Human Resource Practices and Discretionary Work Behaviour in Family-owned Hotels

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**Abstract**

The influence of human resources management practices on discretionary work behaviour among family-owned hotel workers is under-researched. Consequently, drawing on social exchange theory, this study examined the effect of high performance human resources practices on the discretionary work behaviour (DWB) of workers in family-owned hotels. A convenience sample of 803 workers completed self-reported questionnaire and data was analysed using descriptive statistics and partial least square structural equation modelling analysis. Results revealed that among the HPHRP, training and compensation were positively related to discretionary work behaviour while growth opportunity was inversely associated with discretionary work behaviour. Enhancing investment in employee training and compensation is likely to engender discretionary work behaviour among hotel workers. Theoretical and practical implications are discussed.

**Keywords**: High performance human resources practices; discretionary work behaviour, hotel, Ghana

**Introduction**

The increasing investment in the hospitality industry across the globe is indicative of the growing international and domestic tourist travels. Out of their usual place of residence, the tourist requirements for overnight shelter among other needs of care, comfort and entertainment cannot be overemphasised. Consequently, the accommodation sector forms the foundation of the hospitality industry (Tsaur, Liang & Hsu, 2012) with hotels being, ubiquitous across the world (Holloway, 2001). The proliferation of hotels coupled with increasing well-informed guests have heightened competition in the sector, which raises the need to gain competitive advantage.

As a hospitality facility, the hotel is a labour intensive sector of which the human resources remain the fundamental asset that drives success (Prayag & Hosany, 2015). This is crucial as the service attitudes of employees significantly affect customer satisfaction (Lin, Wong & Ho, 2013) with effects on re-purchase intentions, profitability and the sustainability of the business. Consequently, adopting an effective, sustainable and competitive human resources management practices would be a competitive advantage.
resources practices (HRP) that enhance and sustain employees’ performance has become a critical strategic decision (Delery & Roumpi, 2017).

The desire of firms to adopt effective management practices initiated a shift to a paradigm of high performance human resources practices (HPHRP) to enhance competitive advantage in order to withstand competition (Gilman & Raby, 2013). HPHRP encompasses varieties of coherent and interrelated human resource practices such as training, development, rewards and incentive, opportunities for advancement, among others, aimed at stimulating employee performance (Kehoe & Wright, 2013; Cho, Woods, Jang & Erdem, 2006). The components of HPHRP differ across various dimensions but are distinguished by their goal of improving employee performance in service organizations.

A good HRP has become a necessity to hotel’s operations (Nassar, 2017) due to its influence on employee behaviour (Jiang, Lepak, Hu & Baer, 2012). The HRP shapes, encourage and discourages explicit attitudes and behaviours in the organization (Elorza, Harris, Aritzeta & Balluerka, 2016). Management of firms stimulate desirable behaviours of employees using specific HRP. An emerging service attitude of importance to service industries is the discretionary work behaviour (DWB) of employees (Elorza et al., 2016; Piccoli, Whitte & Reisel, 2017). DWB is crucial in hotels as employees are faced with incompatible request from customers (Schneider, 1980). Coupled with demands for personalized services, employees in service-oriented hospitality sectors are expected to exhibit diverse behaviours most of which are beyond defined roles to satisfy customers (Karatepe, 2013). DWB aid in satisfying the short term needs of customers which in turn reduces conflicts and enhances customers’ loyalty to the hotel.

DWB equates to contextual performance, which entails engagement in extra roles beyond the task performance (Dalal, 2005) and related to other concepts such as innovative behaviour (Elorza et al., 2016), organizational citizenship behaviour (Piccoli et al., 2017) and counterproductive work behaviour (Vatankhah, Javid & Raoofi, 2017). According to Organ and Ryan (1995), DWB is a conscious decision to engage in job and work activities beyond formal or contractual obligation. DWBs are diverse and voluntary obligations undertaken by employees some of which may be prescribed or un-prescribed by superiors (Gonzales, 2016) and targeted at enhancing quality service delivery. Either prescribed or un-prescribed, employees exhibit DWB willingly and it depicts their sense of responsibilities towards their firms. The DWB of employees is influenced by series of interdependent factors, however, the literature identified the high impact factors to be non-monetary, example includes work environment, management style, availability of resource, policies and practices (Howard, 2008; He, Zhang & Morrison, 2019; Redmond & Sharafizad, 2020).

According to Schermerhorn, Hunt and Osborn (2004), a key determinant of an employee’s discretionary behaviour is the HRP and policies. Organizations, therefore, increases DWB when HRP are given central attention (Beugelsdijk, 2008) since the HRP serves as signals to inform employees of expected behaviour (Luu, 2017: 3). However, the impact of the signal is dependent on employees perception of HRP which diverges due to the heterogeneity of employees with implications for behaviour (Wright & Nishii, 2013).

