm measured managers' probability estimates regarding potential expropriation of a specific employee's skills and services rather than simply measuring his or her prospective turnover. This approach to measuring anticipated defection is consistent with a precedent in mate-guarding studies (McKibbin, Starratt, Shackelford, & Goetz, 2011; Starratt et al., 2013).

Cognitive ability. Employee cognitive ability was measured with the 30-item Wonderlic Cognitive Ability Pretest. This shorter version correlates .96 with the Wonderlic Classic Cognitive Ability Test (Wonderlic & Associates, 2012). All subordinate employees were competent in English but had the option of taking the test in English, Spanish, or French.

Control Variables

The final models included eight control variables to increase external generalizability and rigor of our test of employee-guarding antecedents. First, we included subordinate and supervisor characteristics that might affect external generalizability of findings, including employee and manager gender, employee organizational tenure, and manager position tenure. We also included control variables to reduce the possibility of rival causal explanations for our findings. These include employee educational attainment, employee perception of leader-member exchange (LMX), manager job autonomy, and unit staffing needs.

First, research suggests that employee value to a manager covaries as a function of that employee's academic credentials (Hambrick & Mason, 1984). Thus, higher educational attainment may affect the value ascribed by a manager to his or her employees, affecting resultant employee-guarding responses. Second, LMX theory maintains that leaders depend on their in-group to help them achieve unit objectives (entrusting them with more responsibilities given their dedication to unit performance and competency; Dulebohn, Bommer, Liden, Brouer, & Ferris, 2012) and thus may put additional effort into guarding against their defection, necessitating statistical control of LMX. Third, scholars have long noted that manager job autonomy, or discretion, affects managerial decision-making authority and ability to respond to environmental contingencies (Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006), including potential employee defection. Thus we controlled for the manager's self-reported job autonomy. Finally, unlike the studies of dyadic mate guarding, managers typically supervise more than one subordinate. Modern work processes are highly interdependent, suggesting some employees and their contributions are redundant. Thus managers with sufficient staffing levels to achieve their goals may be less likely to enact employee-guarding tactics than managers lacking adequate human capital. We thus included managers' unit staffing needs as a control variable.

Gender. Gender of both managers and employees was measured as female (0) or male (1) and was gained from company human resource records.

Organizational tenure. Employee organizational tenure was measured in years and gathered from company human resource records.

Position tenure. Manager position tenure was measured in years with the item, "How many years have you been working in your current job?" with response options for years and months. Position tenure better represented managerial experience than organizational tenure.

Employee educational attainment. Educational attainment of the subordinate employees was measured using the item, “What is your highest level of education?” Responses included nine items ranging from “not yet a high school graduate or equivalent” (1) to “research doctorate (Ph.D., D.Sc.)” (9).

LMX. We measured employee-reported LMX using the seven-item measure ($\alpha = .83$) from Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995). An example item is “How would you characterize your working relationships with your leader?” Responses varied depending on the question but ranged from 1 to 5.

Job autonomy. Consistent with prior research (Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006), manager job autonomy was measured using two items ($\alpha = .84$) from the revised form of the Job Diagnostic Survey (Idaszak & Drasgow, 1987). Items include “The job gives me a chance to use my personal initiative and judgment in carrying out the work” and “The job gives me considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do the work.” Responses ranged from *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (5).

Unit staffing needs. To meet the firm’s concern about survey length for managers, we incorporated a single-item measure of unit staffing needs: “I do not have enough staff in my unit to achieve our goals.” Responses ranged from *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (5). Higher values indicate the manager does not have the staff needed to achieve company goals.

Data Analysis

Before testing hypotheses, a confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to test the fit of the 17 employee-guarding items and to compare the results with the factor structure identified in Study 2. To replicate the two-factor model with an acceptable degree of fit, we had to cull four of the 17 items. The global measures of fit were acceptable, thus confirming the stability and reliability of the 13-item two-factor model of employee-guarding behaviors. The final nurturing dimension has five items, while the persuasion dimension has eight items (see Table 3 for items).

Study 3 Results

We calculated study variable intercorrelations and internal reliability estimates, which are shown in Table 4. Then, we utilized hierarchical multivariate regression analyses to test hypotheses. All predictor variables were centered prior to calculating interaction terms. In Step 1, all eight control variables (i.e., employee gender, employee organizational tenure, employee educational attainment, manager gender, manager position tenure, employee-reported LMX, manager job autonomy, and unit staffing needs) were entered. In Step 2, defection expectation and employee cognitive ability were added. Finally, Defection Expectation \times Subordinate Cognitive Ability interaction term was entered in the third step. A significant change in R^2 in this final step provides evidence of an interaction effect between the two primary variables (Aiken & West, 1991). Regression analyses are shown in Table 5.

