

21 offered practical implications on how to enhance psychological capital for ethnic minority
22 employees.

23

24 **Keywords:** Psychological capital, workplace happiness, work engagement, job satisfaction, job
25 commitment, ethnic minority, foodservice industry

26

1. Introduction

27 The foodservice industry is one of the most critical drivers of U.S. economics. The
28 National Restaurant Association [NRA] (2019) reports that 10% of the overall U.S. workforce is
29 currently employed in the foodservice industry. Jobs in the foodservice industry are among the
30 fastest-growing occupations in the U.S., and employment in the foodservice industry continues
31 to grow. Additionally, today's workforce in the foodservice industry is becoming increasingly
32 diverse. The Bureau of Labor Statistics (2015) reports that ethnic minority employees, such as
33 Hispanics and Latinos, account for 22.3% of the hospitality. However, racial and ethnic
34 inequalities are often observed in the foodservice industry. For instance, on average, white
35 employees were being paid \$3.71 more per hour in wages than ethnic minority employees (The
36 Aspen Institute, 2012). Researchers also found that ethnic minorities comprise about 52% of all
37 hourly, low-wage positions but only represent 20% of salaried management positions in the
38 hospitality industry (Jackson & DeFranco, 2005). Furthermore, many ethnic minority employees
39 reported that they had experienced discrimination in the hiring and promotion processes. A
40 report shows that 28% of the ethnic minority employees in the foodservice industry have been
41 passed over on promotion because of their ethnic background (The Aspen Institute, 2012).

42 The foodservice industry is a service-oriented, human-centered industry in which the
43 competitive advantages largely rely on the successful management of human capital (Karatepe &
44 Karadas, 2015; Newman, Ucbasaran, Zhu, & Hirst, 2014). As a form of strategic resources that
45 is closely related to employee performances, psychological capital has gained increasing
46 attention over the last few years (Ardichvili, 2011). Psychological capital, by definition, refers to
47 an individual's state of psychological development and consists of four positive resources: self-
48 efficacy, hope, optimism, and resilience (Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2002). Psychological

49 capital is especially important for ethnic minority employees, as they have been found more
50 likely to feel isolated and excluded at work and need organizational support to manage emotional
51 exhaustion from work (Chrobot-Mason, 2004; Findeler, Wind, & Barak, 2007; Peeters &
52 Oerlemans, 2009). Thus, enhancing their psychological capital not only can assist them in
53 managing work stress but also can assure the service quality and improve their overall job
54 performance and workplace happiness.

55 Recognizing the importance of psychological capital, an increasing number of hospitality
56 studies have been devoted to this area, examining the influence of psychological capitals on
57 employees' work engagement (Karatepe & Karadas, 2015; Paek et al., 2015), morale (Paek et al.,
58 2015), and turnover intentions (Bouzari et al., 2017; Karatepe & Karadas, 2014). Interestingly,
59 workplace happiness, which is an essential indicator of one's affective evaluation of work
60 experience (Fisher, 2010), has not been featured in these studies. Similarly, the foodservice
61 industry, which is labor-intensive and offers various work opportunities to ethnic minority
62 employees, has not been studied in-depth.

63 Accordingly, the purpose of this study was to examine the impacts of psychological
64 capital on the workplace outcomes of ethnic minority employees in the foodservice industry in
65 the U.S. This study particularly aims to (1) identify the current state of the psychological capitals
66 of ethnic minority employees in the foodservice industry; (2) develop and test a model to
67 examine the relationships among psychological capital, workplace happiness, and employee
68 outcomes; (3) examine the differences between salaried employees and hourly employees
69 regarding the proposed relationships.

70

71

2. Literature Review

72 **2.1 Psychological capital**

73 Psychological capital, “an individual’s positive psychological state of development”
74 (Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2007, p.3), has been recently receiving special attention in
75 hospitality management literature, as this construct has been found resulting in positive
76 organizational behaviors, such as increased job engagement and commitment (Karatepe &
77 Karadas, 2015). According to Luthans (2002), psychological capital can be measured, developed,
78 and even managed; developing psychological capital means enhancing the human resource
79 strengths and psychological capabilities of employees, which leads to improved organizational
80 outcomes at the workplace. Specifically, psychological capital can be reflected in the following
81 four dimensions: (1) self-efficacy, which refers to the confidence that employees have when
82 putting efforts to succeed in challenging tasks; (2) optimism, which is about how employees can
83 make positive contributions to current and future success; (3) hope, which refers to having goals
84 and persevering toward the goals to succeed; and (4) resiliency, which involves sustaining and
85 bouncing back when beset by problems and adversities to attain success (Luthans et al.,2007).

86 Most studies about psychological capital have focused on its impacts at the individual
87 level though some researchers started to investigate it at the organizational or team levels (Avey,
88 Luthans & Youssef, 2010; McKenny, Short, & Payne, 2013; Walumbwa, Luthans, Avey, & Oke,
89 2011). At the individual level, psychological capital has been found to have a positive impact on
90 employees’ personal lives as well as work lives (Baron, Franklin, & Hmieleski, 2013). For
91 example, researchers found that hospitality entrepreneurs’ psychological capital was positively
92 related to their overall well-being due to their capabilities in stress management (Baron,
93 Franklin, & Hmieleski, 2013). Another stream of research on psychological capital mainly
94 examined the relationship between psychological capital and workplace outcomes, such as job

95 performance and organizational citizenship behaviors (Newman, Ucbasaran, Zhu, & Hirst,
96 2014). The current study, considering the lack of research in the hospitality and foodservice
97 industry field, mainly aimed to explore the relationships between psychological capital, work
98 engagement, workplace happiness, and their further impacts on job satisfaction and job
99 commitment.

100

101 **2.2 Psychological capital and workplace outcomes**

102 Work engagement refers to “a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is
103 characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption” (Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá, &
104 Bakker, 2002, p.74). By studying hotel frontline employees, Karatepe and Karadas (2015) found
105 that all four dimensions of psychological capital (i.e., self-efficacy, optimism, hope, resiliency)
106 have positively influenced employees’ work engagement. Specifically, self-efficacious
107 employees are more likely to perform better in their current and future jobs due to their skills and
108 abilities (Chen & Lim, 2012). Additionally, employees with more confidence and resilience are
109 more likely to find alternative ways to succeed (Karatepe & Karadas, 2015). Further, with an
110 elevated level of optimism toward future success, employees tend to feel more vigorous and,
111 therefore, become more engaged in their current jobs (Karatepe & Karadas, 2015).