This has generated research on the role of HRP on employees’ behaviour and attitudes (Vatankhah et al., 2017; Elorza et al., 2016) in several economic sectors. These studies are relatively few with limited focus on the hospitality industry, hence the roles of HRP on DWB in the hotel industry remains unexplored, in spite of the growth and contributions of hotels to all economies worldwide. Also, existing studies focused on the Western world perspective, which calls for a developing country perspective as HRP and DWB operate within national, industry and firm perspectives as defined by prevailing cultures (Santhanam, Kamalanabhan, Dyaram & Ziegler, 2015). This study, therefore, investigates the effects of four
individual HPHRP; training, rewards, staff-welfare and growth opportunities on the DWB of hotel employees in Accra, Ghana.

The choice of HPHRP allows an assessment of the relative effects of each HRP in predicting employee behaviour as it has been established that each practice produces varying outcomes (Luu, 2017). Knowledge on the extent of influence of each HRP will aid policy formulation and direction (Gavino, Wayne & Erdogan, 2012) and guide management of hotels in their choice of HRP. Also, this study would highlight the combination of HRP that would create a fit to achieve superior DWB to help achieve organizational standard and targets as a wrong combination is best described as a “recipe for disaster” (Delery & Roumpi, 2017; Muduli, Verma & Datta, 2016; Osman, Noordin, Daud & Othman, 2016). This study integrates and bundles the HRP to provide insight into the interaction among these practices to affect the DWB of hotel employees.

Literature review

HPHRP
An appropriate HPHRP is in congruence with the Ability-Motivation-Opportunity (AMO) model (Appelbaum, Bailey, Berg & Kalleberg, 2000; Purcell & Hutchinson, 2007) as an effective combination of HPHRM includes practices across these three facets leading to high performance. HPHRMP has three dimensions constituting skill enhancement, employee motivation and empowerment (Osman et al., 2016; Aryee, Walumbwa, Seidu & Otaye, 2012). In line with these, the practices studied include; training and development (Ability), compensation and staff welfare (motivation) and growth opportunities (opportunity). Staff welfare was included as the concept seems to have attracted limited attention in HRM scholarly discourse.

Training
Training is the most discussed HRP in the human resource management literature given its enormous contribution to performance and also as a predictor of the other HPHRP (Jaworski, Ravichandran, Karpinski & Singh, 2018; Sila, 2014) as well as its effects on positive job outcomes, including job satisfaction (Leppel, Brucker, & Cochran, 2012), job involvement (Edralin, 2014), and commitment and turnover intentions (Costen & Salazar, 2011). Training is about specifying the right way to do something (Rodgers, 1986). It entails an intervention which is planned to enhance the determinants of an employee’s performance of a job (Chiaburu, Sawyer & Thoroughgood, 2010). According to Noe, Wilk, Mullen and Wanek (2014), training involves planned efforts by a company to equip employees with competencies, skills, knowledge and behaviours needed to efficiently perform the job. It entails the modification of attitude, knowledge and skill behaviour through learning experience to fulfil current and future manpower needs of the organization (Armstrong, 2006). Training aims at a change in the work attitude and behaviour of employees in line with existing organizational standards. To achieve training objective, training programs are planned and coordinated to positively affect the knowledge, skills and competency which are prerequisite for employees’ to discharge their duties (Sommerville, 2007). Implementing training and development is perceived as a signal of the commitment and assurance of management in building a life-long relationship with the employees (Afsar, Shahjehan & Shah, 2018).

In the hotel sector, employee training has received considerable attention from practitioners and researchers (Stavrinoudis & Livadioti, 2011) due to the unavailability of skilled labour to fill vacancies in hotels. The curriculum of most hospitality institutions are not compatible and does not transfer some of the crucial skills needed to operate in the industry (Hertzman, Moreo & Wiener, 2015). Training in hotels resolves the issues of skill-gap through
the transfer of a specific level of knowledge and skills required to perform the job. Well-trained employees benefit from role clarity and display less role conflict in the performance of duties (Chang & Chang, 2008) which is crucial in hotels where service failure is not an option. Training, therefore, remains a key HRM practices with positive outcomes for the hotels (Lee & Bugler, 2017). With the advancement in technology, training in hotels has also become technology-based (Miller, 2012) in addition to on-the-job-training and classroom training. Notwithstanding, research establishes that not all management of hospitality facilities are willing to implement training and in its appropriate dimension due to its associated financial cost (Jaworski et al., 2018; Prasanth, 2015).

