

1 **Abstract**

2 This study focuses on striving for achievement as an important antecedent forming  
3 Organizational-Based Self-Esteem (OBSE) and the relationship between achievement striving  
4 and turnover intention in the hospitality industry. More specifically, employees with higher  
5 achievement striving traits show a stronger negative correlation between OBSE and turnover  
6 intention, through organizational commitment. An online survey was distributed to restaurant  
7 employees; 160 valid responses were analyzed. An analytic framework based on confirmatory  
8 factor analysis and logic regression was used to examine the hypotheses. The results show that  
9 organizational commitment fully mediated the relationship between OBSE and turnover  
10 intention, and higher levels of individual achievement striving significantly modified the  
11 conditional indirect relationship. The results showed that the mediation model and achievement  
12 striving strength accounted for 15.7% of the variance in turnover intention at the 50th, 75th, and  
13 90th level and was most effective for low OBSE employees. Theoretical implications and future  
14 research are included.

15  
16 *Keywords:* Organizational-based self-esteem, Turnover intention, Achievement striving, Trait  
17 activation

19 **Are employees with higher Organizational-Based Self-Esteem less likely to quit?**

20 **A moderated mediation model**

21 **1. Introduction**

22 Organizational-Based Self-Esteem (OBSE) is the degree to which an individual believes  
23 he/she is a capable, significant, and worthy member of an organization (Pierce et al., 1989).

24 OBSE affects physical health, life satisfaction, and family/social relationships (Brough et al.,  
25 2009). Employees working in the restaurant frequent interact with customers, thus OBSE has  
26 become a subject of research among scholars as well as of interest to practitioners (Jung and  
27 Yoon, 2015; Karatepe, 2014; Suan and Nasurdin, 2014). The research has indicated that  
28 organizational members who believe they are important and competent have lower turnover  
29 intention than employees who believe they are not important or efficient (Pierce and Gardner,  
30 2004). This relationship between OBSE and turnover intention typically ranges between  $r = -.17$   
31 and  $-.49$  (Arshadi and Damiri, 2013; Bowden, 2002; Gardner and Pierce, 2001; Phillips and  
32 Hall, 2001; Riordan et al., 2001; Vecchio, 2000).

33 Hospitality administration is multi-national in nature, so comparing the existing model  
34 across cultures could identify the boundary conditions of the model constructs and lead to a  
35 more generalizable understanding of the theory.

36 Despite advances in our understanding that OBSE is linked with positive individual and  
37 organizational outcomes (Bakker, 2011; Bowling et al., 2010), research focusing on hospitality  
38 employees is still lacking (Lee et al., 2016). Recently there have been more studies directed  
39 toward the identification of the boundary conditions under which OBSE develops (Gardner and  
40 Pierce, 2013), thus explore the possibility with restaurant employees can help lead towards a  
41 more generalizable understanding of the theory. Furthermore, the direct and indirect

42 relationships between OBSE and turnover intention is still perplexing because of the suppression  
43 effect, where the magnitude of the relationship between the independent and dependent variable  
44 becomes larger when a third variable is included (Shrout and Bolger, 2002).

45         Previous studies have revealed that the level of OBSE varies based on individual  
46 empowerment cognition, personality, and levels of organizational commitment (Bowen and  
47 Lawler, 1992; Hom et al., 2012; Lapointe et al., 2011; Spreitzer, 1995). Empowerment cognition  
48 involves the perceived ability to control, be responsible for, and make decisions on work  
49 outcomes (Spreitzer, 1995). An important personality trait for empowerment cognition is  
50 achievement striving, defined as a continuous attempt to achieve and accomplish personal and  
51 professional goals (Friedman and Ulmer, 1984). When employees who have an achievement  
52 striving personality think they are empowered, they do have higher levels of commitment and  
53 self-esteem to perform job-related tasks (Lee et al., 1993; Schaubroeck and Williams, 1993). For  
54 example, Hom et al. (2012) proposed the Proximal Motivational State, which describes the  
55 appropriate triggering effect to form an intention that is compatible with the motivational state at  
56 the time. Although hospitality researchers have explored different motivational conditions, all  
57 have found different effects of mediation and moderation among different personal resources,  
58 organizational commitment, and job-related outcomes (Garg and Dhar, 2014; Jung and Yoon,  
59 2016; Karatepe, 2014, 2015; Karatepe et al., 2014; Terglav, Ruzzier and Kase, 2016; Tian et al.,  
60 2014; Xu et al., 2014). Few studies have attempted simultaneous analysis of these variables  
61 (Preacher et al., 2007) to address the suppression effect and further advance research in the area.

62         Recently, researchers have begun to investigate the impact of personality on the  
63 psychological well-being of employees (Jung and Yoon, 2016; Li et al., 2016; Vassou et al.,  
64 2017). Psychological well-being can be an important antecedent of employee turnover intention.

65 However, the restaurant industry suffers from an average turnover rate that increased from 66.7% in  
66 2014 to 72.1% in 2015 compared to a national average turnover rate of 45.9% in 2015  
67 (Department of Labor, 2016; National Restaurant Association [NRA], 2016). Each time an  
68 employee turns over, it costs restaurant operators nearly \$5,900 per employee (Jaffee, 2016;  
69 Tracey and Hinkin, 2006). Moreover, psychological exhaustion or burnout, the opposite of  
70 psychological well-being, causes low OBSE and less organizational commitment, contributing to  
71 poor employee self-efficacy and productivity as well as turnover (Dickerson, 2009; Jauhari,  
72 2006; Lu et al., 2016). Conversely, higher levels of psychological well-being create increased  
73 employee morale, less emotional exhaustion, and enhanced professional efficacy and  
74 productivity, thus reducing turnover (Han et al., 2016; Hancock et al., 2013; Hinkin and Tracey,  
75 2000; Jaffee, 2016; NRA, 2016; Lu and Gursoy, 2016). However, studies of relationship  
76 between OBSE and voluntary turnover behavior within the hospitality industry are lacking (Lee  
77 et al., 2016).