Table 3
Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results for Study 3

| Variable | Dimension | Model 1 | Model 2 | Model 3 | Model 4 |
|---|------------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| Item | | | | | |
| 1. I purposefully tried to be a better manager. ^a | Nurturing | 0.44 | 0.85 | 0.85 | 0.85 |
| 2. I went out of my way to be kind and caring. ^a | Nurturing | 0.41 | 0.68 | 0.68 | 0.68 |
| 3. I worked hard to create a positive and professional work environment for his/her benefit. ^a | Nurturing | 0.47 | 0.87 | 0.87 | 0.87 |
| 4. I told him/her that another employer was not well managed. ^a | Persuasion | 0.61 | 0.64 | 0.67 | 0.67 |
| 5. I publicly praised him/her for their work. ^a | Nurturing | 0.47 | 0.68 | 0.68 | 0.68 |
| 6. I asked if he/she was seriously seeking outside job opportunities. ^a | Persuasion | 0.54 | 0.55 | 0.53 | 0.53 |
| 7. I asked him/her to make a long-term commitment to the company. ^a | Persuasion | 0.60 | 0.58 | 0.54 | 0.53 |
| 8. I told him/her that another employer was not truly committed to their employees. ^a | Persuasion | 0.71 | 0.79 | 0.82 | 0.82 |
| 9. I gave him/her a significant reward. | Persuasion | 0.52 | 0.46 | — | — |
| 10. I asked him/her to explain their time away from the workplace. | Persuasion | 0.46 | 0.47 | — | — |
| 11. I assigned him/her a long-term project to maintain their commitment to this company. | Persuasion | 0.53 | 0.46 | — | — |
| 12. I tried to be very helpful to him/her. ^a | Nurturing | 0.43 | 0.79 | 0.79 | 0.79 |
| 13. I told him/her that another employer was not a "good place to work." ^a | Persuasion | 0.68 | 0.75 | 0.78 | 0.79 |
| 14. I rewarded other employees to show him/her this company is generous. | Persuasion | 0.56 | 0.51 | 0.47 | — |
| 15. I gave him/her special treatment when it came to company perks. ^a | Persuasion | 0.60 | 0.60 | 0.58 | 0.57 |
| 16. I told him/her the disadvantages of working elsewhere. ^a | Persuasion | 0.73 | 0.76 | 0.75 | 0.75 |
| 17. I expressed concern to him/her that I suspected he/she was engaged in job search activities. ^a | Persuasion | 0.60 | 0.64 | 0.64 | 0.75 |
| RMSEA | | 0.16 | 0.08 | 0.07 | 0.06 |
| SRMR | | 0.14 | 0.08 | 0.07 | 0.05 |
| CFI | | 0.60 | 0.90 | 0.94 | 0.96 |
| TLI | | 0.54 | 0.88 | 0.93 | 0.95 |
| χ^2 | | 898.17 | 305.55 | 165.69 | 119.86 |
| <i>df</i> | | 119 | 118 | 76 | 64 |
| Parameters | | 51 | 52 | 43 | 40 |
| χ^2 diff | | — | 592.62 | 139.86 | 45.83 |
| Significant Δ ? | | — | Yes | Yes | Yes |

Note: $N = 253$. Model 1 = unidimensional model test; Models 2 through 5 = multidimensional model tests; RMSEA = root mean squared error of approximation; SRMR = standardized root mean square residual; CFI = comparative fit index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis index.

^aFinal retained item.

The regression analyses at the top of Table 5 revealed that the eight control variables explained a significant amount of variance in manager use of persuasion tactics ($\Delta R^2 = .08$, $p < .01$). Employee organizational tenure was negatively related ($\beta = -0.16$, $p < .05$), employee education level was positively related ($\beta = 0.14$, $p < .05$), job autonomy was negatively related ($\beta = -0.14$, $p < .05$), and unit staffing needs was marginally negatively related ($\beta = -0.11$, $p < .10$). This final result suggests that managers who have sufficient staffing levels are less likely to use persuasion tactics to retain employees they anticipate leaving.

Table 4
Study 3 Descriptive Statistics and Intercorrelations

| Variable | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 |
|-----------------------------|----------|-----------|--------|---------|------|------|--------|--------|------|------|--------|---------|--------|-----|
| 1. EE gender | 0.75 | 0.44 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2. EE organizational tenure | 11.09 | 9.51 | .22*** | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 3. EE education level | 5.52 | 1.44 | .03 | -.09 | | | | | | | | | | |
| 4. Mgr. gender | 0.88 | 0.33 | .25*** | .11 | -.01 | | | | | | | | | |
| 5. Mgr. position tenure | 5.15 | 5.82 | .02 | -.07 | .03 | .04 | | | | | | | | |
| 6. LMX | 3.72 | 0.70 | -.01 | .03 | -.07 | -.11 | -.02 | .83 | | | | | | |
| 7. Job autonomy | 4.11 | 0.91 | .03 | -.02 | .00 | .07 | -.01 | -.05 | .84 | | | | | |
| 8. Unit staffing needs | 2.98 | 1.08 | .05 | .08 | -.01 | -.05 | -.04 | .08 | -.12 | | | | | |
| 9. Defection expectations | 1.78 | 0.84 | -.03 | -.29*** | .15* | -.01 | -.04 | -.20** | -.03 | .02 | | | | |
| 10. EE cognitive ability | 23.51 | 5.13 | .09 | .06 | .04 | -.05 | -.00 | .06 | .12 | .06 | -.03 | | | |
| 11. Persuasion tactics | 1.41 | 0.55 | .02 | -.15* | .16* | .07 | -.05 | -.02 | -.11 | -.11 | .24*** | -.24*** | .84 | |
| 12. Nurturing tactics | 3.74 | 0.85 | -.07 | -.05 | .04 | .08 | -.20** | -.07 | -.05 | .02 | .22*** | -.08 | .31*** | .88 |

Note: *N* = 253. Gender: 0 = female; 1 = male. Reliability estimates are on the diagonal in italics. EE = employee; Mgr. = manager; LMX = leader-member exchange.

**p* < .05.

***p* < .01.

****p* < .001 (all two-tailed tests).

Table 5
Study 3 Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis

| Variable | Model 1 | Model 2 | Model 3 |
|---|---------|---------|---------|
| Persuasion tactics | | | |
| Control variables | | | |
| EE gender | .04 | .05 | .05 |
| EE organizational tenure | -.16* | -.09 | -.09 |
| EE education level | .14* | .13* | .13* |
| Manager gender | .08 | .06 | .06 |
| Manager position tenure | -.07 | -.06 | -.06 |
| Leader-member exchange | .01 | .06 | .06 |
| Job autonomy | -.14* | -.10† | -.09 |
| Unit staffing needs | -.11† | -.11† | -.11† |
| Main effects | | | |
| Defection expectation | | .20** | .20*** |
| EE cognitive ability | | -.22*** | -.22*** |
| Interaction term | | | |
| Defection Expectations × EE Cognitive Ability | | | .05 |
| R^2 | .08** | .17*** | .17*** |
| ΔR^2 | | .08*** | .00 |
| Nurturing tactics | | | |
| Control variables | | | |
| EE gender | -.09 | -.09 | -.10 |
| EE organizational tenure | -.05 | .01 | .01 |
| EE education level | .04 | .03 | .02 |
| Manager gender | .11† | .11† | .10 |
| Manager position tenure | -.20*** | -.19** | -.18** |
| Leader-member exchange | -.06 | -.02 | -.00 |
| Job autonomy | -.05 | -.04 | -.02 |
| Unit staffing needs | .02 | .02 | .02 |
| Main effects | | | |
| Defection expectation | | .20** | .21** |
| EE cognitive ability | | -.06 | -.06 |
| Interaction term | | | |
| Defection Expectations × EE Cognitive Ability | | | .14* |
| R^2 | .07* | .10** | .12*** |
| ΔR^2 | | .04** | .02* |

Note: $N = 253$. Coefficients represent standardized Beta coefficients. Gender: 0 = female; 1 = male. EE = employee.