**Compensation**

According to Babakus, Yavas and Karatepe (2008), compensation comprises the external rewards paid in exchange for the services of the employees. It, therefore, includes salaries, object or event received by employees in exchange for a job well done (Schultz, 2006) as well as wages, bonuses, incentives, sharing profit and payments for overtime (Byars & Rue, 2008; Wright, Gardner & Moynihan, 2003). Compensation is expected to commensurate with value for work done by employees (Thaief, Baharuddin, Priyono & Idrus, 2015) as indicative of managements’ perception of the worth and contribution of their employees to the firms (Okwudili, 2016). Dychtwald, Erickson and Morison (2013) are of the view that, beyond the value of work done, a good wage is in balance with economic indicators such as cost of living, inflation rate and value of the currency.

The hotel is described as a low wage paying sectors (Tsaur et al., 2012) which serves as a demotivation for human resources. A study by Prabhakar (2019) on employees in hotels in India revealed that less than half of the respondents (16%) were motivated by the current reward system in their hotel. In addition to this, discrepancies exist in the reward systems of hotels as wages are not fairly distributed and also affected by seasonality in the hotel business (Msengeti & Obwogi, 2015). Example: during off-peak seasons, employees in small to medium scale hotels may experience a decrease in wage or receive payment in instalment. To augment the low pay, management of hotels institute other incentives such as bonuses, payment for working overtime and on holidays and pension benefits (Dychtwald et al., 2013). Yeswa and Ombui (2019), however, recommend reasonableness in payment of wages, bonuses and overtime and holidays allowances for employees of hotels.

**Staff welfare**

Staff welfare deals with all non-contractual, non-cash services and activities provided by employers for the enjoyment of employees in addition to monetary rewards (Tweddle, Battle & Torjman, 2014). Employee welfare relates to fringe benefits like housing, medical and recreational facilities as well as transportation and family (e.g. flexible work schedules) services provided to employees with the aim of increasing their job satisfaction index (Chukwunenye & Amgbare, 2013). Employee welfare practices are also aimed at ensuring that employees work in a conducive, congenial and healthy work environment (Aswathappa, 2014). Staff welfare and benefits are said to significantly influence employee performance as well as improving employer-employee relations (Muse, Harris, Giles & Field, 2008). In the view of Wei Nan and Wei (2020), investment in welfare practices positively affects the innovation performance of employees. In fact, it has been argued that companies that take employee welfare seriously are insulated against stock price crashes (Ben-Nasr & Ghouma, 2018). Furthermore, welfare packages proportional to the needs of employees are more likely to improve the image of the firm in the industry, enhance shareholders' engagement, avoid costly
strikes, and boost productivity (Ben-Nasr & Ghouma, 2018). Knowledge of employee welfare practices within the hotel sector seems unavailable and this study fills the gap.

**Career growth opportunities**

Growth opportunity is a common HRP in organizations of all types, sizes and operations (Kakui & Gachunga, 2016) due to its significant contribution to succession planning for organization with considerable influence on job satisfaction (Chen, Chuang & Chen, 2017), employee commitment and loyalty (Mapelu & Jumah, 2013) and turnover intentions (Nawaz & Pangil, 2016). Career growth is conceptualised as employees’ perception of available avenues for improvement provided by the organization for employees based on their performance (Spector, 2003). Employees perceive growth opportunities as the extent to which an organization meets their career needs through promotion and advancement (Weng, McElroy, Morrow & Liu, 2010).

According to Iverson and Deery (1997), the jobs in the hospitality industry present a low opportunity for promotion and growth. However, recently, Kim, Im and Hwang (2015) averred that opportunities for advancement and promotion are evident in large hotels but opportunities in small hotels remain relatively non-existent. Strategies for advancement in hotels include mentoring or coaching to maintain the rapport between employees and their organization (Murphy, 2012), especially for female employees of hotels (Patwardhan & Venkatachalam, 2012).

**Training, compensation, growth opportunities, staff welfare and DWB**

Results of previous studies have reported a positive significant relationship between training and compensation (Shafiq, Zia-ur-Rehman & Rashid, 2013; Anis, Rehman, Nasir & Safwan, 2011). Training motivates employees to perform better, however, with monetary rewards training boost performance and serves as an added value to the motivational packages (Ozkeser, 2019) to enhance DWB. Training increases the knowledge, skills and abilities of employees to induces high performance and consequently attract higher rewards packages (Anis et al., 2011). In validation of human resources management instrument, a strong positive and significant correlation was found between training and compensation (Iqbal, Arif & Abbas, 2011).

