International Journal of Hospitality Management 92 (2021) 102712

Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

International Journal of Hospitality Management

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/ijhm

Original Research Article

Leadership styles, motivating language, and work engagement: An empirical investigation of the hotel industry

Md Karim Rabiul [a,*], Tan Fee Yean [b]

[a] School of Business Management, Universiti Utara Malaysia, Malaysia
[b] School of Business Management, College of Business, Universiti Utara Malaysia, Malaysia

ARTICLE INFO

Keywords:
Hospitality
Work engagement
Servant leadership
Transformational leadership
Motivating language
Bangladesh

ABSTRACT

This study examines the relationship between leadership style (servant and transformational leadership), motivating language and work engagement. A sample of 391 lower and mid-level Bangladeshi hotel employees, selected via simple random sampling, participated in a cross-sectional survey. The mediating effects of motivating language regarding the association between the two leadership styles and work engagement were examined using partial least square-structural equation modelling. Both leadership styles and three types of motivating language have positive relationships with work engagement. Even though all three types of motivating languages mediate the link between servant leadership and work engagement, the link between transformational leadership and work engagement is only mediated by direction-giving and empathetic language. This study is novel in its application of the speech act theory to the investigation of the mediating effects of motivating language on the relationship between the two leadership styles and work engagement. Practical and theoretical contributions are also discussed.

1. Introduction

Leadership is the process of facilitating and influencing followers to accomplish common goals (Yukl, 2010). Thus, leaders must understand what should be done and how to do it (Yukl, 2012). Although leadership styles bear common objectives, they may substantially differ in the process by which leaders motivate followers (Hater and Bass, 1988). The effectiveness of leadership depends on contextual factors such as style, behaviour, and trait (Derue et al., 2011; Van Dierendonck et al., 2013).

In the context of hospitality, people-focused and service-oriented hotel industry relies on engaged employees (Chen and Peng, 2019; Huertas-Valdivia et al., 2019). Such employees are foundational to a business' quest for competitive advantage, financial success, and long-term achievement (Albrecht et al., 2015; Xanthopoulou et al., 2009), as they invest high energy, emotional dedication, and deep concentration towards work (Bakker et al., 2011; Schaufeli et al., 2006). Contrarily, disengaged employees could induce a loss of up to $1 trillion in yearly deviance cost worldwide (Christian and Ellis, 2013). Thus, several studies have investigated how and why employees are engaged at work, finding that leadership styles are underlying factors (Macleod and Clarke, 2009; Weaver and Mitchell, 2012). Thus, it is imperative to investigate how leadership styles influence work engagement.

Two prominent leadership styles (servant and transformational) are highly related to work engagement (Chon and Zoltan, 2019; Eva et al., 2019; Hoch et al., 2016; Huertas-Valdivia et al., 2019). Many studies have investigated the potential underlying mechanisms of this relationship, including need satisfaction, leadership effectiveness, and empowerment (Chen and Peng, 2019; Huertas-Valdivia et al., 2019; van Dierendonck et al., 2013).

Although the above findings are promising, several noteworthy gaps remain. First, no prior studies investigate the mediating effects of oral communication skills (motivating language) in the relationship between leadership styles and work engagement. Studies have shown that leaders' communication is one factor influencing employee engagement at work (Macleod and Clarke, 2009; Weaver and Mitchell, 2012). Leaders with poor communication skills cost organisations about $62.4 million yearly (SHRM, 2017). Therefore, this study emphasises the use of motivating language for boosting employee performance. Motivating language was developed by Sullivan (1988) to explain how varying levels of leaders' oral communication skills affect employee motivation. Motivating language can inspire employees' motivational and emotional attachment to an organisation (Conger, 1991; Gutermann et al., 2017;

* Corresponding author.
E-mail addresses: mdkrabiul@gmail.com (M.K. Rabiul), feeyean@uum.edu.my (T.F. Yean).