† $p < .10$.

* $p < .05$.

** $p < .01$.

*** $p < .001$ (all two-tailed tests).

The addition of defection expectation and employee cognitive ability in Model 2 explained an additional 8% of variance ($p < .001$) in the use of persuasion tactics. In support of Hypothesis 2a, managers with greater expectation that their subordinate employee would defect made greater use of persuasion tactics to discourage the employee from leaving ($\beta = 0.20, p < .01$). This main effect persisted in Model 3 in the presence of the interaction term ($\beta = 0.20, p < .001$). Employee cognitive ability was negatively related to the use of

persuasion tactics in both Model 2 ($\beta = -0.22, p < .001$) and Model 3 ($\beta = -0.22, p < .001$). Hypothesis 3a predicted an interaction between defection expectation and employee cognitive ability on the usage of persuasion tactics. As shown in Model 3, the interaction term was not significant ($\beta = 0.05, ns$) and thus rejected Hypothesis 3a.

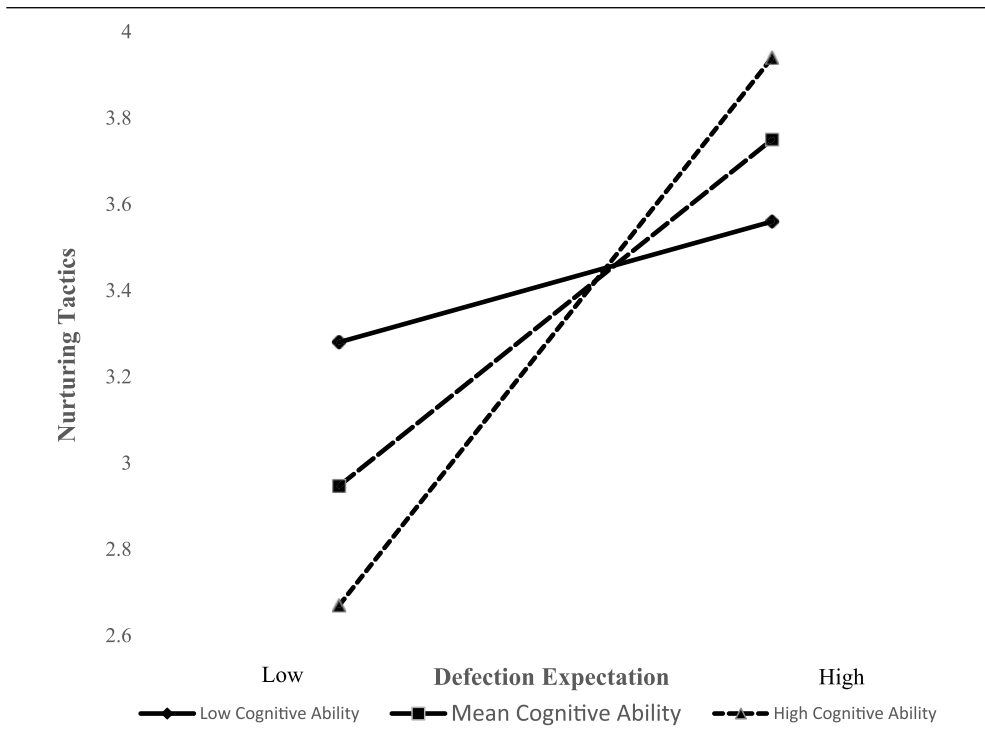
As shown at the bottom of Table 5, the control variables also explained significant variance in the use of nurturing guarding tactics ($\Delta R^2 = .07, p < .05$). Manager gender was marginally positively related ($\beta = 0.11, p < .10$), and manager position tenure was negatively related ($\beta = -0.20, p < .001$) to the use of nurturing tactics. The addition of defection expectation and employee cognitive ability in Model 2 explained an additional 4% of variance ($p < .01$) in use of nurturing tactics. In support of Hypothesis 2b, managers with greater expectation that their subordinate employees will defect made greater use of nurturing tactics to discourage the employees from leaving ($\beta = 0.20, p < .01$). This main effect persisted in Model 3 in the presence of the interaction term ($\beta = 0.21, p < .01$). Employee cognitive ability was not related to the use of nurturing guarding tactics in either Model 2 ($\beta = -0.06, ns$) or Model 3 ($\beta = -0.06, ns$). Hypothesis 3b predicted an interaction between defection expectation and employee cognitive ability on the usage of nurturing tactics. As shown in Model 3, the interaction term was significant ($\beta = 0.14, \Delta R^2 = .02, p < .05$), which included the eight control variables and the two main effect variables, thus supporting Hypothesis 3b.

To explore the form of the significant interaction, we graphed the slopes of the two variables whereby high, medium, and low levels of employee cognitive ability were plotted against low and high levels of manager expectation of subordinate defection (Aiken & West, 1991). The results are shown in Figure 1. Defection expectation was associated with increased usage of nurturing tactics when employee cognitive ability was high ($t = 3.60, p < .01$). However, defection expectation was not associated with the use of nurturing guarding tactics when cognitive ability was low ($t = 0.73, ns$). These findings strongly support Hypothesis 3b.