112 Research on ethnic minorities revealed that an individual’s ethnic identity had been found
113 to link with some critical psychological characteristics as well as the self-categorization process
114 (French, Seidman, Allen, & Aber, 2006). The state of ethnic minorities’ psychological capital
115 would then positively influence their self-perceptions and psychological developments (Luthans,
116 Avolio, Avey, & Norman, 2007). As a result, ethnic identity forms the foundation of
117 psychological self-perception and influences individuals’ behaviors (Phinney, 1990). Previous

118 researchers also identified that ethnic minorities' psychological capabilities (e.g., psychological
119 capital) had led to positive workplace outcomes, such as work engagement and job performance
120 (Combs, Milosevic, Jeung, & Griffith, 2012). Ethnic minorities with higher psychological capital
121 may have better job performance and more engaged in continuous growth within the
122 organization (Luthans, Avolio, Avey, & Norman, 2007; Sweetman, Luthans, Avey, & Luthans,
123 2010). Based on the above-mentioned literature, the following hypothesis was proposed:

- 124 • *H₁: Ethnic minority employees' psychological capital positively influences their work*
125 *engagement.*

126
127 As the notion "a happy workforce is a productive workforce" is becoming more and more
128 popular, workplace happiness has been introduced to the management literature and quickly has
129 attracted an increasing amount of scholarly attention (Spicer & Cederstom, 2015). In the existed
130 literature, scholars had identified that an individual's ethnic identity is associated with their
131 psychological capital, and as a result, having an impact on the well-being and happiness of the
132 individual (Phinney, Horenczyk, Liebkind, & Vedder, 2001; Phinney & Ong, 2007). When
133 studying school staff, researchers identified that psychological capital was strongly correlated
134 with employees' workplace happiness, and further identify psychological capital as a bottom-up
135 strategy to improve workplace happiness (Williams, Kern, & Waters, 2015). Another study
136 conducted by Kun and Gadanez (2019) also confirmed this relationship and further specified
137 that psychological resources, hope and optimism had particular effects on workplace happiness.
138 Based on these literature, it will be meaningful to explore the impact of psychological capital on
139 workplace happiness among ethnic minorities in the context of the foodservice industry. Thus, the
140 following hypothesis was developed:

- 141 • *H₂: Ethnic minority employees' psychological capital positively influence their*
142 *workplace happiness.*

143
144 Job satisfaction refers to “the pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of
145 one’s job as achieving or facilitating the achievement of one’s job values” (Locke, 1969, p.316).
146 Employees who have positive psychological capital, namely, employees who have the personal
147 traits of self-efficacy, hope, optimism, and resilience, are more likely to engage and be immersed
148 in their jobs, and subsequently, assume higher levels of job satisfaction (Karatepe & Karadas,
149 2015). Saks (2006) further suggested that job satisfaction was a consequence of work
150 engagement. In hospitality literature, previous studies have proved the positive impact of work
151 engagement on employees’ work attitudes, well-being, and job satisfaction (Burke, Koyuncu,
152 Jing, & Fiksenbaum, 2009; Pienaar & Willemse, 2008). By surveying hotel employees,
153 researchers found that work engagement had partially mediated the relationship between
154 psychological capital and job satisfaction (Paek, Schuckert, Kim, & Lee, 2015). Therefore, it is
155 hypothesized in this study that:

- 156 • *H₃: Ethnic minority employees' work engagement positively influences their job*
157 *satisfaction.*

158
159 Workplace happiness refers to how happy people are with their work-life and has been
160 found to be related to employees’ job performance, motivation, and even turnover intentions
161 (Bryson, Forth, & Stokes, 2015; Dane & Brummel, 2014; Wang & Yang, 2016). Particularly,
162 Fisher (2010) suggested that workplace happiness can be measured through the following three
163 foci: (1) the work itself; (2) the job including contextual features, and (3) the organization as a

164 whole. Hospitality employees, especially foodservice employees, are constantly facing the
165 challenges of work stress, which can result in employee burnout, dissatisfaction, and intentions
166 to quit (Bryson et al., 2015; Wright & Bonett, 2007). From the employer's perspective,
167 workplace happiness plays a crucial role in forming a harmonious work environment and in
168 keeping the guests happy (Amin & Akbar, 2013). Goh and Lee (2018) stressed the significance
169 of workplace happiness in the hospitality industry, as they found that the new hospitality
170 workforce prefers to work hard but seek workplace happiness as well. Thus, the following
171 hypothesis was proposed:

- 172 • *H₄: Ethnic minority employees' workplace happiness positively influence their job*
173 *satisfaction.*

174
175 Although the constructs of job satisfaction and job commitment are related, scholars
176 argue that job commitment is a broader and more global construct, and it is different from job
177 satisfaction (Kim & Brymer, 2011). Job commitment describes the degree to which an employee
178 feels connected and emotionally attached to the organization (Meyer et al., 1993). Many
179 researchers considered job satisfaction as a cause of job commitment (Kim & Brymer, 2011).
180 Previous studies have also confirmed the positive effects of job satisfaction on job commitment
181 among hotel employees (Fulford, 2005; Gunlu, Aksarayli, & Sahin Percin, 2010; Kim & Brymer,
182 2011) and restaurant employees (Kim, Leong, & Lee, 2005).

- 183 • *H₅: Ethnic minority employees' job satisfaction positively influences their job*
184 *commitment.*

185

186 Notably, work engagement has been found related to many positive work outcomes (e.g.,
187 good health, positive work attitudes) and can lead to a greater attachment to the organization and
188 lower intention to leave (Saks, 2006; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Sonnentag, 2003). Work
189 engagement also leads to positive emotions and work experience, which are essential
190 components of workplace happiness (Saks, 2006). On the other hand, engaged employees are
191 more fulfilling, thus indicating the positive relationship between work engagement and employee
192 well-being, such as workplace happiness (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Sonnentag, 2003).