Training is adopted by organizations as a channel through which an employees’ career is advanced (Dialoke & Nkechi, 2017). Training transfers skills and knowledge needed to empower employees to progress through their chosen careers (Kakui & Gachunga, 2016). This is crucial in today’s work environment as career advancement based on superiority has been replaced by advancement based on skills and knowledge possessed (Kakui & Gachunga, 2016). As such, well-trained employees have greater chances of progressing their career as they have been equipped to handle new task in higher positions.

Lee (2015) is of the view that the impact of training on employee behaviour is influenced by the match between training program and employee needs and perceptions of training. Notwithstanding, training is perceived to contributes more positively to DWB than other HRP as it induces a psychological state of employees which translates into positive behaviour (Shipton, West, Dawson, Birdi & Petterson, 2006; Santos & Stuart, 2013). Training empowers employees which in turn affect willingness to implement DWB to satisfy customers (Hui, Au & Fock, 2004). Lee (2015) in his study of 699 match employees-managers across organisations in South Africa revealed a positive association between training and improved workplace behaviour. Other studies have also found a strong positive effect of training on DWB (Pratoom & Savatsomboon, 2012; Sanders, Moorkamp, Torka, Groeneveld & Groeneveld, 2010). On the contrary, Bos-Nehles and Veenendaal, (2017) in their study of 463 employees
of four Dutch manufacturing companies revealed that training did not affect DWB. On the
premise of the foregoing literature, it is hypothesised that:

\( H_1: \text{Training is positively related to compensation} \)

\( H_2: \text{There is a positive relationship between training and growth opportunities} \)

\( H_3: \text{There is a positive association between training and DWB} \)

\( H_4: \text{Training is positively related to staff-welfare} \)

**Growth opportunities, compensation, staff welfare and DWB**

Employees’ positive evaluation of their chances of career development and advancement is likely to be associated with expected growth in compensation. Within the context of hierarchical career advancement demonstrated through promotions and additional responsibility, employees who anticipate career growth are likely to relate such growth with a corresponding improvement in remuneration. Research has shown that limited attention has been given to assessing the effects of GO on positive behaviours (Mohsin, 2015). However, a study on 198 flight attendants in airlines in Iran, revealed that growth opportunities presented to employees are interpreted as a sign of support from organization thereby stimulating DWB among employees (Vatankah, Javid & Raoofi, 2017). Frenkel and Bednall (2016) also added that employees offered with opportunities for promotion would exhibit favourable DWB. Employees who perceive to be fairly rewarded and valued feel obliged to reciprocate with discretionary efforts (Bysted & Jespersen, 2014) to help an organization achieve its goals. Rewards motivate employees to willingly go the extra mile in fulfilling their required task (Janssen, 2000). Relatedly, compensation have been reported to influence service-oriented citizenship behaviours among 580 customer-contact staff in 29 hotels in Malaysia (Nasurdin, Ahmad & Tan, 2014).

Welfare packages enhance organizational citizenship, which induces positive discretionary behavior of employees (Lin, Chen & Chen, 2016). For example, results of a study involving 216 employees in 15 organizations in Taiwan found a positive significant relationship between perceived employee welfare practices and organizational citizenship behaviour (Lin et al., 2016). Welfare packages signal employer’s commitment and show of concern to employees which in turn ignite extra-role behavior (Muse et al., 2008). Thus, staff welfare is positively related to employees’ DWB (Carlson, Upton & Seaman, 2006). On the premise of the foregoing literature, it was hypothesized that:

\( H_5: \text{There is a positive relationship between growth opportunities and compensation} \)

\( H_6: \text{There is a positive relationship between growth opportunities and staff-welfare} \)

\( H_7: \text{There is a positive relationship between growth opportunities and DWB} \)

\( H_8: \text{There is a positive relationship between compensation and DWB} \)

\( H_9: \text{There is a positive relationship between staff welfare and DWB} \)

**Theoretical framework**

The paper draws on the social exchange theory (SET) to explicate the relationship between HPHRP and DWB of hotel employees (Figure 1). The organization as a social entity allows interaction between two organizational individuals actors; the organization represented by management and employees (Wayne, Shore & Liden, 1997). In this social interaction, the firm implements HRP as an indication of management interest in employee wellbeing to which reactions from employees are expected (Afsar et al., 2018). The HRP is perceived as an investment in employees who are also anticipated to induce DWB. The exchange is based on the concept of reciprocity where employees are expected to repay HRP with DWB. In as much
as the obligations may be unspecified; it is expected as a return for a favour in line with the law of reciprocity which requires the receiver of a benefit to respond positively by providing a beneficial return. If not of the same degree, it should be fairly reciprocal and mutually rewarding (Emerson, 1976; Gould-Williams & Davies, 2005). However, Osman et al. (2016) believed the extent of reciprocity is based on the commitment of each actor which affects and influences attitudes and behaviour towards better performance. Positive exchange translates into positive and mutual returns and the reverse applies.