Study 3 Discussion

Study 3 was conducted with several overarching objectives. First, we wanted to provide additional evidence that the concept of employee guarding fills an important gap in the emerging theoretical framework explaining human territoriality in organizations. Study 2 suggested psychological ownership led to employee guarding. In this study, we looked at two additional factors, fear of infringement and employee value, as instigators of employee guarding. Regression results confirmed that both persuasion and nurturing forms of employee guarding are triggered by anticipated infringement in the same way that defenses of other nonagentic targets of ownership and romantic partners are triggered (Brown et al., 2005; Buss & Shackelford, 1997; Edney, 1976; Pierce et al., 2003). Additionally, we found that the impact of anticipated infringement on the use of nurturing guarding tactics was conditional on the value of the specific employee at risk of defecting to a new employer. For managers of low-cognitive-ability employees, increasing expectations of defection were not associated with increased use of nurturing tactics. However, for managers of high-cognitive-ability employees, increasing expectations of defection were associated with greater use of nurturing tactics to influence the employee not to defect. This pattern of conditional activation of employee guarding further confirms our contention that managers are territorial toward their subordinates. They feel psychological ownership, utilize territorial behaviors when activated by threat of loss, and moderate their territorial responses based on the value of the subordinate.

Figure 1
Interaction of Manager Expectation of Subordinate Defection × Subordinate Employee Cognitive Ability on Use of Nurturing Guarding Tactics



It is noteworthy that cognitive ability did not act as a moderator for the persuasion form of guarding; in fact, cognitive ability was negatively related to the use of persuasion tactics (see Table 5). Employee-guarding tactics inherently reflect downward influence attempts by managers designed to shape employee actions (e.g., Falbe & Yukl, 1992; Yukl & Falbe, 1990). These findings may suggest that the managers' choice of influence tactics partially covaries as a function of the target person's intelligence. Consistent with the persuasion knowledge model (Friestad & Wright, 1994), managers may anticipate that intelligent employees are immune to persuasion attempts or may have experienced unsuccessful attempts to persuade intelligent people and thus refrain from attempting to use persuasion to sway subordinates' personal decisions. These provocative findings deserve more attention in future studies of influence tactics and employee guarding.

Post Hoc Study 4 Replication and Extension

The findings of Studies 2 and 3 broadly demonstrate that employee guarding occurs as a function of manager's felt psychological ownership over subordinates, defection expectations, and subordinate value. These findings also show that employee guarding occurs in two forms: nurturing and persuasion. However, the factors ultimately tested in Study 3 varied from Study

2. In combination, these findings led us to test how psychological ownership, defection expectations, and subordinate value work in concert with one another to affect employee guarding in the form of a three-way interaction. A second objective was to replicate the 13-item factor structure identified in Study 3. Thus, we carried out a fourth study of 227 managers to extend and functionally replicate core findings and factor structure of Studies 2 and 3. The sample description and data analyses for this fourth sample are available in the online supplemental materials. The findings show that psychological ownership, defection expectations, and perceived subordinate value interacted to influence both nurturing and persuasion forms of employee guarding in the form of a three-way interaction. The findings of Study 4 also confirm the 13-item two-factor structure confirmed in Study 3. In concert, the post hoc findings of Study 4 suggest that defection expectations and subordinate value moderate the relationship between manager psychological ownership and both forms of employee guarding.

General Discussion

The purpose of this multistudy investigation was to provide the first conceptualization and measurement of territorial behaviors managers use to maintain ownership claims over their subordinate employees. We chose to focus on one facet of territorial behavior: anticipatory defense tactics utilized as a response to anticipated employee defection. Several important theoretical contributions derive from this research. First, in an extension to territoriality (Brown et al., 2014) and mate-guarding (Buss, 1988) theory and work, we found that managers engage in two forms of employee-guarding tactics, nurturing and persuasion, that aim to limit their subordinates' defection. Unlike other tangible and intangible possessions, human capital (embodied in subordinates) possesses unique agency (Bandura, 2001) that complicates efforts to erect physical and technological barriers to prevent infringement. Specifically, managers must defend ownership claims against rivals seeking their employees and their human capital while simultaneously influencing subordinates to remain in a contingent employment relationship. Our results suggest that managers protect their ownership claims by utilizing persuasion and nurturing tactics to create mental barriers that discourage employees from leaving. This contrasts with the mate-guarding literature (Buss, 1988), where individuals' repertoire of behaviors is directed at both the protected mate and potential interlopers.

Second, we found that psychological ownership is positively related to persuasion and nurturing forms of employee guarding, after controlling for other managerial influences on subordinates. This finding is consonant with recent research (i.e., Brown et al., 2014) demonstrating that psychological ownership is associated with the use of territorial behavior to protect nonagentic resources. Furthermore, although territorial behavior is known to occur in romantic relationships (e.g., Buss, 1988), our results suggest that territorial behavior also occurs as an outgrowth of psychological ownership in work relationships. Thus, mate guarding and employee guarding may well represent contextualized forms of relational territoriality.

Finally, we again tested the construct validity of our measure by investigating the role of managerial fear of infringement and target attributes that catalyze employee-guarding behavior in a global sample of managers and subordinates. Our findings reveal that employee-guarding nurturing and persuasion tactics are mobilized when managers expect subordinates to defect and that nurturing tactics vary as a function of subordinates' GMA. Thus, managers

are more likely to employ territorial tactics when they anticipate an infringement loss and to adapt tactics according to the intelligence of the subordinate in question. This finding suggests that managers make probability estimates regarding the estimated success of influence tactics and modify these tactics based on the anticipated response to such influence attempts. This result accords with social influence theory (Ferris, Treadway, Perrewé, Brouer, Douglas, & Lux, 2007; Jones, 1990) proposing that individuals regulate the use of influence tactics to maximize their effectiveness. However, to our knowledge, the present evidence is first to show that an individual's GMA affects how others attempt to influence the target. Beyond the immediate theoretical implications of this article to the territoriality literature, we also contribute to several related streams of research, which are next discussed.

Resource-Based View (RBV)

The RBV of the firm holds that human capital is a productive and valued resource over which organizations compete to gain competitive advantage (Gardner, 2005). Recent thought (Crook, Todd, Combs, Woehr, & Ketchen, 2011) proposes that organizations should increase the firm specificity of their human capital portfolio and offer organizational incentives to weaken employees' ability and will to leave. Our investigation highlights the previously unknown role managers attempt to play in the retention of specific employees, which offers an important theoretical contribution to RBV theory.