193 Therefore, the following hypotheses were proposed:

- 194 • *H₆: Ethnic minority employees' work engagement positively influences their workplace*
195 *happiness.*

196

197 **2.3 Social Exchange Theory and Equity Theory**

198 The social exchange theory is defined as “the idea that people’s feelings about a
199 relationship depend on their perception of the rewards and costs of the relation, in the kind of
200 relationship they deserve, and their chances of having a better relationship with someone else”
201 (Aronson, Wilson, & Akert, 2007, p. 319). According to social exchange theory, social
202 interaction includes exchanges of resources and satisfaction and is primarily influenced by the
203 social and economic outcomes of those exchanges (Homans, 1958). In other words, an
204 individual’s satisfaction toward a relationship is determined by the comparison of rewards and
205 punishments received during social encounters (Krämer, Eimler, von der Pütten, & Payr, 2011;
206 Thibaut & Kelley, 1959). The social exchange theory has been widely applied in organizational
207 behavior literature and was frequently used to explain various phenomenon emerged in
208 organizations as well as to examine the relationships between employees and the organization

209 (Ma & Qu, 2011). Abiding by specific "rules" of exchange, the relationships of both parties may
210 evolve into trust, loyalty, and commitments (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). For example,
211 employees that receive economic or socioeconomic benefits from the organization may respond
212 to the organization with positive work outcomes, such as positive attitudes or job commitments
213 (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Employees may also choose to engage themselves in their work
214 based on the benefits and resources they obtained from the organization (Saks, 2006). By
215 surveying hourly employees in theme parks in the U.S., Milman and Dickson (2014) found that
216 employee retention was predicted by job satisfaction, job compensation, and perceived career
217 development opportunities. Employers, on the other hand, are seeking long-term commitments
218 from their employees by showing their concerns on the well-being of employees and facilitating
219 the career development of employees (Ma & Qu, 2011).

220 Developed by Adams (1965), the equity theory suggests that individuals in the workplace
221 tend to compare the input-output ratio (e.g., contribution-compensation ratio) with their
222 coworkers to determine if they are treated fairly. Specifically, for hourly employees, if they feel
223 that they are treated unfairly, they tend to be dissatisfied with their job and have higher intentions
224 to quit (Telly, 1969). Therefore, employees' job satisfaction and commitment are highly related
225 to whom they compare themselves with. For example, hourly employees would compare their
226 input-output ratio with salaried employees. More specifically, they would compare their input of
227 time and efforts with salaried employees and evaluate the return of social-economic benefits in
228 the social exchange process. A review of previous literature revealed that the equity theory was
229 widely used in foodservice studies to explain employee satisfaction and commitment (Joung,
230 Choi, & Taylor, 2018; Wildes, 2005; 2008).

231 The foodservice industry is different from many other industries in that it comprises a
232 large number of part-time, hourly, entry-level employees (NRA, 2020). Many of the hourly
233 employees in the foodservice industry are students, teenagers, or even parents with irregular
234 schedules (NRA, 2020). Studies have shown that the commitment of hourly employees and
235 salaried employees are different in the foodservice industry, evidenced by the high turnover rate
236 among hourly employees (Ghiselli, La Lopa, & Bai, 2001). As hourly employees and salaried
237 employees in the foodservice industry are receiving different amounts of compensation and
238 benefits from the organization, their work attitudes and outcomes may be different if they feel
239 they receive different contribution-compensation ratios. Based on the social exchange theory and
240 the equity theory, we hypothesized that the proposed relationships might be influenced by
241 employees' compensation types. Therefore, the following hypotheses were proposed:

- 242 • *H_{7a}: The effects of psychological capital on work engagement are different for salaried*
243 *and hourly employees.*
- 244 • *H_{7b}: The effects of psychological capital on workplace happiness are different for*
245 *salaried and hourly employees.*
- 246 • *H_{7c}: The effects of work engagement on job satisfaction are different for salaried and*
247 *hourly employees.*
- 248 • *H_{7d}: The effects of workplace happiness on job satisfaction are different for salaried and*
249 *hourly employees.*
- 250 • *H_{7e}: The effects of job satisfaction on job commitment are different for salaried and*
251 *hourly employees.*
- 252 • *H_{7f}: The effects of work engagement on workplace happiness are different for salaried*
253 *and hourly employees.*

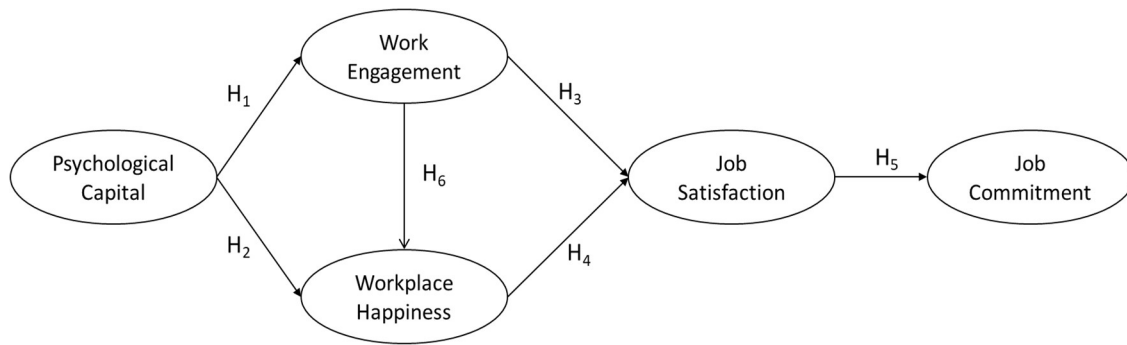


Figure 1. Proposed hypothesized relationships

3. Methodology

3.1 Sample Selection

The target population of this study was ethnic minorities in the U.S. foodservice industry. A purposive sampling method was used where the participants were recruited through a paid online panel. To be qualified, the individual needs to be (1) more than 18 years old, (2) have worked in the foodservice industry for at least one year, and (3) must belong to at least one ethnic minority group. The benefits of using a paid online panel include (1) easier access to the target population and (2) a higher efficiency in reaching the ideal sample size. The qualified respondents who completed the survey were compensated directly through the survey panel company.