78 Despite the heavily investigated mediation and moderation effect of personality and  
79 organizational commitment within the broader business management literature, Meyer and  
80 Maltin (2010) reported conflicting evidence of the moderation effect of employee commitment  
81 on employee well-being and turnover-related behaviors. Most research within the existing  
82 management literature has focused on either student samples (Wu and Norman, 2006; Wheeler et  
83 al., 2014) or samples limited to a single profession (Albdour and Altarawneh, 2014; Morin et al.,  
84 2011). The theoretical and practical implications of employee commitment research could be  
85 strengthened by including participants of a variety of professions (Lee et al., 2000; Marin et al.,  
86 2010). Few studies within the hospitality literature explore the moderation effect of achievement  
87 striving on employee well-being and turnover-related behaviors. Of those studies, the findings

88 about the conditions of mediation and moderation remain unclear. Thus, our study should help  
89 specify which moderation and mediation conditions of employee commitment affect the  
90 relationships between employee well-being and turnover-related behaviors (Hancock et al., 2013;  
91 Morin et al., 2015).

92 One moderated mediation model has been developed (Edwards and Lambert, 2007;  
93 Muller et al., 2005; Preachers et al., 2007) that jointly examines organizational commitment as  
94 the mediating mechanism and achievement striving traits as the moderator, to enhance the  
95 validity and precision of the Organizational Commitment Theory for stable personality traits  
96 (Pierce et al., 1989; Pierce & Gardner, 2004). The purpose of our study was to determine if  
97 achievement striving moderates the mediating effect of organizational commitment on the  
98 relationship between OBSE and turnover intentions and if the negative relationship between  
99 OBSE and turnover intention through organizational commitment is stronger for employees with  
100 higher achievement striving traits.

101

## 102 **2. Literature review**

### 103 *2.1. Organizational-Based Self-Esteem (OBSE) and turnover intention*

104 For many, work and career are an important part in defining who they are, in their  
105 experience, and in their relationships with others. Work and career affect physical well-being  
106 and psychological functioning (Diener, 1984; Ryff, 1989). The work environment often  
107 generates perceptions of self-competence or incompetence, which are often referred to as OBSE.

108 Derived from Coopersmith's (1967) conceptualization of global self-esteem, OBSE is a  
109 domain-specific facet of self-esteem. People develop domain-specific facets of self-esteem in  
110 many of life's roles (parent, child, student, employee, etc.), which when aggregated, form

111 individual global self-esteem (Rosenberg et al., 1995). Individuals with high OBSE perceive  
112 themselves as trusted, valued, and contributing members of an organization. In addition,  
113 evidence shows that workplace well-being is shaped by intra-organizational forces and the  
114 employee's disposition (Brough et al., 2009; Danna and Griffin, 1999). One strong intra-  
115 organizational force is organizational commitment, the focus on work and organizational  
116 conditions that promotes work-related attitudinal, motivational, and behavioral effects (Judge  
117 and Bono, 2001; Meyer et al., 2004). Organizational conditions that promote feeling personally  
118 competent show the relationship between disposition and work-related behavior, which supports  
119 an examination of personality traits of OBSE and employee turnover intention.

120 Tharenou and Harker (1982, 1984) suggested that employees want to do well, which is  
121 among the most consistent correlates of individual assessments of work competence and  
122 perceptions of self-worth. Organizational members who believe they are important and  
123 contributing to the organization often develop organizational-specific self-esteem, considered a  
124 positive intra-organizational force that reduces turnover intention and voluntary turnover (Meyer  
125 et al., 2004; Pierce and Gardner, 2004). Specifically, effectively performing a job helps to  
126 maintain high self-perceptions among employees, whereas performing a job poorly allows  
127 individuals with low self-esteem to maintain their negative self-perceptions (Judge and Bono,  
128 2001; Tett and Guterman, 2010). Existing business literature supports a negative relationship  
129 between OBSE and voluntary turnover behavior (Arshadi and Damiri, 2013; Gardner and Pierce,  
130 2001; Lapointe et al., 2011).

131 *H<sub>1</sub>: Employee OBSE negatively predicts employee's turnover intention.*

132

133 2.2. The mediating role of organizational commitment

134 Organizational commitment refers to an employee's psychological attachment to an  
135 organization (Meyer and Allen, 1991; Meyer and Herscovitch, 2001). According to Meyer and  
136 Maltin (2010), the key to higher levels of commitment is to satisfy the basic psychological needs  
137 of employees. High commitment can be achieved by motivating employees who are predisposed  
138 to motivation but ultimately depends on creating work content that affords satisfaction and  
139 contributes to positive work esteem (Meyer and Maltin). Moreover, individuals with high levels  
140 of OBSE hold positive images of themselves, thus bolstering their commitment to the  
141 organization (Bowling et al., 2010; Gardner and Pierce, 2016). Previous meta-analysis  
142 combining data from 24 studies of OBSE found employees with high OBSE were strongly  
143 influenced to commit to their places of employment (Bowling et al., 2010). Kostova et al. (1997)  
144 found that OBSE partly mediates the relationship between the perception of level of influence in  
145 an organization and employee organizational commitment. Therefore, successful work-related  
146 experience that boosts self-esteem and bonding (i.e., positive organizational commitment)  
147 strengthens the relationship between employees and organization, thus leading to positive work-  
148 related outcomes and the potential for reducing turnover (Gardner and Pierce, 2016; Meyer,  
149 2013).

150 The degree to which an employee commits to an organization is associated with  
151 decreased levels of turnover intention. Employee commitment has long been of interest to both  
152 academics and hospitality managers because of the implications for employee retention (Kim et  
153 al., 2005; Kim and Brymer, 2011; Tett and Meyer, 1993). Kang et al. (2015) conducted a study  
154 of hospitality employees, reporting that committed employees do not leave their place of  
155 employment. Kim et al. (2016) found a similar relationship among casino employees. Meyer

156 (2014) explicitly noted that the future of commitment research should focus on the importance of  
157 human motivation and personality, specifically integrating the Organizational Commitment  
158 Theory with relative reactions to situational contents for an evidence-based model of human  
159 motivation and encouraging more advanced analytic procedures to identify moderation and  
160 mediation (Kam et al., 2013; Meyer et al., 2013).