Downward Social Influence

Likewise, findings from this investigation extend theory in social influence by directly examining the tactics used by managers to prevent employees from defecting. Employee-guarding tactics inherently reflect downward influence attempts by managers to sway employee actions (e.g., Falbe & Yukl, 1992; Yukl & Falbe, 1990). Whereas prior research has evaluated the use of downward influence tactics in general, we evaluated tactics specifically intended by managers to limit defection of subordinates generally and specifically toward particular subordinates. Our results suggest that the manager's choice of influence tactics covaries partially as a function of employee characteristics. Notably, employee education and cognitive ability both predicted variation in manager's use of persuasion employee-guarding tactics, suggesting that managers more likely attempt persuasion on less educated and less intelligent employees.

Investigation Strengths and Limitations

This investigation exhibited numerous strengths that lend more credence to the validity of our findings. First, across multiple constructively replicated studies, we uncovered evidence that managers engage in employee-guarding behavior to limit employees' mobility and potential expropriation (i.e., defection). The use of replication boosts confidence in findings by reducing the likelihood that findings are context specific (Tsang & Kwan, 1999). Second, we developed and validated a measure of psychological ownership directed toward subordinates. Measures of psychological ownership to date have focused primarily on nonagentic possessions, and our measure demonstrated that managers do indeed possess feelings of psychological ownership over subordinates and act to defend human ownership claims.

Third, we incorporated theoretically specified variables that represent potential rival causal explanations for employee guarding, including manager self-monitoring, prosocial motivation, manager job autonomy (i.e., discretion), employee cognitive ability, employee-rated LMX, and educational attainment. The incorporation of this large set of controls enables us to draw inferences that employee guarding is not simply an artifact of manager personality, motivation, discretion, or other subordinate characteristics, providing stronger evidence regarding unique relationships between managers' psychological ownership of employees and their use of nurturing and persuasion forms of employee guarding.

Next, we tested the stability of employee guarding over time in Study 1, finding general stability in managerial reports equal to or greater than even predominant personality characteristics (cf., Positive and Negative Affect Schedule–Expanded; Watson & Clark, 1999). Because our measure asked about employee guarding over the prior 12-month period, the stability of employee guarding provides additional evidence for the validity of our findings. Finally, we incorporated an international survey of matched managers who reported on randomly selected subordinates in Study 3. The consistency of our results across nations and cultures suggests that employee guarding is a human behavioral manifestation not isolated to particular work contexts or cultures.

Despite these numerous strengths, our studies nonetheless suffer from various limitations. First, our field-study survey design precluded us from fully ascertaining causality in established relationships. Likewise, due to length concerns of our sponsoring organization, we had to use single-item measures in Study 3 and in the subsequent post hoc Study 4 sample, increasing potential measurement error. Finally, in generating the original set of employee-guarding items in Study 1, we used a deductive process and adapted human mate-guarding tactics (Buss, 1988) and organizational territoriality tactics (Brown et al., 2005). We might have generated additional tactics had we supplemented this with an inductive process whereby managers would describe the tactics they used to maintain ownership claims over defecting subordinates.

Areas of Future Research

Our pioneering inquiry and findings open the door for further development of the theory of territoriality in organizations. Future research should map the full domain of actual and anticipated employee infringements. To illustrate, managers may utilize anticipatory defense tactics with subordinates who seek to transfer to other parts of the organization, subordinates who receive or seek mentoring from other managers, or employees who, as part of their job responsibilities, span organizational boundaries.

Likewise, this investigation provides preliminary evidence regarding the construct validity of our employee-guarding measure and underlying mechanism of psychological ownership. With that said, development of this construct should continue in several ways. First, supervisor accounts of employee guarding as a “general” behavioral strategy may differ from employee guarding directed toward specific employees, and we would expect these estimates to be upwardly biased relative to idiosyncratic dyadic accounts of employee guarding. Thus, it may be insightful to ask about employee guarding from a subordinate's perspective, as is commonly done in leadership research (e.g., Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). We would expect some divergence between supervisor and subordinate accounts of employee-guarding

behavior, potentially as a function of ambiguous motives, attributions, or differences in situational analyses (e.g., Treadway, Ferris, Duke, Adams, & Thatcher, 2007).

Having identified strategies used by managers to protect valued employees, a critical next step is to explore the consequences of employee-guarding tactics. Scholars focusing on psychological ownership suggest that ownership feelings cause individuals to take care of and nurture the objects they own (Avey et al., 2009). However, the use of anticipatory defense tactics like those reported here may also be interpreted by some subordinates as manipulative or coercive and thus may prompt them to end the relationship (Brown & Robinson, 2007; Wilson & Daly, 1998). Thus, the possible outcomes of employee guarding can be summarized in a two-by-two matrix. Target employees may feel nurtured or manipulated, and the net result of employee guarding may be lower rates of defection or higher. The two most likely outcomes are that (a) employee guarding positively affects employees' attitudes and they become less likely to defect and (b) employees feel constrained by their managers and become more likely to defect (due to psychological reactance; Brehm, 1966). Along those lines, we would expect employee guarding to inversely relate to subordinate job embeddedness, turnover intentions, and turnover behavior and to be potentially strengthened in managers with high political skill (i.e., social influence ability; Treadway et al., 2007). Likewise, the use of employee-guarding tactics may improve the performance evaluations of managers who use them, particularly if these tactics are uniquely employed within organizations facing turnover pressure.

Finally, Hom, Mitchell, Lee, and Griffeth (2012) proposed that a pattern of withdrawal states, attitudes, and behaviors precedes voluntary turnover decisions. We expect that managers are able to observe and read these cues and signals (just as employees do when coworkers leave; Felts et al., 2009), thus inducing them to use employee-guarding behaviors. An important next step in building a theory of employee guarding will be to document and measure these cues and demonstrate their association with subsequent guarding behaviors. Such an investigation may also shed light on the relatively modest explanatory power of process models of turnover (Hom et al., 2012). As employees move through the process and behaviors of turnover, managers may read the relevant cues (Goffman, 1974: 162) and react effectively, reducing employee intentions to leave and thus reducing the explanatory power of established turnover antecedents (measured before managerial intervention). Modeling the role of turnover cues and employee-guarding behavior in affecting turnover will allow significant improvements in the accuracy of turnover models.