3.2 Instrument Development

A cross-sectional online survey instrument was developed based on the literature review. The questionnaire includes six parts: (1) organizational characteristics, such as the type of

273 organization (i.e., chain, independent), the size of the organization, the participants' position, the
274 type of compensation (hourly or salaried position), and how long they have been employed in the
275 organization; (2) workplace happiness, which was measured by a semantic scale consists of three
276 constructs (adapted from Fisher, 2010); (3) psychological capital, which is measured by a scale,
277 consisting of four dimensions: hope, optimism, self-efficacy, and resilience (adapted from
278 Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2007); (4) work engagement, measured by the three dimensions
279 (i.e., vigor, dedication, job absorption) scale (adapted from Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá,
280 & Bakker, 2002); (5) employee outcomes, which include job satisfaction and organizational
281 commitment; and (6) participants' demographic characteristics (e.g., gender, age, educational
282 background). All items in the scales mentioned above were measured using the 7-point Likert
283 scale ranging from 1 being "strongly disagree" to 7 being "strongly agree." Consistent with
284 previous research (Chen & Lim, 2012; Karatepe & Karadas, 2015), the current study tests
285 psychological capital as a second-order latent variable rather than using a composite score of the
286 four dimensions. There are several advantages of measuring psychological capital as a second-
287 order latent variable. First, the result would explain whether the higher-order factor explains the
288 relationships between the first-order factors (Chen, Sousa, & West, 2005). Second, the
289 covariance is explained in a more parsimonious way as the second-order model structures the
290 pattern of covariance between first-order factors (Gustafsson & Balke, 1993; Rindskopf & Rose,
291 1988). Third, the complex measurement structure of psychological capital can be simply
292 interpreted by treating it as a second-order latent variable (Eid, Lischetzke, Nussbeck, &
293 Trierweiler, 2003).

294

295 **3.3 Data Collection**

296 The final survey instrument was uploaded to the Qualtrics survey system for data
297 collection. A pilot test (N=30) was conducted to ensure the appropriateness of the survey
298 questionnaire and the reliability of scales. The inter-item reliability of multi-item scales was
299 evaluated using Cronbach's alpha with the desirable goal of $\alpha \geq 0.7$ (Nunnally & Bernstein,
300 1994). As all constructs had Cronbach alpha levels higher than 0.7, and therefore, it proceeded to
301 final data collection without further revision. To ensure that participants were qualified (i.e., age
302 ≥ 18 , ethnic minorities, and have worked in the foodservice industry for at least one year),
303 filtering questions were asked before participants were able to access the survey. Two attention
304 check questions were also included in the survey to screen out those who did not pay full
305 attention to the questions.

306

307 **3.4 Data Analyses**

308 Before data analysis, data were cleaned and checked for missing data. No missing data
309 were identified. The collected data was then analyzed by using the Statistical Package for the
310 Social Sciences (SPSS, Version 25.0). Descriptive statistics, including frequencies, means, and
311 standard deviations, were calculated to summarize the data. Hierarchical multiple regression
312 analyses were conducted to analyze the relationships between variables. The proposed
313 hypothesized relationships in the structural model were tested by using SPSS-AMOS. Further,
314 the full sample was divided into two groups (i.e., salaried employees, hourly employees). The
315 results of the invariance tests ($\chi^2 = 4.2$, $df = 6$, $p = 0.65$) showed that although the groups were
316 not statistically different at the model level, differences may exist at the path level. Thus, given
317 the exploratory nature, this study conducted multi-group analyses to compare the path
318 coefficients between the two groups. The statistical significance level was set at $p < 0.05$.

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4. Results

4.1 Demographic Characteristics

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The final sample includes a total of 407 usable and valid survey responses, and their demographic characteristics are summarized and reported in Table 1. The majority of the sample is female (69.3%), below 40 years old (60.5%), single (50.1%), employed full-time (65.4%), and on hourly positions (72.0%). When it comes to their ethnicity, 49.6% of them are African Americans, 23.4% of them are Hispanics/Latinos, and 17% of them are Asians/Asian Americans. The demographic profile of the study sample reflected the finding in previous research (Jackson & DeFranco, 2005), where most ethnic minority employees in the hospitality industry are in hourly positions. Additionally, most participants in this study had received some higher-level education; however, only 24.35% of them hold Bachelor's degrees or above.

Table 1. Demographic characteristics of the survey sample (N=407)

Demographic characteristics	N	%
<i>Gender</i>		
Female	282	69.3
Male	123	30.2
Prefer not to answer	2	0.4
<i>Age</i>		
18 – 24	67	16.5
25 – 39	179	44.0
40 and above	161	39.6
<i>Ethnicity</i>		
Black/African American	202	49.6
Hispanic/Latino	96	23.4
Asian/Asian American	69	17.0
American Indian/Alaskan Native	21	5.1
Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander	7	1.7
Others	12	2.9
<i>Marital status</i>		
Single	204	50.1

Married	124	30.5
Domestic partnership	45	11.1
Divorced	30	7.4
Widowed	4	1.0
<i>Education</i>		
Less than high school	7	1.7
High school graduate or GED	102	25.1
Some college	129	31.7
Associate degree	70	17.2
Bachelor's degree	79	19.4
Graduate degree	20	4.9
<i>Employment status</i>		
Full-time	266	65.4
Part-time	135	33.2
Others	6	1.5
<i>Tenure in the foodservice industry</i>		
Less than 5 years	134	32.9
5 – 10 years	113	27.8
More than 10 years	160	39.3
<i>Compensation type</i>		
A salaried position	114	28
An hourly position	293	72
<i>Types of company/organization</i>		
A chain full-service restaurant (e.g., Chili's, Olive Garden)	77	18.9
An independent full-service restaurant (e.g., local sit-down restaurant)	98	24.1
A chain limited-service restaurant (e.g., Subway, McDonald's)	92	22.6
An independent limited-service restaurant	34	8.4
Institutional foodservice establishment (e.g., university/college foodservice, hospital foodservice)	44	10.8
Others	62	15.2
<i>Current positions</i>		
Managerial staff (e.g., manager)	107	26.3
Supervising staff (e.g., supervisor)	50	12.3
Host or hostess	15	3.7
Service staff (e.g., wait-staff, server)	109	26.8
Production staff (e.g., chef, cook)	84	20.6
Others	42	10.3