161 *H<sub>2</sub>: Organizational commitment will mediate the effect of OBSE on turnover intention.*

### 162 2.3. The moderating role of achievement striving

163 One important personality trait for restaurant employees is achievement striving (Bluen et  
164 al., 1990; Choi et al., 2014). Achievement striving is a common trait for those with a Type A  
165 personality (characterized as an individual who is more competitive, outgoing, ambitious,  
166 impatient, and/or aggressive). Type A personalities are consistently more committed to their  
167 organizations and are less likely to turnover (Caplan and Jones, 1975; Lee et al., 1993;  
168 Schaubroeck and Williams, 1993; Staw and Ross, 1987). In literature on the Type A  
169 personality, in facing stress and challenge, a Type A individual with achievement striving traits  
170 often outperforms those who do not possess these traits (Aziz et al., 2007; Bluen et al., 1990;  
171 Feather and Volkmer, 1991). Worsfold (1989) suggested that hospitality managers are more  
172 assertive, self-assured, and independent minded compared to managers in other professions.  
173 These characteristics closely resemble the profile of an individual with an achievement striving  
174 personality (Friedman and Rosenman, 1974; Matthews, 1985). Moreover, individuals with  
175 achievement striving personalities tend to join organizations that reward competitive individual  
176 effort, to take work and life seriously, and to be hard-driving (Spence et al., 1987; Turban and  
177 Keon, 1993). High levels of achievement striving in an employee provides stronger motivation,  
178 more satisfaction and commitment, better workgroup cohesion, more feelings of personal



179 success, less stress, and less turnover (Schneider, 1987; Weiner, 1994). Thus, we suggest  
180 achievement striving is relevant to OBSE and thus the strength of any job-related behavior.

181 *H<sub>3</sub>: Achievement striving will moderate the relationship between OBSE and turnover*  
182 *intention; the relationship will be stronger when achievement striving traits are*  
183 *higher.*

#### 184 2.4. Trait Activation Theory and moderated mediation

185 According to the Trait Activation Theory (Tett and Guterman, 2000), personality traits  
186 are consistent within an individual and distinctly different from others in some identifiable way.  
187 The principle of trait activation formalizes the trait-situation relationship; the behavioral  
188 expression of a trait entails situational stimuli that arouse expression of that trait (Kenrick and  
189 Funder, 1988). Furthermore, personality traits are responses to trait-relevant situational content  
190 at multiple levels (Tett and Burnmett, 2003). Barrick and Mount's (1991) examined 25 trait-  
191 performance combinations and found that 11 out of 25 combinations accounted for 75% or more  
192 of the variance in job performance, and 17 combinations accounted for more than 50% of the  
193 variance. Another study, conducted by Tett and Guterman (2000), found that in 50 scenarios that  
194 compared correlations between traits and their relevant situation strength. The study with 250  
195 trait-situation combinations concluded that trait expression as intent depended on the relevance  
196 of the situation to the target trait. Basically, the situation was the prime mover in expressing  
197 personality traits. Despite investigating all trait-situation correlations, our focus was stable traits  
198 that predispose employee to react predictably if the trait is thematically connected to a specific  
199 organizational theme. Meyer et al. (2010) further explain this conceptualization by summarizing  
200 the literature on situational strength as it has been operationalized into four distinct  
201 organizational themes: (1) affective supervisory instructions: the extent to which work

202 instructions are available and easy to understand; (2) the extent to which work content is similar  
203 across organization areas (normative influences); (3) limits to individual freedom of decision and  
204 action as imposed externally (constraints of company policies and procedures); and (4) important  
205 positive or negative outcomes tied to particular work behaviors (turnover outcomes;  
206 Bouckenooghe et al., 2013).

207         The dimensions of organizational commitment (affective, normative, and continuous  
208 commitment) reflect the situational strength of multi-level operationalization and form distinct  
209 themes in measurements of trait-activation and performance (Meyer et al., 2010; Meyer et al.,  
210 2013; Tett et al., 2013). These distinct theme conditions are consistent with existing  
211 understandings on the Trait Activation Theory (Christiansen and Tett, 2008; Tett et al., 2013)  
212 and the Organizational Commitment Theory (Chen et al., 2016; Judge and Ilies, 2002; Kam et  
213 al., 2013; Meyer et al., 2013; Meyer and Maltin, 2010).

214         Although previous literature reflects how measuring personality traits can be used to  
215 predict job performance under certain conditions (e.g., Barrick & Mount, 1991; Hough, 1992;  
216 Salgado, 1997; Tett, Jackson, & Rothstein, 1991), a systematic consideration of how personality  
217 traits and situation affect behavior is lacking. The direct application of trait-situation relevance  
218 of this study would serve as a foundation for further research into (a) identifying cues associated  
219 with the expression of particular traits; (b) trait-related cognitive sensitivity and skills mediating  
220 between perception of situation and actual performance; (c) individual differences in situation  
221 perception; (d) the conditions that affect the transparency of trait-relevant cues; and (e) the  
222 effects of competing trait-relevant cues on trait expression (Christiansen and Tett, 2008; Tett and  
223 Burnett, 2003; Tett et al., 2013).

224         *H4: Achievement striving traits will moderate the indirect effect of OBSE on turnover*

225 *intention (through organizational commitment), such that organizational commitment*  
226 *will mediate relationships when trait-situation relevance is high but not when it is*  
227 *low.*

228

### 229 **3. Methodology**

#### 230 *3.1. Sample and data collection*

231 Before the pilot test, face validity was ensured using an expert panel with four members  
232 drawn from current restaurant employees and hospitality educators. To ensure content clarity  
233 and internal reliability of the scale, an online pilot test was then conducted among 72 restaurant  
234 employees with 50 valid responses collected from Sep 20, 2016, to Sep 22, 2016. Internal  
235 reliability was determined using Cronbach's Alpha ( $> .7$ ) (Nunnally, 1970).