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2020.102712
Received 10 March 2020; Received in revised form 18 September 2020; Accepted 28 September 2020
Available online 9 October 2020

Sullivan, 1988).

Second, prior empirical studies have shown the fundamental differences between servant and transformational leadership style by establishing unique variances in outcomes over one leadership style to other and their divergent validity (e.g., Banks et al., 2018; Hoch et al., 2016). However, few studies have tested the differential mechanisms linking the two leadership styles to follower outcomes (e.g., van Dierendonck et al., 2013).

Third, servant leadership is undeniably a good fit for the service-oriented industry (e.g., Chen and Peng, 2019; Huertas-Valdivia et al., 2019). However, although both leadership styles are similar in outcomes (Coetzer et al., 2017; Stone et al., 2004; van Dierendonck and Nuijten, 2011), there are less transformational leadership studies in the hotel industry, as compared to the widely studied servant leadership. Several scholars (e.g., Clark et al., 2009; Jung and Yoon, 2015; Liang et al., 2017) posit that transformational leadership style is effective in the labour-intensive and ever-changing hospitality industry in developing human resources. They highlight that it generates follower confidence and esteem by promoting employee self-interest for organisational gain (Arnold, 2017; Aryee et al., 2012). Transformational leadership is more likely be productive in a hierarchical traditional and collectivist culture (e.g., Bangladesh), where organisations are more valued, and employees are directed to achieve group goals (Jung et al., 1995).

Thus, to bridge the gaps in the literature, this study investigates the mediating effects of motivating language in the relationship between leadership styles and work engagement. The study first offers a theoretical foundation of differentiating both leadership styles in their relationship with work engagement, drawing from speech act theory (Austin, 1962; Sullivan, 1988). Second, the findings further extend the leadership literature beyond the correlational study of transformational and servant leadership styles. Finally, by integrating two prominent leadership styles in their relationship with work engagement via motivating language, this study highlights their importance in the context of the hotel industry.

2. Literature review and hypotheses development

2.1. Difference between servant and transformational leadership

Servant leaders primarily aim to achieve a shared vision by serving followers first (Mayer et al., 2008). Second, servant leaders ensure growth and moral development and enhance common good by paying more attention to ethical demands, thereby placing empowerment ahead of self and organisational interests (Graham, 1991; Williams et al., 2017). Moreover, organisational goals are achieved indirectly via employee development. Third, this leadership style emphasises personal integrity and builds long-term relationships with employees that extend to the community (Liden et al., 2008).

Transformational leadership primarily focuses on organisational goals by expanding and uplifting employees' self-interest (Bass and Avolio, 1990; Stone et al., 2004). Transformational leaders are mentors in motivating followers to develop innovativeness, creativity, optimism, and enthusiasm (Rafferty and Griffin, 2004). Although both leadership styles share similar goals, the approaches differ. Servant leaders primarily focus on followers' needs via humility, spirituality, and justice (Graham, 1991; Mayer et al., 2008), whereas transformational leaders go beyond the mutual exchange and attempt to transform followers' higher expectation for the organisational vision (Arnold, 2017; Podsakoff et al., 1990).

2.2. Leadership styles and subordinates' work engagement

Work engagement refers to employees' positive attitude towards work; a psychological state of mind characterised by dedication, vigour, and absorption (Schaufeli et al., 2006). Vigour is demonstrated with great energy, resilience, and persistent psychological connection with work regardless of circumstances. Dedication is demonstrated through the sense of personal attachment to work, distinguished by inspiration, challenging work, pride, and a sense of significance (Dollard and Bakker, 2010). Absorption is a state of deep work involvement such that one is disconnected from surroundings, even forgetting the sense of time (Schaufeli et al., 2006; Shantz et al., 2013).