333 **4.2 Measurement Model**

334 Before testing the proposed structural model, CFA was conducted to determine the
 335 validity of the factor structures of the variables (Anderson & Gerbing, 1998). As suggested by
 336 previous researchers (Chen & Lim, 2012; Jung & Yoon, 2015), this study treated psychological
 337 capital as a second-order construct, which includes four dimensions: self-efficacy, hope,
 338 optimism, and resilience. The CFA model of psychological capital has demonstrated a good fit
 339 with all measurement items ($\chi^2 = 77.45$, $df = 24$, $p < 0.001$, $CFI = 0.973$, $RMSEA = 0.074$). Work
 340 engagement was also treated as a second-order construct, which comprises vigor, dedication, and
 341 adsorption. The CFA model of work engagement also has a sound model fit ($\chi^2 = 78.16$, $df = 29$,
 342 $p < 0.001$, $CFI = 0.973$, $RMSEA = 0.065$). For all constructs in this study (Table 2), the Cronbach
 343 alpha levels exceeded or close to the threshold of 0.7, as suggested by Nunnally (1978). Besides,
 344 the average variances extracted for all constructs were above 0.5, higher than the acceptable
 345 minimum level suggested by Fornell and Larcker (1981).

346 **Table 2. Measurement Items of the Constructs**

Constructs & Measurement items	Factor Loadings	Cronbach's alpha	AVE
Workplace happiness		0.953	0.914
Happiness at work	0.959		
Happiness at the job	0.962		
Happiness at the company/organization	0.947		
Job satisfaction		0.949	0.832
I feel satisfied with my present job.	0.923		
I definitely like my work.	0.907		
My job is very pleasant.	0.907		
My job is very worthwhile.	0.899		
I am very content with my job.	0.924		
Organizational commitment		0.919	0.860
I feel emotionally attached to this organization.	0.914		
This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	0.944		
I do feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.	0.924		
Psychological capital – Self-efficacy		0.828	0.747

I feel confident in representing my work area in meetings with management.	0.866		
I feel confident contributing to discussions about the company's strategy.	0.852		
I feel confident presenting information to a group of colleagues.	0.874		
Psychological capital - Hope		0.817	0.733
Right now, I see myself as being pretty successful at work.	0.858		
I can think of many ways to reach my current work goals.	0.849		
At this time, I am meeting the work goals that I have set for myself.	0.862		
Psychological capital – Optimism		0.690	0.766
I always look on the bright side of things regarding my job.	0.875		
I'm optimistic about what will happen to me in the future as it pertains to work.	0.875		
Psychological capital – Resilience		0.689	0.617
I can be “on my own” so to speak at work if I have to.	0.760		
I usually take stressful things at work in stride.	0.780		
I can get past difficult times at work because I've experienced difficulty before.	0.815		
Work Engagement - Vigor		0.828	0.750
At my job, I feel strong and vigorous.	0.852		
At my work, I feel bursting with energy.	0.897		
When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work	0.848		
Work Engagement - Dedication		0.805	0.725
I am enthusiastic about my job.	0.890		
My job inspires me.	0.868		
I am proud of the work that I do.	0.793		
Work Engagement – Absorption		0.696	0.623
I feel happy when I am working intensely.	0.820		
I am immersed in my work.	0.819		
I get carried away when I am working.	0.736		

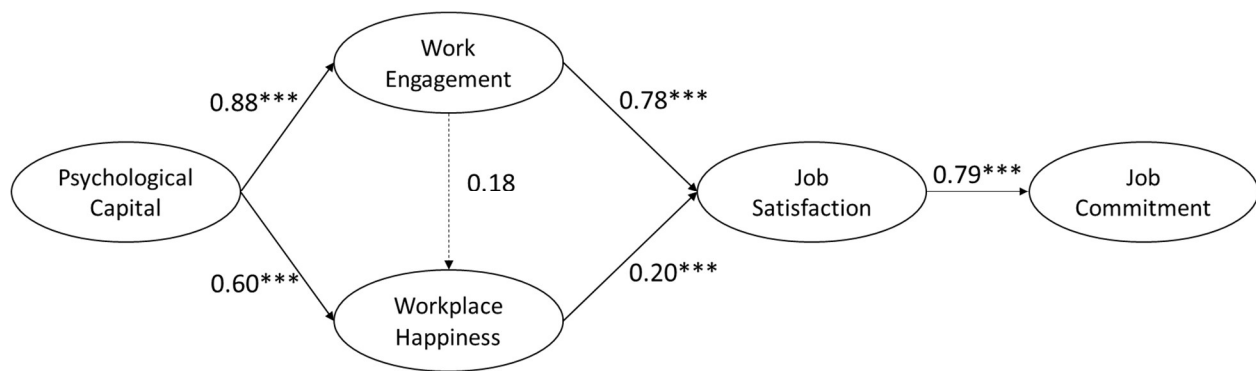
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348 4.3 Structural Model

349 The hypothesized relationships among psychological capital, work engagement,
350 workplace happiness, job satisfaction, and job commitment were then tested through SPSS-
351 AMOS. The tested structural model with path coefficients is shown in Figure 2. The overall

352 model has demonstrated a good fit ($\chi^2/df = 2.27, p < 0.001, CFI = 0.951, RMSEA = 0.056$). As
 353 proposed, psychological capital had significant positive effects on both work engagement and
 354 workplace happiness ($\beta = 0.88$ and 0.60 , respectively, $p < 0.001$), which in turn significantly
 355 influenced job satisfaction ($\beta = 0.78$ and 0.20 , respectively, $p < 0.001$). Furthermore, job
 356 satisfaction had positively influenced job commitment ($\beta = 0.79, p < 0.001$). However, work
 357 engagement was not related to workplace happiness. Therefore, H_1 to H_5 were all supported, but
 358 H_6 was not supported.

359 Coefficients of determination (R^2 -values) were also examined for the hypothesized model.
 360 The results showed that 78% of the variance of work engagement was explained by
 361 psychological capital. For workplace happiness, psychological capital explained 36.2% of the
 362 variance. In addition, 82.3% of the variance of job satisfaction was explained by both work
 363 engagement and workplace happiness. Further, job satisfaction explained 63.5% of the variance
 364 of job commitment.