236 Data collection for the main study was conducted by an online marketing company to  
237 ensure reaching restaurant employees for all four restaurant types: quick service, fast casual,  
238 casual dining, and fine dining. To achieve demographic diversity, employees working in  
239 different states of the U.S. were targeted to control potential common variance biases (Podsakoff  
240 et al., 2003). Each participant was assigned an anonymous randomized code to ensure privacy  
241 and increase response rate. Those who participated in the pilot study were excluded, and a  
242 geographic IP restriction was used to ensure no devices outside the U.S. could access the  
243 questionnaire. A two-wave data distribution method controlled for potential common methods  
244 biases (Podsakoff et al., 2003). The first data collection period started on Oct 4, 2016, and  
245 finished on Oct 19, 2016, and yielded a total of 182 responses. The second data distribution  
246 started on Oct 31, 2016, and finished on Nov 2, 2016, with a total of 64 responses.

247 Three prescreening questions and four attention check questions were embedded in the  
248 questionnaire to ensure the quality of the data and avoid fraudulent responses. Respondents who  
249 completed less than 95% of the questionnaire and participants from any non-traditional  
250 restaurants like ice-cream shops or community delis were dropped.

### 251 3.2. Measures

252 The survey instrument for this study had four parts with a total of 53 questions; model  
253 constructs were rated on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5  
254 (*strongly agree*). Reverse coded questions were used to improve accuracy of measurement.

255 *Organizational-Based Self-Esteem* was assessed using ten items from Pierce et al.'s  
256 (1989). Some of the items included "I am taken seriously around here" and "I am a valuable part  
257 of this place."

258 *Organizational Commitment* was measured using 21 items adapted from Allen and  
259 Meyer's (1990) three-component multi-item scale. The scale has been recognized as the leading  
260 model for organizational commitment, combining different components of psychological  
261 commitment to form an assessment of overall commitment (Becker, 2005; Mathieu and Zajac,  
262 1990; Meyer and Allen, 1991; Mowday et al., 1982, 2013; Weiner and Vardi, 1996). Sample  
263 items included "This restaurant has a great deal of personal meaning for me" and "Too much in  
264 my life would be disrupted if I decided to leave this restaurant now."

265 *Achievement striving* was assessed using six items from Spence et al.'s (1989) revised  
266 Jenkins' Activity Survey. Some items included "My best friends or others who know me well  
267 will rate me as very active" and "I often set deadlines or quotas for myself in work or other  
268 activities."

269            *Turnover Intention* items were measured using four items developed by Kelloway et al.  
270 (1999). Sample items are “I am thinking about leaving this organization.” and “I am planning to  
271 look for a new job.”

272            Participant demographic information (age, gender, and education level) and job-related  
273 information (types of restaurant, years in the industry, and job status) were also collected as  
274 control variables (Becker et al., 1996). More detailed measurement items can be found in  
275 supplement files appendix Table 1.

### 276 *3.3. Scale validity and purification*

277            Maximum likelihood factor analysis using an oblique (Promax) rotation was conducted  
278 on the 43 items within the model construct scales and ensured all constructs loaded together  
279 based on eigenvalue greater than 1.0. Items with low communalities ( $< .4$ ), and significant  
280 cross-loadings ( $> .45$ ;  $< .5$ ) were dropped to increase accuracy of measurement (Hair et al.,  
281 2010).

282            Because of low communalities, two items in the organizational commitment scale were  
283 dropped. These included “One of the major reasons I continue to work for this restaurant is that  
284 leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice—another restaurant may not match the  
285 overall benefits I have here,” and “Things were better in the days when people stayed in one  
286 company for most of their careers.”

287            Five items in the organization-based self-esteem scale were dropped for significant cross-  
288 loadings: “There is faith in me around here,” “I am trusted around there,” “I am helpful around  
289 here,” “I am efficient around here,” and “I am cooperative around here,”. Two items of  
290 achievement striving were dropped for significant cross-loading: “Compared with my coworkers,

291 the amount of work I put forth is much more,” and “Compared with other workers, I approach  
292 work in general much more seriously”.

293         Once changes were complete, the final questionnaire included 33 items and had a Kaiser-  
294 Meyer-Olkin value of .84, with significant Bartlett’s test of Sphericity ( $p < .001$ ) indicating  
295 sufficient correlations among selected variables (Hair et al., 2010; Worthington and Whittaker,  
296 2006).

### 297 *3.4. Data analysis*

298         Statistical analyses were conducted using IBM SPSS Statistics 21.0 and SPSS AMOS 21  
299 (IBM-SPSS Inc, Armonk, NY). Missing data were replaced using the Hot Deck Imputation  
300 Procedure (Myers, 2011). Age, gender, and job position were used as anchor variables in the  
301 Hot Deck Imputation. Confirmatory factor analyses were used to establish the psychometric  
302 properties of the study scales. The goodness-of-fit of the structural regression models was  
303 evaluated using the comparative fit index (CFI) and Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) with values of  
304 0.90 to 0.95 as indicators of a good fit (Hu and Bentler, 1999).

305         The hypothesized moderated mediation model was tested using the PROCESS macro  
306 developed for SPSS (Hayes, 2016). Because of restrictions in degrees of freedom, as determined  
307 by the number of observed indicators and the sample size, a latent variable approach was deemed  
308 not appropriate for testing moderated mediation. As an alternative, PROCESS uses an ordinary  
309 least square (OLS) or logistic regression-based path analytical framework to estimate indirect  
310 effects in both unmoderated and moderated mediation models with a single or multiple mediators  
311 and moderators (Hayes, 2016). Bootstrap estimation methods were applied for inferences on  
312 indirect effects in both unmoderated and moderated mediation models. In small samples, the t-  
313 distribution used by an OLS-regression procedure is more appropriate for deriving p-values for

314 regression coefficients (Hayes, 2016).