The attributes of servant leadership (i.e., standing back, courage, and stewardship) (van Dierendonck and Nuijten, 2011) can provide necessary support and stimulate the desired behaviours of employees. Servant leaders, given their compelling vision and commitment to the personal development of others, create value for the community. Moreover, their stewardship allows followers to understand their job requirements better, thereby giving them a purpose and shedding light on the bigger picture regarding their respective roles, which ultimately generates work and organisational pride (Coetzer et al., 2017; Liden et al., 2008). This leadership style instils the desire for challenging work and sparks inspiration via the empowering qualities and characteristics of leaders (de Sousa and van Dierendonck, 2014). Service-oriented servant leadership encourages power-sharing and empowering people. It highlights the values of love and equality that induce the feeling of significance at work (Patterson, 2003).

Moreover, servant leaders ensure a fair and equal distribution of work based on individual ability (Greenleaf, 1996; Stone et al., 2004). By being attentive to followers' personal growth, servant leaders provide development training and share decision-making responsibility. They also build relationships and value people, staying true to their principles (Sipe and Frick, 2015; Spears, 2005; Patterson, 2003). Servant leaders empower followers while detaching themselves from external thought. Prior studies including the hotel industry (e.g., Chen and Peng, 2019; Huertas-Valdivia et al., 2019) have shown a positive relationship with work engagement. Thus, hypothesis proposed:

H1. Servant leadership is positively related to the work engagement.

Transformational leaders encourage employees by increasing their level of optimism and decreasing frustrations (Bass and Avolio, 1990; Sivanathan and Cynthia Fekken, 2002). Prior studies provide evidence that employees are engaged at work once they have a clear understanding of their roles, having a high level of optimism (McColl-Kennedy and Anderson, 2002). Transformational leaders are role models who pay less attention to their self-interest to achieve group goals (Bass and Avolio, 1990). Employees reciprocate transformational leadership by being engaged at work (Shamir et al., 1993). When transformational leaders show that they genuinely care for followers via intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration (Barling et al., 2000), employees feel obliged to engage at work (Bakker et al., 2011).

Moreover, transformational leaders are morally mature; they motivate the behaviour and attitudes of employees to create a higher level of moral reasoning in followers (Sivanathan and Cynthia Fekken, 2002; Yukl, 2012). Several empirical studies (e.g., Bouwmans et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2016) showed that employees' participative decision-making, greater autonomy, and feedback-seeking behaviours are positively related to transformational leadership styles. Employees are better engaged at work once they feel they have greater job satisfaction, autonomy, and participation (Luthans and Peterson, 2002). Transformational leaders create meaningful work for employees, in turn, increase engagement at work (Bakker et al., 2011). This leadership demonstrates a positive relationship with work engagement in the hotel industry (e.g., Liang et al., 2017), as such highlights following hypothesis:

H2. Transformational leadership is positively related to work engagement.

2.3. Leadership styles and motivating language

Motivating language stems from Austin's (1962) speech act theory.

Sullivan (1988) developed it as a complete model and called it "motivating language". Speech act theory refers to the different functions of motivating language, and consists of meaning-making, empathetic, and direction-giving language (Sullivan, 1988). Motivating language serves as a framework for leaders to use the most appropriate form of communication to motivate employees at work (Madlock and H. Clubbs, 2019; Mayfield et al., 1995; Sullivan, 1988). Direction-giving language provides information, restore imbalance, clarifies goals, rewards, tasks, needs, and alleviates confusions to reduce uncertainty (Madlock and Sexton, 2015; Sullivan, 1988). Via empathetic language, leaders express genuine care for emotional well-being by sharing related stories (Mayfield and Mayfield, 2018). Meaning-making language gives reality to employee expectations of organisational cultural norms, informal small talk, myth-making, and gossip (Sharbrough et al., 2006).