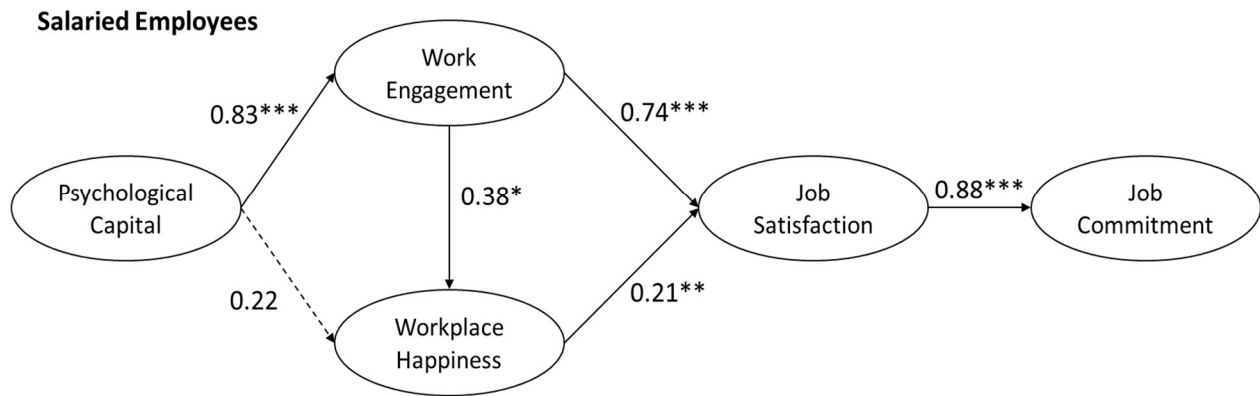
365
 366 **Figure 2.** Path model of hypothesized relationships among variables (***) $p < 0.001$

367
 368 **4.4 Multi-group Comparisons between Salaried and Hourly Employees**

369 Multi-group analyses were conducted to explore whether there are differences in the path
 370 coefficients between salaried and hourly employees. The results of multi-group analyses are

371 presented in Figure 3 and Figure 4, where path differences were noted. To illustrate, salaried
 372 employees' psychological capital did not have a significant impact on their workplace happiness
 373 ($\beta = 0.22, p = 0.23$). Therefore, H_{7b} and H_{7e} were supported, but $H_{7a}, H_{7c}, H_{7d}, H_{7e}$, and H_{7f} were
 374 rejected. Meanwhile, the work engagement of hourly employees did not significantly predict
 375 their workplace happiness ($\beta = 0.06, p = 0.70$). As a result, H_6 is fully supported, where the
 376 impact of work engagement on workplace happiness is different between employees with
 377 different compensation methods.

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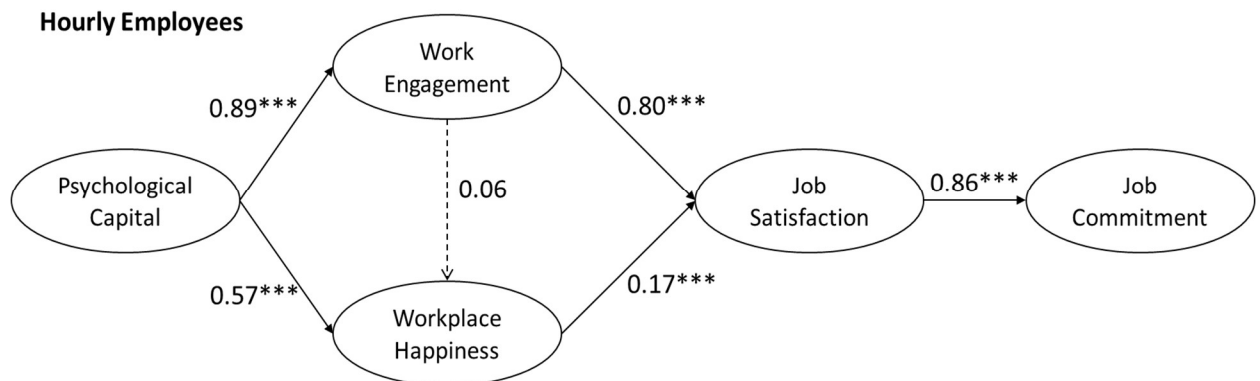


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380 **Figure 3.** Path model for salaried employees (N=114) (** $p < 0.001$; * $p < 0.01$; * $p < 0.05$)

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384 **Figure 4.** Path model for hourly employees (N=293) (** $p < 0.001$)

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Lastly, regression analyses were conducted to identify the specific impacts of each dimension of psychological capital on work engagement and workplace happiness (Table 3 & 4). For salaried employees, specifically, hope and self-efficacy significantly predicted work engagement, and optimism significantly influenced employees' workplace happiness. For hourly employees, hope, optimism, and self-efficacy had significant impacts on their work engagement, and vigor and dedication had significantly predicted their workplace happiness. Further independent-sample t-tests (Table 5) revealed that salaried position employees had a significantly higher level of hope and self-efficacy than hourly employees and were significantly more dedicated to their jobs.

395 **Table 3. Effects of psychological capital on work engagement and workplace happiness**
396 **(salaried employees)**

Independent variable	Dependent variable			
	Work engagement		Workplace happiness	
	β	t	β	t
Psychological capital				
<i>Hope</i>	0.446	4.110***	0.195	1.391 ^{n.s.}
<i>Optimism</i>	0.183	0.797 ^{n.s.}	0.298	2.266*
<i>Resilience</i>	-0.019	-0.240 ^{n.s.}	-0.043	-0.422 ^{n.s.}
<i>Self-efficacy</i>	0.217	0.419*	0.111	0.956 ^{n.s.}
F		35.126***		10.119***
R ²		0.563		0.271

397 Note: *** $p < 0.001$; ** $p < 0.01$; * $p < 0.05$; ^{n.s.} $p \geq 0.05$

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Table 4. Effects of psychological capital on work engagement and the effects of work engagement on workplace happiness (hourly employees)

Independent variable	Dependent variable	
	β	t
Psychological capital		Work engagement
<i>Hope</i>	0.383	6.783***
<i>Optimism</i>	0.254	4.563***
<i>Resilience</i>	0.028	0.585 ^{n.s.}
<i>Self-efficacy</i>	0.230	3.885***
F	128.161***	
R ²	0.640	

Work engagement		Workplace happiness
<i>Vigor</i>	0.314	3.377**
<i>Dedication</i>	0.348	3.819***
<i>Absorption</i>	-0.133	-1.847 ^{n.s.}
F	40.466***	
R ²	0.296	