315

## 316 4. Results

### 317 4.1. Sample profile

318 The final data set had 160 valid responses. The sample size satisfied a post hoc sample  
319 size analysis based on fixed model linear regression with five predictors with power set at  $(1-\beta$   
320  $> .99)$ , alpha  $(p < 0.001)$ , and a medium effect size  $(d > 0.5)$  (Faul et al., 2007). Participants  $(N =$   
321  $160)$  were approximately equally distributed between males and females with a mean age of 33.3  
322 years. Most participants were single (44.4%) with some college credits (no degree) (47.5%), and  
323 most of the participants (31.3%) were employed in fast food restaurants full-time (71.3%). The  
324 profiles of participants are in Table 1.

325

**Table 1**

326

**Profile of respondents  $(N = 160)$**

	<i>n</i>	<i>%</i>		<i>n</i>	<i>%</i>
<b><i>Gender</i></b>			<b><i>Position</i></b>		
Male	79	49.4	Full time	114	71.3
Female	80	50.0	Part time	43	26.9
<b><i>Age</i></b>			<b><i>Restaurant type</i></b>		
18 - 20	5	3.1	Fast food	50	31.3
21 - 30	83	51.9	Fast casual	35	21.9
31 - 40	37	23.1	Casual dining	50	31.3
41 - 50	14	8.8	Fine dining	25	15.6
51 - 60	15	9.4	<b><i>Years working in restaurant</i></b>		
> 60	5	3.1	Less than 1 year	18	11.3
<b><i>Marital Status</i></b>			2 years	18	11.3
Single	71	44.4	3 years	24	15.0
Married	62	38.8	4 years	16	10.0
Widowed	4	2.5	5 years	20	12.5
Divorced/ Separated	22	13.8	6 years	15	9.4
<b><i>Education</i></b>			7 years	6	3.8
Some high school	3	1.9	8 years	10	6.3
High school graduate	21	13.1	9 years	2	1.3
Some college credits	76	47.5	10 years	4	2.5
Bachelor's degree	48	30.0	More than 10 years	27	16.9
Graduate degree	11	6.9			

327 Note: Responses may not equal 100% due to non-response to a question.

328

329 *4.2. Descriptive results and reliability check*

330 The construct means, standard deviations, Cronbach's alpha, and inter-correlations for all

331 constructs are in Table 2. Results showed four factors with Eigenvalues over 1, explaining

332 58.4% of the variance with good reliability scores (all greater than 0.7) (Nunnally, 1970).



333

334

**Table 2**335 **Descriptive, bivariate correlations, factor structure, and reliability**

Constructs	<i>N</i>	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5
1. OBSE	160	3.91	.83	-	.443 <sup>***</sup>	.379 <sup>***</sup>	-.306 <sup>***</sup>	.858 <sup>***</sup>
2. OgC	160	3.11	.71		-	.260 <sup>**</sup>	-.362 <sup>***</sup>	.413 <sup>***</sup>
3. AS	160	3.96	.73			-	.006	.773 <sup>***</sup>
4. ToI	160	3.15	1.20				-	-.238 <sup>**</sup>
5. OBSE X AS	160	15.70	4.88					-
<i>Cronbach's Alpha</i>				.887	.886	.784	.924	
<i>Eigenvalue</i>				2.133	14.132	1.335	4.086	
<i>Explained variance</i>				5.427	39.618	2.915	10.442	

336 *Note:* OBSE = Organizational Based Self-esteem; OgC = Organizational Commitment; AS = Achievement Striving; ToI = Turnover  
 337 Intention; *a* = Cronbach's Alpha; Gender 1= Male, 2 = Female; Years = Years working in the restaurant

338 *Note:* each items rated on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

339 <sup>\*\*\*</sup>*p* < .001; <sup>\*\*</sup>*p* < .01; and <sup>\*</sup>*p* < .05 (two-tailed test).

340

341

342 4.3. *Common methods bias*

343 Correlational marker technique with common latent factor was used to investigate  
344 potential common method variance among with the study variables (Podsakoff et al., 2003). The  
345 Chi-square difference test compared constraint model with marker variable ( $\chi^2[473] = 672.972$ ,  
346  $p < 0.0001$ ) with the unconstraint model ( $\chi^2[333] = 517.415$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ ), and the results  
347 indicated no significant differences between two models ( $\Delta\chi^2[140] = 155.56$ ,  $p = 0.174$ ).

348 Additional Harman's single-factor test shown all study items in a fixed one-factor  
349 unrotated factor analysis explained a total variance of 27.4%. Therefore, both of the findings  
350 provided no indication of common method variance (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

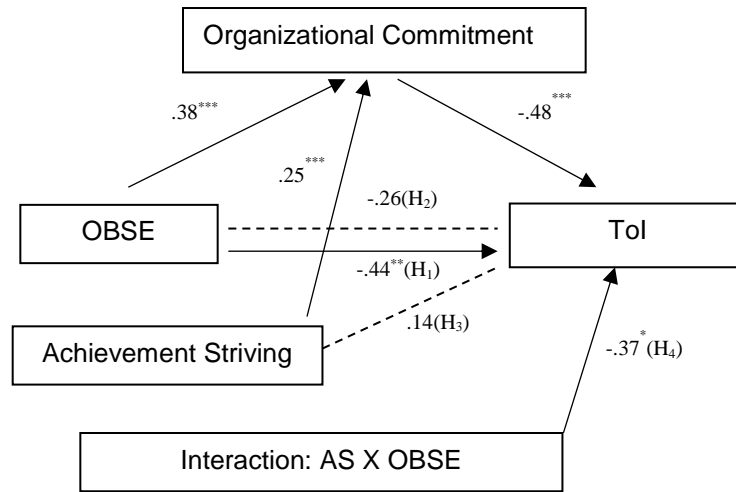
351 4.4. *Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA)*