Conclusion

Drawing on territoriality and mate-guarding literatures, this multistudy investigation demonstrated that managers engage in employee-guarding behaviors aimed at limiting the defection of employees. In a series of constructively replicated studies, we identified the territorial tactics used by managers to guard employees, found that employee guarding covaries as a function of psychological ownership, and showed that employee-guarding tactics are catalyzed by anticipated employee defections, suggesting that employee guarding is a cognitive response by managers to exert control over their environment. Collectively, it is our hope that this investigation will stimulate further research into the tactics used by organizational actors to defend ownership claims over agentic human capital.

References

- Agarwal, R., Ganco, M., & Ziedonis, R. H. 2009. Reputations for toughness in patent enforcement: Implications for knowledge spillovers via inventor mobility. *Strategic Management Journal*, 30: 1349-1374.
- Aiken, L. S., & West, S. G. 1991. *Multiple regression: Testing and interpreting interactions*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Aime, F., Johnson, S., Ridge, J. W., & Hill, A. D. 2010. The routine may be stable but the advantage is not: Competitive implications of key employee mobility. *Strategic Management Journal*, 31: 75-87.
- Altman, I. 1970. Territorial behavior in humans: An analysis of the concept. In L. A. Pastalan & D. H. Carson (Eds.), *Spatial behavior of older people*: 1-24. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan.
- Altman, I. 1975. *The environment and social behavior: Privacy, personal space, territory, and crowding*. Monterey, CA: Brooks/Cole.
- Avey, J. B., Avolio, B. J., Crossley, C. D., & Luthans, F. 2009. Psychological ownership: Theoretical extensions, measurement and relation to work outcomes. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 30: 173-191.
- Baer, M., & Brown, G. 2012. Blind in one eye: How psychological ownership of ideas affects the types of suggestions people adopt. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Process*, 118: 60-71.
- Bandura, A. 2001. Social cognitive theory: An agentic perspective. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 52: 1-26.
- Barber, A. E. 1998. *Recruiting employees: Individual and organizational perspectives*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Batson, C. D. 1987. Prosocial motivation: Is it ever truly altruistic? In L. Berkowitz (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology*: 65-122. New York: Academic Press.
- Bjelland, M., Fallick, B., Haltiwanger, J., & McEntarfer, E. 2008. *Employer-to-employer flows in the United States* (Working Paper 13867). Cambridge, MA: National Bureau of Economic Research. Retrieved from <http://www.nber.org/papers/w13867>
- Borkenau, P., Mauer, N., Riemann, R., Spinath, F., & Angleitner, A. 2004. Thin slices of behavior as cues of personality and intelligence. *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology*, 86: 599-614.
- Boyatzis, R. E. 1982. *The competent manager: A model for effective performance*. New York: Wiley.
- Brehm, J. W. 1966. *A theory of psychological reactance*. New York: Academic Press.
- Brown, G. 2009. Claiming a corner at work: Measuring employee territoriality in their workspaces. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, 29: 44-52.
- Brown, G., Crossley, C. D., & Robinson, S. L. 2014. Psychological ownership, territorial behavior, and being perceived as a team contributor: The critical role of trust in the work environment. *Personnel Psychology*, 67: 463-485.
- Brown, G., Lawrence, T. B., & Robinson, S. L. 2005. Territoriality in organizations. *Academy of Management Review*, 30: 577-594.
- Brown, G., & Robinson, S. L. 2007. The dysfunction of territoriality in organizations. In J. Langan-Fox, C. L. Cooper, & R. J. Klimoski (Eds.), *Research companion to the dysfunctional workplace: Management challenges and symptoms*: 252-267. Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar.
- Brown, G., & Robinson, S. L. 2011. Reactions to territorial infringement. *Organization Science*, 22: 210-224.
- Buss, D. M. 1988. From vigilance to violence: Tactics of mate retention in American undergraduates. *Ethology and Sociobiology*, 9: 291-317.
- Buss, D. M. 2002. Human mate guarding. *Neuroendocrinology Letters*, 23(Special Issue), 23-29.
- Buss, D. M., & Shackelford, T. K. 1997. From vigilance to violence: Mate retention tactics in married couples. *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology*, 72: 346-361.
- Campbell, B. A., Coff, R., & Kryscynski, D. 2012. Rethinking sustained competitive advantage from human capital. *Academy of Management Review*, 37: 376-395.
- Chen, X.-P., Hui, C., & Segó, D. J. 1998. The role of organizational citizenship behavior in turnover: Conceptualization and preliminary tests of key hypotheses. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 83: 922-931.
- Coff, R. W. 1997. Human assets and management dilemmas: Coping with hazards on the road to resource-based theory. *Academy of Management Review*, 22: 374-402.
- Crook, T. R., Todd, S. Y., Combs, J. G., Woehr, D. J., & Ketchen, D. J. 2011. Does human capital matter? A meta-analysis of the relationship between human capital and firm performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 96: 443-456.
- Dienesch, R. M., & Liden, R. C. 1986. Leader-member exchange model of leadership: A critique and further development. *Academy of Management Review*, 11: 618-634.
- Dulebohn, J. H., Bommer, W. H., Liden, R. C., Brouer, R. L., & Ferris, G. R. 2012. A meta-analysis of antecedents and consequences of leader-member exchange: Integrating the past with an eye toward the future. *Journal of Management*, 38: 1715-1759.