The social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) is based on the premise that employees engage in valued behaviour (Donaldson & O’Toole, 2007) either material, informational or symbolic. In order to develop a workforce that is performance driven, organizations adopt activities and practices that drive employees to exhibit expected behaviour (Fei & Aun, 2018). HRP signal management’s commitment (Guzzo & Noonan, 1994) which produce psychological effects and inducement to produce discretion to perform task consistent with organizational goals specifically positive DWB (Fei & Aun, 2018).

Figure 1: Research Model

Methods
In order to test the research model, respondents were selected from a population of workers in 2 star to budget family-owned accommodation facilities in Accra, Ghana. Among other facilities to ensure guest confort, the targeted facilities of 2 star to budget consist of a minimum of 10 to 4 rooms. A cognisance survey revealed that accommodation facilities within these categories are mainly family owned while the 3 to 4 star facilities are owned and operated by franchisee, as managed contract and well-structured management comprising diverse people with technical know-how. Simple random sampling was used to select 100 hotels of which 75 accepted the invitation to participate in the study. The Ghana Tourism Authority estimated 5,123 hotel employees in the Greater Accra as of the year 2018. Based on this estimate, the sample size for the study was determined to be 358 informed by a confidence interval of 95% and a 5% margin of error. However, in view of the difficulties that surround data collection in hotels, 900 questionnaires were distributed in the selected hotels from April to May 2018.
Research assistants handed over the questionnaires to managers of the facilities to distribute to workers because the facilities declined the researchers access to the facilities to oversee the distribution of the questionnaires. Managers were requested to fairly distribute questionnaires among employees to ensure representation of all departments of the facilities in the sample. In addition, managers were also informed that workers should voluntarily participate in the study and they were to drop the completed questionnaires at the front desk of the facilities. Research assistants returned to the facilities between June and July to retrieve the questionnaires. Of the 900 questionnaires, 850 were retrieved while 47 were discarded due to incompleteness with the remaining 803 used for the analysis giving a response rate of 89%.

**Instrument**

Gulbahar (2003) recommends the adoption of previous scales because such measures usually go through a robust process in their development. Based on this recommendation, existing scales were used to measure the studied constructs. Respondents’ view on high performance human resource practices was assessed using a revised scale developed by Goodman and Svyantek (1999) comprising all the four constructs that were examined in the current paper (Training, growth opportunities, staff welfare and compensation). Sample statements included: ‘My hotel organizes training programmes for staff’, ‘Adequate growth opportunities are available in our hotel for those who perform well’, ‘Our hotel provides programs to assist balancing demands of families with children and/or elderly family members’, ‘Our hotel makes all payments due to us in time’ and ‘Rewards and incentives are fairly distributed in our hotel’. Discretionary work behaviour was measured using 16 items adopted from the study of Goodman and Svyantek (1999). Examples of the DWB items included: ‘I help other employees with their work when they have been absent’ and ‘I volunteer to do things not formally required by the job’ All the items were measured on a five-point Likert scale that ranged from strongly disagree=1 to strongly agree=5.

**Data analysis**

The data analysis involved two main steps. First, IBM SPSS was used to run descriptive statistics of respondents’ profile. Secondly, the research hypotheses were assessed with partial least squared-based structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM) using SmartPLS 3.0 application. According to Sarstedt and Cheah (2019), PLS-SEM has the advantage of allowing the simultaneous assessment of several relationships in a research model. Thus, PLS put minimal demand on residual distribution and appropriate for prediction-oriented research (Hair et al., 2011).

**Results**

**Profile of respondents**

Regarding the gender of the respondents, a little over half (54%) were male and largely aged 29.4 years with an age range of 18 and 67 years and mostly unmarried (58.3%). On educational attainment, almost half (49%) of the respondents were holders of university degrees or diploma certificates while 25% had completed technical and vocational schools. Of the 803 respondents, 77% were permanent staff with the remaining (23%) being casuals. A higher proportion of the respondents (26%) were in the food and beverage department with the store and transport being the least 1%.