352 Before using the various scales for regression analyses, a confirmatory factor analysis  
353 was conducted using covariance matrix and maximum likelihood estimation to assess the  
354 discriminant validity of the substantive constructs measured in this study. Results of the  
355 proposed six-factor structure (Affective, continuous, and normative commitment, OBSE,  
356 achievement striving, and turnover intention) demonstrated good fit with the data ( $\chi^2[477] =$   
357  $753.61$ ,  $\chi^2/df = 1.58$ ,  $GFI = .80$ ,  $CFI = .91$ ,  $PCFI = .82$ , and  $RMSEA = .06$ ) (Hu and Bentler,  
358 1999). The significance of the coefficients of the paths between the predictors and the dependent  
359 variables were then examined, and the path coefficient and error variance were fixed (Hair et al.,  
360 1998). Convergent and discriminant validity for all the constructs were also assessed using  
361 Composite Reliability ( $CR > 0.7$ ), Average Variance Extracted ( $AVE > 0.45$ ), Maximum Shared  
362 Variance ( $MSV < AVE$ ), Average Shared Variance ( $ASV < AVE$ ), and square root of AVE greater  
363 than inter-construct correlations (Hair et al., 2010; Malhotra and Dash, 2011). Taken together,  
364 the evidence supports the convergent and discriminant validity of the measurement model.

365 4.5. Mediation hypothesis test

366 According to Baron and Kenny (1986), four conditions are necessary to establish  
367 mediation: (a) the independent and mediating variables should be significantly related; (b) the  
368 independent and dependent variables should be significantly related; (c) the mediator and  
369 dependent variable should be significantly related; and (d) the relationship between the  
370 independent variable and dependent variable must be nonsignificant or weaker when the  
371 mediator is added. Results indicated that OBSE was a significant predictor of overall  
372 organizational commitment ( $b = .38, SE = .06, p < .001$ ), overall organizational commitment was  
373 a significant predictor of turnover intention, ( $b = -.62, SE = .13, p < .001$ ), and OBSE was a  
374 significant predictor of turnover intention, ( $b = -.44, SE = .11, p < .001$ ). Thus, result supported  
375 hypothesis 1, employee OBSE negatively predicts turnover intention. Thus, restaurant  
376 employees with high levels of OBSE engage in fewer withdrawal behaviors (quitting, absence,  
377 tardiness) than those with lower-levels of OBSE. These results support the basic needs outlined  
378 by Baron and Kenny (1986) for mediation hypothesis. OBSE was no longer a significant  
379 predictor of satisfaction after controlling for the mediator ( $b = -.26, SE = .15, p = .09$ ), so  
380 organizational commitment is considered as a full mediator. OBSE accounted for 15.7% of the  
381 variance in turnover intention using the mediator compared with only 9% of the variance without  
382 mediation. The conditional indirect effect was tested using a bootstrap estimation approach with  
383 5,000 resamples (Shrout and Bolger, 2002). Results indicated the indirect coefficient was  
384 significant ( $b = -.15, SE = .06, 95\% CI = -.334, -.066$ ). Therefore, hypothesis 2 is supported.  
385 Turnover intention was associated with lower scores (by .33 points) as mediated by  
386 organizational commitment. The results on mediation testing are graphically displayed in Figure  
387 1.

388 **Fig. 1. Study model: Full organizational commitment mediation model with moderation**  
 389 **interactions of achievement striving and OBSE (N = 160)**



390

391 Note: AS = Achievement Striving; OBSE = Organizational-Based Self-Esteem; ToI = Turnover Intention  
 392 \*\*\* $p < .001$ ; \*\* $p < .01$ ; and \* $p < .05$  (two-tailed test).

393

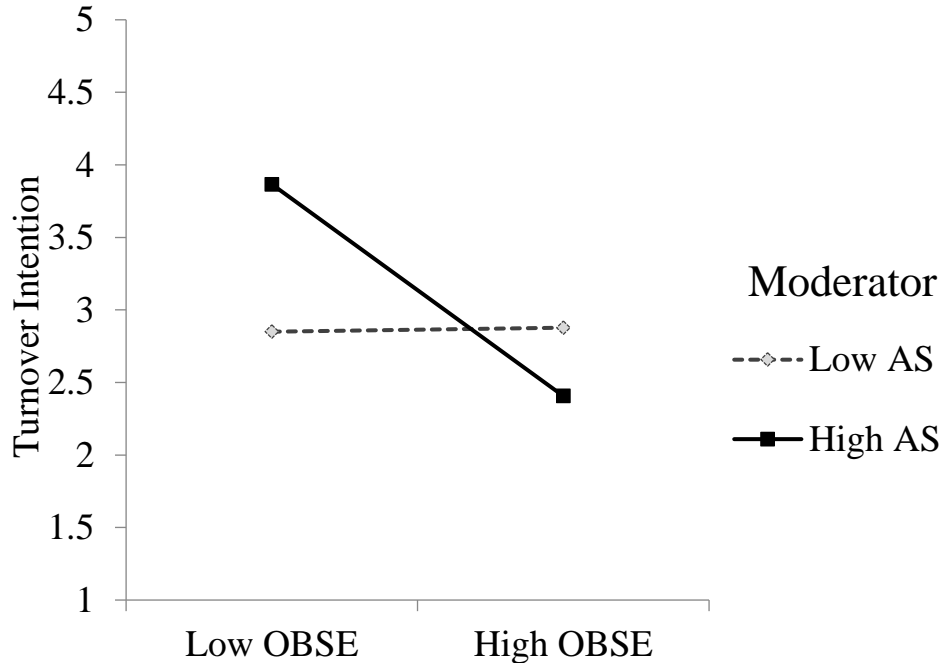
394 *4.6. Analyses of the moderated mediation model*

395 The mediation analysis provided evidence that OBSE had a negative indirect effect on  
 396 turnover intention through organizational commitment, when OBSE was associated with lower  
 397 achievement striving traits, which in turn was related to higher levels of turnover intention.  
 398 When OBSE showed low achievement striving traits, organizational commitment did not seem  
 399 to mediate relationships between OBSE and turnover intention. This indicated that lower  
 400 achievement striving traits indicated a weaker relationship between OBSE and turnover intention  
 401 and organizational commitment had a weaker influence on turnover intention.