- Dunn, W. S., Mount, M. K., Barrick, M. R., & Ones, D. S. 1995. Relative importance of personality and general mental ability in managers' judgments of applicant qualifications. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 80: 500-509.
- Edney, J. J. 1976. Human territories: Comment on functional properties. *Environment and Behavior*, 8: 31-47.
- Ellis, L. 1985. On the rudiments of possessions and property. *Social Science Information*, 24: 113-143.
- Falbe, C. M., & Yukl, G. 1992. Consequences for managers using single influence tactics and combinations of tactics. *Academy of Management Journal*, 35: 638-652.
- Felps, W., Mitchell, T. R., Hekman, D. R., Lee, T. W., Holtom, B. C., & Harman, W. S. 2009. Turnover contagion: How coworkers' job embeddedness and job search behaviors influence quitting. *Academy of Management Journal*, 52: 545-561.
- Ferris, G. R., Liden, R. C., Munyon, T. P., Summers, J. K., Basik, K. J., & Buckley, M. R. 2009. Relationships at work: Toward a multidimensional conceptualization of dyadic work relationships. *Journal of Management*, 35: 1379-1403.
- Ferris, G. R., Treadway, D. C., Perrewé, P. L., Brouer, R., Douglas, C., & Lux, S. 2007. Political skill in organizations. *Journal of Management*, 33: 290-320.
- Finn, M. V. 1988. Mate guarding in a Caribbean village. *Ethology and Sociobiology*, 9: 1-28.
- Frank, F. D., & Taylor, C. 2004. Talent management: Trends that will shape the future HR. *Human Resource Planning*, 27: 3-41.
- Friestad, M., & Wright, P. 1994. The persuasion knowledge model: How people cope with persuasion attempts. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 21: 1-31.
- Furby, L. 1978. Possessions: Toward a theory of their meaning and function throughout the life cycle. *Life Span Development and Behavior*, 1: 297-336.
- Gangestad, S. W., & Thornhill, R. 2004. Female multiple mating and genetic benefits in humans: Investigations of design. In P. M. Kappeler & C. P. van Schaik (Eds.), *Sexual selection in primates: New and comparative perspectives*: 90-113. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Gardner, T. M. 2005. Interfirm competition for human resources: Evidence from the software industry. *Academy of Management Journal*, 48: 237-256.
- Goetz, A. T., Shackelford, T. K., Weeks-Shackelford, V. A., Euler, H. A., Hoier, S., Schmitt, D. P., & LaMunyon, C. W. 2005. Mate retention: A preliminary investigation of tactics to prevent and correct female infidelity. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 38: 749-763.
- Goffman, E. 1974. *Frame analysis: An essay on the organization of experience*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Gottfredson, L. S. 1997. Why *g* matters: The complexity of everyday life. *Intelligence*, 24: 79-132.
- Graen, G. B., & Uhl-Bien, M. 1995. Relationship-based approach to leadership: Development of leader-member exchange (LMX) theory of leadership over 25 years. Applying a multi-level multi-domain perspective. *Leadership Quarterly*, 6: 219-247.
- Graham, W. J., & Cooper, W. H. 2013. Taking credit. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 115: 403-425.
- Grant, A. M. 2007. Relational job design and the motivation to make a prosocial difference. *Academy of Management Review*, 32: 393-417.
- Grant, A. M. 2008. Does intrinsic motivation fuel the prosocial fire? Motivational synergy in predicting persistence, performance, and productivity. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 93: 48-59.
- Grant, A. M., & Mayer, D. M. 2009. Good soldiers and good actors: Prosocial and impression management motives as interactive predictors of affiliative citizenship behaviors. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 94: 900-912.
- Hair, J. E., Anderson, R. E., Tatham, R. J., & Black, W. C. 1998. *Multivariate data analysis* (5th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Hambrick, D. C., & Mason, P. A. 1984. Upper echelons: The organization as a reflection of its top managers. *Academy of Management Review*, 9: 193-206.
- Hinkin, T. 1995. A review of scale development practices in the study of organizations. *Journal of Management*, 21: 967-988.
- Hobfoll, S. E. 1989. Conservation of resources: A new attempt at conceptualizing stress. *American Psychologist*, 44: 513-524.
- Hom, P. W., Mitchell, T. R., Lee, T. W., & Griffeth, R. W. 2012. Reviewing employee turnover: Focusing on proximal withdraw states and an expanded criterion. *Psychological Bulletin*, 138: 831-858.
- Idaszak, J. R., & Drasgow, F. 1987. A revision of the Job Diagnostic Survey: Elimination of a measurement artifact. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 72: 69-74.
- Jiang, B., Baker, R. C., & Frazier, G. V. 2009. An analysis of job dissatisfaction and turnover to reduce global supply chain risk: Evidence from China. *Journal of Operations Management*, 27: 169-184.