**Assessment of measurement model**

The measurement model was assessed following the recommendations of Hair et al. (2013). First, the indicator factor loadings of the measurement items were examined, and they were...
considered acceptable because all the values were above the recommended threshold value of 0.7 (Table 1). Following an iterative process, items that did not meet the threshold value of 0.7 were deleted from the measurement model. For instance, one item each was removed from staff welfare and compensation while four out of the 16 items for discretionary work behaviour were retained. Secondly, internal consistency reliability was assessed using composite reliability and Cronbach’s alpha. As shown in Table 1, the values for these two indices were above the recommended 0.7, thereby demonstrating the reliability of the latent constructs.

Table 1: Factor Loadings and Reliability Indicators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constructs</th>
<th>Factor loads</th>
<th>Composite reliability</th>
<th>Cronbach’s α</th>
<th>Average Variance explained</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Compensation (COM)</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.917</td>
<td>0.898</td>
<td>0.551</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COM1</td>
<td>0.769</td>
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<tr>
<td>COM2</td>
<td>0.761</td>
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<tr>
<td>COM4</td>
<td>0.776</td>
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<tr>
<td>COM5</td>
<td>0.734</td>
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<tr>
<td>COM6</td>
<td>0.772</td>
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<tr>
<td>COM7</td>
<td>0.789</td>
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<tr>
<td>COM8</td>
<td>0.738</td>
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<tr>
<td>Staff Welfare (SW)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>0.847</td>
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<tr>
<td>SW1</td>
<td>0.799</td>
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<tr>
<td>SW2</td>
<td>0.802</td>
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<tr>
<td>SW4</td>
<td>0.753</td>
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<tr>
<td>SW5</td>
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<tr>
<td>SW6</td>
<td>0.737</td>
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<tr>
<td>Training (T)</td>
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<tr>
<td>TD2</td>
<td>0.820</td>
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<tr>
<td>TD3</td>
<td>0.856</td>
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<tr>
<td>TD4</td>
<td>0.773</td>
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<td>Growth Opportunities (GO)</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>GO2</td>
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<tr>
<td>GO3</td>
<td>0.901</td>
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<tr>
<td>Discretionary work behaviour (DWB)</td>
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<tr>
<td>DWB6</td>
<td>0.873</td>
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<tr>
<td>D WB</td>
<td>0.873</td>
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*Estimated model fit indices: SRMR = 0.064; d_ULS = 1.341; d_G = 0.529; χ² = 2,442.629; NFI = 0.781*

The third step of measurement model assessment involved evaluation of convergent validity, which measures the extent to which a construct converges to explain the variance of its items (Hair et al., 2018) and this was verified using average variance extracted. As shown in Table 2, the AVE values for the studied constructs were beyond the acceptable minimum threshold of 0.50, signifying that the constructs explained over half of the variance of their respective indicators (Hair et al., 2011; Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The next step was to assess how distinct the constructs in the research model were from each other i.e. discriminant validity and this was done by using two metrics i.e. Fornell-Larcker criterion and Heterotrait-Monotrait ratio (HTMT). As depicted in Table 2, the square root of AVE estimates for each of the constructs was higher than their correlations with other constructs, indicating the establishment of discriminant validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). In respect of HTMT, there was no problem with discriminant validity because all the values were below the recommended threshold value of 0.85 (Henseler et al., 2015).
Table 2: Discriminant validity (Fornell-Larcker and Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio Criteria)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Fornell-Larcker Criterion</th>
<th>Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio Criterion</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>COM</td>
<td>0.742</td>
<td>0.789</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SW</td>
<td>0.696</td>
<td>0.577</td>
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<tr>
<td>T</td>
<td>0.479</td>
<td>0.701</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GO</td>
<td>0.621</td>
<td>0.748</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DWB</td>
<td>0.301</td>
<td>0.425</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The diagonal figures are the square root of the AVE of the constructs and indicate the highest in any column or row

With the measurement model meeting the quality assessment indicators, we continued to assess the structural model. First, we verified for possible collinearity challenges. As indicated in Table 3, the variance inflation values were all less than 3, indicating an absence of multicollinearity (Becker et al., 2015). Having established that collinearity was not an issue, we proceeded to examine the explained variance of the endogenous constructs.