402 Moderation analysis shows that OBSE's effect on turnover intention depended on the  
 403 level of achievement striving, with OBSE having a stronger effect among those with higher level  
 404 achievement striving traits. Figure 2 shows the moderating effect of achievement striving on  
 405 turnover intention. Thus, result supported the hypothesis 3.

406

407 **Fig. 2. The moderating effect of achievement striving on OBSE and turnover intention with**  
 408 **organizational commitment (N = 160)**  
 409



410 Note: AS = Achievement Striving; OBSE = Organizational-Based Self-Esteem  
 411 \*\*\* $p < .001$ ; \*\* $p < .01$ ; and \* $p < .05$  (two-tailed test).  
 412

413  
 414 Putting these two findings together shows that mediation is moderated; the indirect effect  
 415 of OBSE on turnover intention through organizational commitment depended on levels of  
 416 achievement striving traits. In such a situation, Preacher et al. (2007) recommends estimating  
 417 conditional indirect effects and testing, using a bootstrap confidence interval, whether these  
 418 indirect effects differ from zero at specific values of a moderator of practical or theoretical  
 419 interest or relevance. Therefore, we calculated bootstrap confidence intervals with 5,000  
 420 resamples to determine the values of the moderator (i.e., achievement striving) at which the  
 421 conditional indirect effect was significant. As Table 3 shows, the indirect association between  
 422 achievement striving and OBSE through organizational commitment was significant for the 50th,  
 423 75<sup>th</sup>, and 90<sup>th</sup> percentile of the moderator. Thus, the results supported hypothesis 4 and indicated

424 that achievement striving has moderate the indirect effect of OBSE on turnover intention  
 425 (through organization commitment). Specifically, organizational commitment has mediated  
 426 relationships when level of achievement striving is high but not when it is low.

427 **Table 3**

428 **Conditional indirect effect of organizational commitment on OBSE through turnover**  
 429 **intention with achievement striving as a moderator. ( $N = 160$ ; Bootstrap resamples =**  
 430 **5000, Unstandardized coefficients).**

Predictor	<i>b</i>	SE	95% SE
<i>Mediator variable model (DV = OgC)</i>			
OBSE	.376***	.074	.231, .522
<i>Dependent variable model (DV = Turnover Intention)</i>			
OgC	-.562***	.141	-.842, -.283
OBSE	-.358**	.112	-.580, -.137
AS	.979	.139	-.139, .412
OBSE * AS	-2.53*	.147	-.662, -.081
<i>Conditional direct effect at different values of the moderator</i>			
Values of the moderator	<i>b</i>	Bootstrapped SE	95% BCa CI
10 <sup>th</sup> percentile	-.002	.199	-.394, .390
25 <sup>th</sup> percentile	-.188	.143	-.471, .095
50 <sup>th</sup> percentile	-.374**	.111	-.593, -.155
75 <sup>th</sup> percentile	-.560***	.122	-.802, -.318
90 <sup>th</sup> percentile	-.653***	.143	-.935, -.371
<i>Index of moderated mediation</i>	-.212***	.068	-.357, -.094

431 *Note:* OBSE = Organizational Based Self-esteem; OgC = Organizational commitment; AS =  
 432 Achievement striving; BCa CI = adjusted bootstrap confidence intervals  
 433 \*\*\* $p < .001$ ; \*\* $p < .01$ ; and \* $p < .05$ .  
 434

435 To determine whether these conditional and indirect relationships were influenced by  
 436 control variables, the analyses were repeated with age, gender, managerial position, and years in  
 437 the industry as covariates (Becker et al., 1996). Although the indirect and conditional  
 438 relationships were somewhat attenuated, these additional findings provided more support for  
 439 significant unconditional indirect ( $b = -.212$ ; 95% BCa CI =  $-.357, -.094$ ) and conditional indirect  
 440 associations ( $b = -.56$ ; 95% BCa CI =  $-.802, -.318$ ).

441 **5. Discussion**

442 The study adopted Preacher et al.'s (2008) estimation of conditional indirect effects to  
443 examine an integrated moderated mediation model and test moderated mediation hypotheses.  
444 Our findings, using data from restaurant employees, contribute to existing knowledge in three  
445 ways. First, the results offered support for the hypothesis that organizational commitment  
446 mediated the relationship between OBSE and turnover intention. In conjunction with Meyer's  
447 (2014) review, our study has broadened the current understanding of turnover intention by using  
448 the mediation model to show that organizational commitment mediates the effect of OBSE on  
449 turnover intention and that the relationship between employee OBSE and turnover intention  
450 becomes indirect when employees show psychological commitment to their employer.

451 Second, the results offered support for the hypothesis that achievement striving  
452 moderated the relationship between OBSE and turnover intention. This finding provides  
453 empirical evidence of Meyer and Maltin's (2014) concern about the considerable inconsistency  
454 about the moderation effect in the relationship between employee well-being and turnover  
455 related behaviors. This study demonstrated that achievement striving, a specific personality  
456 construct relevant to a supportive situation, accounted for the impact of employee OBSE on  
457 turnover intention, specifically that the relationship is stronger when achievement striving is  
458 higher. As in the Trait Activation Theory (Tett and Burnett, 2003), our study results revealed  
459 operationalization of achievement striving and its systematic conditions to form situation  
460 affected behaviors.

461 Finally, the analyses of integrated moderated mediation demonstrate general support for  
462 the hypothesis that achievement striving traits moderate the indirect effect of OBSE on turnover  
463 intention (through organizational commitment), specifically that organizational commitment

464 mediates these relationships when situational trait relevance is high. Our results demonstrated  
465 the generalized effect of full commitment on employee OBSE. The results address the missing  
466 role of context in the Trait Activation Theory, especially between the operationalized  
467 organizational commitment condition and specific achievement striving traits.