Note: *** $p < 0.001$; ** $p < 0.01$; * $p < 0.05$; ^{n.s.} $p \geq 0.05$

Table 5. Comparison of variables between salaried employees and hourly employees

Variable	Salaried employees (Mean ± S.D.)	Hourly employees (Mean ± S.D.)	F	t
Psychological Capital				
<i>Hope</i>	5.64 ± 1.09	5.17 ± 1.35	8.512	3.334**
<i>Optimism</i>	5.68 ± 1.56	5.18 ± 1.35	2.902	3.499 ^{n.s.}
<i>Resilience</i>	5.61 ± 1.08	5.53 ± 1.16	1.147	0.649 ^{n.s.}
<i>Self-efficacy</i>	5.75 ± 1.09	5.29 ± 1.34	5.738	3.233*
Work Engagement				
<i>Vigor</i>	5.10 ± 1.33	4.82 ± 1.50	2.437	1.756 ^{n.s.}
<i>Dedication</i>	5.51 ± 1.14	5.07 ± 1.36	4.085	3.607*
<i>Absorption</i>	5.22 ± 1.12	4.82 ± 1.26	1.161	1.936 ^{n.s.}
Workplace Happiness	5.27 ± 1.78	5.02 ± 1.65	1.311	1.336 ^{n.s.}
Job Satisfaction	5.41 ± 1.16	4.90 ± 1.60	2.346	0.940 ^{n.s.}
Organizational Commitment	5.01 ± 1.70	4.48 ± 1.70	0.026	2.785 ^{n.s.}

Note: *** $p < 0.001$; ** $p < 0.01$; * $p < 0.05$; ^{n.s.} $p \geq 0.05$

5. Discussions

Focusing on ethnic minorities employed in the foodservice industry, this study examined the current status of their psychological capital and further analyzed its impacts on various workplace outcomes. Overall speaking, the results confirmed that ethnic minority employees' psychological capital influenced their work engagement and workplace happiness, both of which further affected their job satisfaction as well as organizational commitment. Previous scholars stressed that an individual's ethnic identity forms the foundation of his or her psychological self-perception and further impacts the individual's behaviors (Phinney, 1990). The findings of the

415 current study are consistent with previous studies in that ethnic minorities' psychological capital
416 had led to positive work engagement (Combs, Milosevic, Jeung, & Griffith, 2012).

417 Previous studies have repeatedly reported the positive relationship between psychological
418 capital and job satisfaction (Jung & Yoon, 2015; Luthans, Avolio, Walumbwa, & Li, 2005;
419 Luthans, Vogelgesang, & Lester, 2006; Paek, Schuckert, Kim, & Lee, 2015). Interestingly, our
420 study confirmed the positive impact of psychological capital on work engagement and workplace
421 happiness, and their further impacts on job satisfaction and commitment. This advances our
422 understanding in this area, as the findings illustrated how work engagement and workplace
423 happiness influenced the dynamics between psychological capital and job satisfaction. As for the
424 relationship between job satisfaction and job commitment, the results of this study are consistent
425 with previous studies (Fulford, 2005; Gunlu, Aksarayli, & Sahin Percin, 2010).

426 Consistent with the core assumptions suggested by the social exchange theory and the
427 equity theory, this study found several differences between salaried and hourly employees
428 regarding the proposed relationship in the conceptual model. These notions align well with
429 previous research, which suggested that employees who receive economic or socioeconomic
430 benefits from the organization may return the favor by displaying positive work attitudes or
431 generating positive work outcomes (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Similarly, salaried
432 employees who received better compensation and benefits tended to show higher dedication at
433 work.

434 More specifically, we found the following differences. First, it is noted that salaried
435 employees' psychological capital did not predict their workplace happiness, but their work
436 engagement did. This means that their level of job engagement is directly related to the sense of
437 workplace happiness, regardless of their current state of psychosocial capital. For hourly

438 employees, in contrast, their work engagement and workplace happiness were unrelated. This is
439 consistent with the original conceptual model, where psychological capital significantly
440 influenced their work engagement and workplace happiness, respectively.

441 Second, this study conducted regression analyses to further explore the impact of
442 psychological capital on work engagement on different dimensions. We found that for salaried
443 employees, both hope and self-efficacy are predictors of their work engagement, and hope has
444 stronger effects in this context. Newman et al. (2014) suggested that hope exemplifies goal-
445 directed energy, which refers to “an individual’s motivation to succeed at a specific task in a set
446 context” (p. S122). This applies equally to this study, where most salaried employees may see
447 their current job as an essential part of their career. They also receive more support and resource
448 provided by their organization; in return, they tend to remain highly motivated and engaged with
449 their work.

450 Third, we found that only optimism predicted salaried employees’ workplace happiness.
451 That is, salaried employees who hold a more positive attitude are more likely to be happy at the
452 workplace. This aligns well with the nature of psychological capital and optimism, which mainly
453 involves personality traits. For hourly employees, besides optimism, both hope and self-efficacy
454 can influence their job engagement. Different from hope and optimism, self-efficacy is a concept
455 that underscores self-confidence. This means that in addition to a generally positive attitude, how
456 confident an hourly employee determines how engaged he/she would be in the workplace. For
457 hourly employees, being vigorous and dedicated makes them happier at the workplace.

458

459

6. Conclusions

460 The foodservice industry has been facing several challenges in recent years, which
461 mainly deals with the shrinking national labor pool and the increasing turnover rate (Loria, 2018;
462 Sullivan, 2017). This holds particular truth for the ethnic minority workforce, as industry reports
463 show that ethnic minorities tend to be more concentrated in lower-paying jobs in the foodservice
464 industry, and the job stress is more likely to negatively affect their health and well-being than
465 their white counterparts (Bloudoff-Indelicato, 2016). Therefore, to maintain the sustainable
466 development of the industry, attention from both the industry and academics are needed to
467 support and help the ethnic minority workforce in the foodservice industry. A particular focus
468 should be placed on their workplace happiness and positive employee outcomes, such as
469 increased job satisfaction, enhancing organizational commitment, and reducing turnover
470 intentions. To fill the gap, the study results had provided meaningful theoretical and practical
471 implications, as explained below.