Table 3: Collinearity Assessment (Inner VIF values)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>COM</th>
<th>GO</th>
<th>DWB</th>
<th>SW</th>
<th>T</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>COM</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2.214</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GO</td>
<td>1.332</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.993</td>
<td>1.332</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DWB</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2.288</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SW</td>
<td>1.332</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.446</td>
<td>1.332</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the coefficient determination values (Table 4), the variance explained by the endogenous constructs ranged from moderate to weak (Henseler et al., 2009). Training and growth opportunities explained about 42% of the variance in compensation while the combined effect of growth opportunities and training explained about 44% the variance in perception of staff welfare. The variance explained for both growth opportunities and discretionary work behaviour was weak. As part of the assessment of the inner model, the effect sizes were examined. In line with Cohen’s (1998) guidelines, the effect size for growth opportunities and staff welfare was large ($f^2=0.387$) as well as for growth opportunities and compensation practices on DWB ($f^2=0.338$). The effect of compensation ($f^2=0.336$) and training ($f^2=0.301$) were moderate but the effect of growth opportunities exceeded the medium threshold ($f^2=0.385$). Based on the blindfolding procedure, $Q^2$ test (Geisser, 1974; Stone, 1974) was used to assess path model’s predictive accuracy. $Q^2$ test values greater than zero are indicative of predictive relevance of the constructs and as shown in Table 4, the $Q^2$ test values ranged from 0.090 to 0.234 indicating predictive relevance of the constructs.

Results of the statistical relevance of the path coefficients are presented in Table 4. The hypothesized relationship between training and compensation was statistically significant ($β=0.225$, $t=5.659$, $p<0.000$) thereby supporting H1. The path relation between training and growth opportunities was statistically significant ($β=0.499$, $t=16.297$, $p<0.000$) thereby confirming H2. In support of H3, training had a significant positive effect on discretionary work behavior ($β=0.272$, $t=6.499$, $p<0.000$). The path between training and staff welfare was statistically significant ($β=0.209$, $t=6.006$, $p<0.000$) thereby confirming H4. In relation to H5, the association between growth opportunities and compensation was positive and statistically significant ($β=0.509$, $t=14.756$, $p<0.000$). Similarly, the path relation between growth opportunities and perception of staff welfare was statistically significant thereby supporting H6 ($β=0.356$, $t=18.406$, $p<0.000$). Results of the study provide support for the path relation between growth opportunities and discretionary work behaviour ($β=-0.127$, $t=2.700$, $p<0.007$) though the direction of the relationship was unexpected. In confirmation of H8, the
The path relation between compensation and discretionary work behavior was statistically significant ($\beta=0.199$, $t=2.406$, $p<0.000$). Finally, based on the results of the study, the relationship between self-welfare and discretionary work behavior was insignificant, ($\beta=0.73$, $t=1.379$, $p=0.168$).

### Table 4: Hypothesis Assessment and Effect Sizes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypothesized path</th>
<th>Path coefficient</th>
<th>$T$ statistics</th>
<th>$p$-values</th>
<th>$f^2$ (effect size)</th>
<th>$Q^2$</th>
<th>$R^2$ adjusted</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>T -&gt; Compensation</td>
<td>0.225</td>
<td>5.659</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.066</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T -&gt; GO</td>
<td>0.499</td>
<td>16.297</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.332</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T -&gt; DWB</td>
<td>0.272</td>
<td>6.499</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.060</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T -&gt; SW</td>
<td>0.209</td>
<td>6.006</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.056</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GO -&gt; Compensation</td>
<td>0.509</td>
<td>14.756</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.338</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GO -&gt; SW</td>
<td>0.536</td>
<td>18.406</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.387</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GO -&gt; DWB</td>
<td>-0.127</td>
<td>2.700</td>
<td>0.007</td>
<td>0.010</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compensation -&gt; DWB</td>
<td>0.199</td>
<td>4.093</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.021</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SW -&gt; DWB</td>
<td>0.073</td>
<td>1.379</td>
<td>0.168</td>
<td>0.003</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COM</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.216</td>
<td>0.423</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GO</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.185</td>
<td>0.249</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DWB</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.090</td>
<td>0.144</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SW</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.234</td>
<td>0.441</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Discussion

This study investigates the influence of training, compensation, growth opportunities and staff welfare on discretionary work behaviour of employees in family-owned hotels in Accra, Ghana. Hypotheses were tested using partial least square structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM). Consistent with previous studies (Ozkeser, 2019; Dialoke & Nkechi, 2017; Kakui & Gachunga, 2016; Shafiq et al., 2013; Anis et al., 2011), training had positive significant influence on compensation, growth opportunities and staff welfare. The positive effect of training on compensation indicates that employees perceive that increasing training levels will lead to higher compensation packages. Relatedly, training enhances employees’ chances of career advancement and promotion. It is therefore not surprising that a positive relationship was found between training and growth opportunities in the study. Training provides employees with the opportunity to enhance their skills, knowledge and competencies that increase their perception of growth opportunities both internal and external of current organizations. The implication of this finding is that family-owned hotel employees perceive training as a medium that opens up opportunities for career growth.