468 In combination with the Trait Activation Theory, this study shows that high levels of  
469 achievement striving bolstered the relationships among OBSE, organizational commitment, and  
470 turnover intention through a link between achievement striving traits and individual OBSE.  
471 Therefore, we have extended the understanding that employees with strong achievement striving  
472 traits have a positive impact on OBSE and motivation level (e.g., Gardner and Pierce, 2016;  
473 Pierce and Gardner, 2004; Yang et al., 2016). Notably, achievement striving affects work  
474 behavior more strongly at the 50<sup>th</sup>, 75<sup>th</sup>, and 90<sup>th</sup> percentiles. Therefore, higher levels of  
475 achievement striving (> 50%) significantly improved evidence of mediation. Overall, our results  
476 provided more empirical evidence for future discussions of proximal motivation mediators (Hom  
477 et al., 2012) in organizational content.

#### 478 *5.1. Theoretical implications*

479 Many studies have focused on turnover intention among hospitality employees (e.g., Tsui  
480 et al., 2013; Yang et al., 2016). Fewer studies have discussed how to promote OBSE with  
481 hospitality employee (Jung and Yoon, 2015; Karatepe, 2014; Suan and Nasurdin, 2014). The  
482 discussion about OBSE within the restaurant industry is rare. Especially, the proximal  
483 motivational mediators and conditional effects, moderated mediation or mediated moderation,  
484 remain ambiguous for the relationship among OBSE, employee personality, strength of  
485 condition, and turnover intention. In this study, we identified the full mediation effect of  
486 organizational commitment between employee work related self-esteem and turnover intention.



487 Moreover, our model narrowed down which facets of OBSE affected the mediation model and  
488 identified what achievement striving strength levels moderated the indirect effect in the  
489 mediation model. Study findings extend our understanding of how specific traits and job  
490 situation are related to one another in the Organizational Commitment Theory (Aziz et al., 2007;  
491 Lee et al., 2016; Lu et al., 2016). Employee well-being and turnover intention is affected by  
492 achievement striving personality traits, which are important conditional moderators of OBSE and  
493 turnover behavior.

#### 494 *5.2. Practical implications*

495 Managers in the hospitality industry often must cope with employee tardiness,  
496 absenteeism, and turnover, all of which are highly disruptive and expensive for managers and the  
497 organization (Jaffee, 2016; Tracey and Hinkin, 2006). Employees suffering from low levels of  
498 OBSE often avoid participating out of a fear of failure, thus shirking their opportunities for  
499 success, and further eroding their sense of self-worth. Our research argues that high levels of  
500 achievement striving at work can motivate employees, boosting their OBSE when organizational  
501 conditions are favorable. Our results show that restaurant employees with high levels of OBSE  
502 engage in fewer withdrawal behaviors (quitting, absence, tardiness) than their low-level OBSE  
503 counterparts. Managers who provide employees with more guidance on expressing and adopting  
504 achievement striving traits may see some improvement in less desirable behaviors. Previous  
505 research has linked workplace self-esteem to workplace wellbeing (Brough et al., 2009; Danna  
506 and Griffin, 1999). Managers can provide employees with enriched work that are meaningful  
507 and challenging, provide praise when they have done well, and give constructive criticism if  
508 necessary. Meanwhile, organizations can reduce turnover intention and voluntary turnover by  
509 providing relevant training programs that can help employees develop knowledge and skills that

510 help them succeed at jobs, thus boosting their OBSE (Pierce and Gardner, 2004). Our results  
511 indicate that good organizations have employees with high OBSE, high organizational bonding,  
512 and high level of achievement striving. Practically, managers can help employees adopt an  
513 achievement striving mentality to achieve their work-related goals and satisfaction. These  
514 mentalities offer clear courses of action for organizations and managers to increase employee  
515 self-esteem. For example, managers can place a greater emphasis on employee attitude by  
516 showing stronger motivation towards the current goal, emphasizing the function of tasks within  
517 the larger organization, provide feedback of better workgroup cohesion, and more feelings of  
518 personal success. Encouraging and maintain high levels of self-esteem among employees  
519 ultimately help the organization reduce turnover intentions. An analogy could be maintaining a  
520 campfire by first adding shavings, then kindling, and then wood until the fire burns hot:  
521 managers help employees use habitual striving behavior by coaching them, starting small and  
522 gradually working toward higher work-based self-esteem level while achieving larger  
523 organizational goals.

524

### 525 *5.3. Limitations and future research*

526 This study has several limitations that must be acknowledged. First, the data were  
527 collected with small sample size using only English-language survey, which may not fully reflect  
528 the demographic and sociographic population of restaurant employees in the United States.  
529 Future research should include replication studies to verify and confirm our results using a larger  
530 sample size with a variety of minority groups. The online survey used self-reported data in a  
531 cross-sectional design, although we controlled for common method biases through statistics and  
532 procedure remedies, there could be potentially common latent variables present among all

533 restaurant employees. Our findings are specific only to restaurant operations. Generalization of  
534 the results to other occupations should be approached with caution. Future research could focus  
535 on cross-occupation comparisons to form more broadly useful models. Hospitality  
536 administration is multi-national in nature, so comparing the existing model across cultures could  
537 identify the boundary conditions of the model constructs and lead to a more generalizable  
538 understanding of the theory. Although the literature suggests that achievement striving is a  
539 personality trait predominantly related with Type A behaviors (Feather and Volkmer, 1991), it  
540 is conceivable that other personality traits could potentially mediate between OBSE and  
541 turnover behavior. Shortcomings in recent meta-analysis and parsimonious taxonomy within  
542 the hospitality literature means our study is constrained by the constructs in the literature that  
543 limit the potential for generalizability. Finally, although authors adopted procedures to control  
544 common methods biases, given the cross-sectional nature of this study, study results should be  
545 interpreted with caution.

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