- Jones, E. E. 1990. *Interpersonal perception*. New York: Freeman.
- Kipnis, D., Schmidt, S. M., & Wilkinson, I. 1980. Intraorganizational influence tactics: Explorations in getting one's way. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 65: 440-452.
- Latham, G. P., & Pinder, C. C. 2005. Work motivation theory and research at the dawn of the twenty-first century. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 56: 485-516.
- Le, B., & Agnew, C. R. 2003. Commitment and its theorized determinants: A meta-analysis of the investment model. *Personal Relationships*, 10: 37-57.
- Lee, T. W., & Mitchell, R. 1994. An alternative approach: The unfolding model of voluntary employee turnover. *Academy of Management Review*, 19: 51-89.
- Lennox, R. D., & Wolf, R. N. 1984. Revision of the self-monitoring scale. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 46: 1349-1364.
- Liden, R. C., Wayne, S. J., & Stilwell, D. 1993. A longitudinal study on the early development of leader-member exchanges. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78: 662-674.
- Litwinski, L. 1947. The psychology of "mine." *Philosophy*, 22: 240-251.
- Long, C. P., Bendersky, C., & Morrill, C. 2011. Fairness monitoring: Linking managerial controls and fairness judgments in organizations. *Academy of Management Journal*, 54: 1045-1068.
- Low, B. S. 2003. Ecological and social complexities in human monogamy. In U. H. Reichard & C. Boesch (Eds.), *Monogamy*: 161-176. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Martin, D. L. 1972. Job property rights and job defections. *Journal of Law and Economics*, 15: 385-410.
- Mayhew, M. G., Ashkanasy, N. M., Bramble, T., & Gardner, J. 2007. A study of the antecedents and consequences of psychological ownership in organizational settings. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 147: 477-500.
- McKibbin, W. F., Starratt, V. G., Shackelford, T. K., & Goetz, A. T. 2011. Perceived risk of female infidelity moderates the relationship between objective risk of female infidelity and sexual coercion humans (*Homo sapiens*). *Journal of Comparative Psychology*, 125: 370-373.
- Morgeson, F. P., & Humphrey, S. E. 2006. The Work Design Questionnaire (WDQ): Developing and validating a comprehensive measure for assessing job design and the nature of work. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91: 1321-1339.
- Neal, A. M., & Lemay, E. P. 2014. How partner's temptation leads to their heightened commitment: The interpersonal regulation of infidelity threats. *Journal of Social & Personal Relationships*, 31: 938-957.
- Nunnally, J. C., & Bernstein, I. H. 1994. *Psychometric theory* (3rd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- O'Cass, A. 2000. A psychometric evaluation of a revised version of the Lennox and Wolfe revised self-monitoring scale. *Psychology and Marketing*, 17: 397-419.
- Phillips, D. J. 2002. A genealogical approach to organizational life chances: The parent-progeny transfer among Silicon Valley law firms, 1946-1996. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 47: 474-506.
- Piccolo, R. F., & Colquitt, J. A. 2006. Transformational leadership and job behaviors: The mediating role of job characteristics. *Academy of Management Journal*, 49: 327-340.
- Pierce, J. L., Kostova, T., & Dirks, K. T. 2001. Toward a theory of psychological ownership in organizations. *Academy of Management Review*, 26: 298-310.
- Pierce, J. L., Kostova, T., & Dirks, K. T. 2003. The state of psychological ownership: Integrating and extending a century of research. *Review of General Psychology*, 7: 84-107.
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. M., Lee, J., & Podsakoff, N. P. 2003. Common method variance in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88: 879-903.
- Rector, J. M. 2014. *The objectification spectrum: Understanding and transcending our diminishment and dehumanization of others*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Rousseau, D. M. 1989. Psychological and implied contracts in organizations. *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal*, 2: 121-139.
- Rousseau, D. M. 2004. Psychological contracts in the workplace: Understanding the ties that motivate. *Academy of Management Executive*, 18: 120-127.
- Rusbult, C. E. 1980. Commitment and satisfaction in romantic associations: A test of the investment model. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 16: 172-186.
- Rusbult, C. E. 1983. A longitudinal test of the investment model: The development (and deterioration) of satisfaction and commitment in heterosexual involvements. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 45: 101-117.
- Rusbult, C. E., & Farrell, D. 1983. A longitudinal test of the investment model: The impact on job satisfaction, job commitment, and turnover of variations in rewards, costs, alternatives, and investments. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 68: 429-438.

- Schmidt, F. L., & Hunter, J. E. 1998. The validity and utility of selection methods in personnel psychology: Practical and theoretical implications of 85 years of research findings. *Psychological Bulletin*, 124: 262-274.
- Snare, F. 1972. The concept of property. *American Philosophical Quarterly*, 9: 200-206.
- Snyder, M., & Gangestad, S. W. 1986. On the nature of self-monitoring: Matters of assessment, matters of validity. *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology*, 51: 125-139.
- Somaya, D., Williamson, I., & Lorinkova, N. 2008. Gone but not lost: The different performance impacts of employee mobility between cooperators versus competitors. *Academy of Management Journal*, 51: 936-953.
- Starratt, V. G., McKibbin, W. F., & Shackelford, T. K. 2013. Experimental activation of anti-cuckoldry mechanisms responsive to female sexual infidelity. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 55: 59-62.
- Starratt, V., & Shackelford, T. K. 2009. Mate guarding and poaching. In *Encyclopedia of human relationships*: 1067-1070. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Steel, R. 2002. Turnover theory at the empirical interface: Problems of fit and function. *Academy of Management Review*, 27: 346-360.
- Sue, V. M., & Ritter, L. A. 2012. *Conducting online surveys* (2nd ed.). Los Angeles: Sage.
- Sullivan, J. 2005. *The best practices of the most aggressive recruiting department*. Retrieved from <http://www.ere.net/2005/07/18/the-best-practices-of-the-most-aggressive-recruiting-department/>
- Sundstrom, E., & Altman, I. 1974. Field study of territorial behavior and dominance. *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology*, 30: 115-124.
- Taylor, R. B., & Brooks, D. K. 1980. Temporary territories? Responses to intrusions in a public setting. *Population and Environment*, 3: 135-145.
- Tews, M. J., Stafford, K., & Zhu, J. 2009. Beauty revisited: The impact of attractiveness, ability, and personality in the assessment of employment suitability. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 17: 92-100.
- Treadway, D. C., Ferris, G. R., Duke, A. B., Adams, G. L., & Thatcher, J. B. 2007. The moderating role of subordinate political skill on supervisors' impressions of subordinate ingratiation and ratings of subordinate interpersonal facilitation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92: 848-855.
- Tsang, E. W. K., & Kwan, K.-M. 1999. Replication and theory development in organizational science: A critical realist perspective. *Academy of Management Review*, 24: 759-780.
- Van Dyne, L., & Pierce, J. L. 2004. Psychological ownership and feelings of possession: Three field studies predicting employee attitudes and organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 25: 439-459.
- Wagner, S. H., Parker, C. P., & Christiansen, N. D. 2003. Employees that think and act like owners: Effects of ownership beliefs and behaviors on organizational effectiveness. *Personnel Psychology*, 56: 847-871.
- Watson, D., & Clark, L. A. 1999. *The PANAS-X: Manual for the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule-Expanded form*. Iowa City: University of Iowa.
- Webster, J., Brown, G., Zweig, D., Connelly, C. E., Brodt, S., & Sitkin, S. 2008. Beyond knowledge sharing: Withholding knowledge at work. *Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management*, 27: 1-37.
- Wezel, F. C., Cattani, G., & Pennings, J. M. 2006. Competitive implications of interfirm mobility. *Organization Science*, 17: 691-709.
- Wilson, M., & Daly, M. 1998. Lethal and nonlethal violence against wives and the evolutionary psychology of male sexual proprietariness. In R. E. Dobash & R. P. Dobash (Eds.), *Rethinking violence against women*: 199-228. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Wonderlic & Associates. 2012. *Wonderlic cognitive ability test family*. Vernon Hills, IL: Author.
- Yukl, G., & Falbe, C. M. 1990. Influence tactics in upward, downward, and lateral influence attempts. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 75: 132-140.