Another important finding of the study is the positive effect of training on discretionary work behaviour of hotel employees, which, confirms the results of previous studies (Lee, 2015; Pratoom & Savatsomboon, 2012; Sanders et al., 2010; Shipton et al., 2006; Hui et al., 2004; Santos & Stuart, 2003). Within the perspective of social exchange theory, investment in employee training triggers a sense care among employees and they are likely to reciprocate this gesture of the hotel by engaging in discretionary work behaviours such as undertaking chores not formally required of them as well as helpful behaviours at the workplace. In this study, growth opportunities related positively with compensation. This finding is not surprising given that growth opportunities come with promotion, career advancement with additional responsibilities. The elevation of staff through promotion is usually associated with increased salaries, incentives and benefits because of the expectations that value of work commensurate with compensation (Thaief et al., 2015).

Results of the study indicate a positive relationship between growth opportunities and employees’ perception of staff welfare. As employees advance in their career, the welfare
practices needed to ensure that they work in a conducive, congenial and healthy work environment (Aswathappa, 2005) would be proportional to their status, which explains the significant positive relationship between growth opportunities and with staff welfare. Providing opportunities for career advancement enhance employee perception of welfare packages provided by the hotels. Employee perception of growth opportunities was related negatively to discretionary work behaviour against expectation. The implication of the results is that as perception of growth opportunities increases, employee engagement in discretionary work behaviour decreases. It is difficult to explain this finding because providing career development opportunities should rather encourage discretionary work behaviour instead of decreasing such behaviours. Perhaps, providing such extrinsic motivators rather turn out to demotivate the employees thereby discouraging discretionary work behaviour as found in the study.

In confirmation of previous studies (Nasurdin, Ahmad, & Tan, 2014), a positive significant relationship was found between compensation and discretionary work behaviour among the studied hotel employees. This implies that, higher levels of compensation trigger employees’ engagement of discretionary behaviours among employees. In line with the social exchange theory, the provision of satisfactory compensation packages to employees is likely to engender reciprocal gestures that relate to discretionary workplace behaviours among hotel employees. Lastly, contrary to expectation, staff welfare was unrelated to discretionary work behaviour among family-owned hotel workers.

**Theoretical implications**

This study draws on the social exchange theory (SET) to elucidate the behaviour of hotel employees based on the assumption that adoption of HPHRP drives discretionary work behaviours among family-owned hotel employees (Fei & Aun, 2018). Even though family-owned hotels dominate the hospitality operations landscape, HPHRP of these establishments have been largely overlooked in the hospitality human resource management literature. This study, therefore, fills an important void in the literature by shedding light on the influence of HPHRP on discretionary work behaviours of family-owned hotel employees in Ghana. In so doing, this study adds an important perspective to the hospitality human resources management literature from a developing country perspective that equally resonates with family-owned hotels elsewhere. This study shows that training and compensation are capable of engendering social exchange of family-owned hotel workers. However, enhancing career advancement opportunities for employees will not necessarily translate into discretionary work behaviours among family-owned hotel workers. A surprising finding that requires further empirical investigation in order to validate it.

**Practical implications**

The results of the study provide useful implications for managers of hotels and other stakeholders of the hospitality industry. First, the positive effect of training on compensation, growth opportunities and discretionary work behaviours means that managers of family-owned hotels need to pay more attention to training of their employees. Training employees will engender discretionary work behaviour among family-owned hotel workers. The hospitality industry, particularly independent family-owned hotels rarely invest in the training of their employees. Beyond on-the-job training sessions, hotels could consult hospitality training institutions to organize short training programs for employees of family-owned hotels at pro bono basis given that family-owned hotels are usually confronted with limited resources. The finding that compensation has positive influence on discretionary work behaviour has worthwhile implications for hotel managers. Hospitality firms, especially small family-owned
hotels usually offer inadequate compensation packages to their employees. In line with this finding, there is the need to improve employee compensation packages to commensurate employee work efforts.

Conclusions
This study tested the relationship between HPHRP and DWB anchored on the social exchange theory. It is concluded that training and compensation trigger discretionary work behaviour among family-owned hotel workers. Hence management of family-owned hotels can deploy effective training and compensation to boost the discretionary work behaviour of their workers. However, growth opportunities was inversely related to discretionary work behaviour while staff welfare was unconnected to discretionary work behaviour. From the study, HRP of growth opportunities could be likely deployed to achieve other purposes, than shaping the DWB of employees. However, researchers and management should be cautious, as the effect of growth opportunities could be attributed to its constituent and mode of implementation in family-owned hotels. Finally, training enhances employee perception of compensation and growth opportunities while the latter will enhance compensation of family-owned hotel workers.

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