472

473 **6.1 Theoretical Implications**

474 First, given the importance of psychological capital on work engagement (Karatepe &
475 Karadas, 2015; Paek et al., 2015), morale (Paek et al., 2015), and turnover intentions (Bouzari et
476 al., 2017; Karatepe & Karadas, 2014), this study contributes to the psychological capital
477 literature by investigating the current state of psychological capital of ethnic minority workforce
478 in the foodservice industry and its impact on various workplace outcomes. The majority of the
479 products of the foodservice sector involves interactions between and among customers and
480 employees; while studies frequently reported that being a minority sometimes could bring
481 negative impacts on one's work experience, which may, in turn, affect how they serve customers
482 and manage work stress (Chrobot-Mason, 2004; Findeler, Wind, & Barak, 2007). Therefore,

483 identifying the status of the psychological capital of this population and revealing the impacts on
484 employee outcomes become very valuable.

485 Second, the current study contributes to work engagement and workplace happiness
486 literature by identifying their impacts on job satisfaction and job commitment. This particular
487 finding adds to our understanding of the underlying mechanism in which psychological capital
488 influences various workplace outcomes. Even though workplace happiness is an important
489 predictor of an individual's affective evaluation of work experience (Fisher, 2010), this is the
490 first study that explored and confirmed that impact of psychological capital on job satisfaction
491 and commitment among ethnic minorities in the foodservice industry. Future studies can test and
492 apply the theoretical model proposed in this study to other populations and contexts.

493 Lastly, this study extends our understanding of the social exchange theory and the equity
494 theory by applying them to a new context with a different population. The study design is
495 innovative as this is the first study to explore the differences in the proposed constructs between
496 salaried and hourly employees. Consistent with the social exchange theory and the equity theory,
497 this study found several differences between salaried and hourly employees regarding the effects
498 of psychological capital. More specifically, salaried employees tend to be more positive,
499 confident, and dedicated. This is consistent with the philosophy of social exchange theory, which
500 suggests that employees who receive economic or socioeconomic benefits from the organization
501 are more likely to respond to the organization with positive work outcomes, such as positive
502 attitudes or job commitments (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). The study also extends the
503 application of equity theory on salaried and hourly employees. Prior research has applied it to
504 examine the differences in job-related attitudes between full-time and part-time employees in the
505 foodservice industry (Joung, Choi, & Taylor, 2018).

506

507 **6.2 Practical Implications**

508 The findings of this study can be further translated into practical implications. To start
509 with, foodservice managers should recognize the importance of psychological capital and
510 understand its impacts on employees' performance and outcome. In order to improve employees'
511 psychological capital, training, programs, and strategies should be established. Examples of these
512 programs include training interventions (Avey, Luthans, & Jensen, 2009), empowerment, or
513 rewards (Karatepe, Karadas, Azar, & Naderiadib, 2013), and employee recognition (Paek,
514 Schuckert, Kim, & Lee, 2015). The ethnic minority workforce should always be included.

515 Additionally, previous researchers found that workplace support may facilitate
516 employee's psychological capital development, given that it may provide hope and support for
517 employees to find alternative ways to achieve their goals and be able to face challenges and
518 bounce back after a setback (Luthans, Norman, Avolio, & Avery, 2008). The workplace support
519 can be provided through supervisory support (Luthans et al., 2008), socialization such as
520 buddying to support employees (Nigah, Davis, & Hurrell, 2012), and/or helping employees to
521 maintain work-family balance (Liu, Chang, Fu, Wang, & Wang, 2012).

522 Lastly, programs and strategies should be differentiated for hourly employees and
523 salaried employees. More efforts are needed for hourly employees, helping them to establish a
524 career development path, saying positive when facing challenges, and increasing their
525 confidence and capabilities in achieving excellent performance. Evidenced by the results that
526 hourly employees' work engagement and workplace happiness both developed upon their
527 psychological capital. The strategies for hourly employees should be geared towards developing
528 their psychological capabilities. For example, Avery, Luthans, and Jensen (2009) had proposed a

529 short training intervention that includes activities designed to enhance employees' four
530 components of psychological capital (i.e., self-efficacy, hope, optimism, resilience). Foodservice
531 operators or human resources managers may include this three-hour training intervention in the
532 orientation of their frontline hourly employees. As the results of the current study revealed that
533 salaried employees' workplace happiness and job satisfaction were directly established on their
534 work engagement, strategies should be focused on the "work" aspect of employees. For example,
535 creating opportunities to let employees fully realizing their strengths and talents, establishing
536 channels to deliver positive and encouraging feedback to employees, developing programs to
537 focus on the mental and physical health of employees, and promoting the career paths and career
538 development opportunities to let employees pursue and achieve their personal meaningful goals
539 (Schaufeli & Salanova, 2010).

540

541 **6.3 Limitations and Future Research**

542 This study is not without its limitations. First, the sample was recruited through online
543 survey panels. Those who do not use computers/smartphones or have limited access to the
544 internet may be excluded. The purposive sampling method may also jeopardize the external
545 generalizability of the findings. Second, this study also examined the variables among ethnic
546 minority workforce in the foodservice industry in the U.S.; therefore, results may not be
547 generalizable to all employees in the foodservice industry or those in other countries. Future
548 research may also collect data from Caucasian employees to compare the impact of
549 psychological capital on employees with ethnic vs. non-ethnic backgrounds. Additionally, future
550 study may also dig into different minority groups (e.g., African Americans, Hispanic and
551 Latinos, Asian Americans) and examine the differences among groups. Third, due to time and

552 resource constraints, all data collected in this study were self-reported data, where results may be
553 impacted by the common method and social desirability bias. Future studies may use alternative
554 data collection methods, such as collecting data on a longitudinal basis or collected employees'
555 data from their work partners or supervisors rather than themselves, to avoid common method
556 and social desirability bias (Demerouti, van Eeuwijk, Snelder, & Wild, 2011; Podsakoff,
557 Mackenzie, & Podsakoff, 2003). Forth, this study mainly concerns the proposed relationships
558 surrounding phycological capital, the influences of demographic characteristics (e.g., age,
559 gender) were not featured. Future studies should fill this gap and test if the proposed
560 relationships varied by different demographic variables.

561

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564 Foodservice Management Foundation (2019-2020).

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