Servant leaders primarily consider the needs of employees before the company (Graham, 1991; Williams et al., 2017). Thus, servant leaders are inherently altruistic and idealistic, as reflected in their language (Farling et al., 1999). Servant leaders develop individuals through meaning-making and direction-giving language (Gutierrez-Wirsching, 2018). They employ empathy and persuasion during interactions with subordinates. The ethical and spiritual influence of servant leaders in organisational life is commendable (Greenleaf, 1996). Thus, to achieve objectives, they walk, speak, and act their principles (Spears, 2005; Sipe and Frick, 2015) via empathetic language. Servant leaders never hold information to wield power; they share information with transparency (Graham, 1991). Self-disclosure and openness are the most critical components of servant leaders (Greenleaf, 1996).

Moreover, communication is essential for servant leaders, especially for the common good of the community. They are consistent in action (Sendjaya et al., 2008; Sipe and Frick, 2015) and have a particular set of skills, such as empathetic listening, problem-solving, communication skills, conflict-resolution, harmonious decision-making, and community building that foster the environment of service (Bottum and Lenz, 2010). Accordingly,

H3. Servant leadership is positively related to direction-giving language.

H4. Servant leadership is positively related to empathetic language.

H5. Servant leadership is positively related to meaning-making language.

Transformational leaders support delegate, coach, care, and advice individuals based on their needs (Barling et al., 2000). Thus, transformational leaders likely employ direction-giving language by which they generate confidence in employees (Jin, 2010). Verbal skills and non-verbal communication are important attributes of transformational leaders (Barge et al., 1989; Shamir et al., 1993). They articulate visions based on organisational values by talking to employees with great enthusiasm and inspiration (Arnold, 2017; Rafferty and Griffin, 2004), taking advantage of their competence with communication skills (Jensen et al., 2018). Hence, transformational leaders may use meaning-making and direction-giving language. For example, through inspirational communication or verbal persuasion, they communicate a positive and encouraging message to followers (Rafferty and Griffin, 2004). Similarly, transformational leaders are effective in using emotional language (e.g., empathetic and meaning-making language) to change the follower values (Salter et al., 2010). Thus,

H6. Transformational leadership is positively related to direction-giving language.

H7. Transformational leadership is positively related to empathetic language.

H8. Transformational leadership is positively related to meaning-making language.

2.4. Leaders' motivating languages and subordinates' work engagement

Motivating language consists of direction-giving, empathetic, and meaning-making language (Mayfield et al., 1995). Direction-giving language provides information; restore imbalance; and clarifies goals, rewards, tasks, and needs to remove any confusions and reduce uncertainty (Sharbrough et al., 2006). Motivating language on work performance promotes confidence, a desire for challenging work, and a sense of belongingness for greater employee engagement (e.g., Bakker and Demerouti, 2017; Kunie et al., 2017; Sullivan, 1988). Employees are expected to engage at work if they experience challenging and meaningful tasks (Binyamin and Brender-Ilan, 2017).

Empathetic language refers to oral communication skills to express genuine care for emotional well-being and support (Sharbrough et al., 2006). It is an expression of humanity that builds interpersonal relationship (Sullivan, 1988). Better relationship with managers creates a psychologically safe environment for better engagement (Farndale et al., 2011; Rees et al., 2013). Genuine care and concern induce the feeling of psychologically safety and satisfaction (Mayfield and Mayfield, 2010). Satisfied workers are more likely to engage at work (Attridge, 2009; Dollard and Bakker, 2010; Jung and Yoon, 2015)

Leaders' meaning-making language meaningfully generates work awareness by discussing the cultural environment of an organisation, such as rules, structure, and values (Conger, 1991; Mayfield et al., 1998). As organisations hold different values and cultures, meaning-making language furnishes reality to employee expectations (Sarros et al., 2014). Thus, leaders' proper use of rhetorical crafting and framing applies meaning to work in determining whether a task is sufficient (Conger, 1991), thereby leading to further engagement and providing transparent information on job requirements. Employees perception of psychological meaningfulness is positively related to work engagement (Geldenhuys et al., 2014). A recent study showed that motivating language (meaning-making) has positive effects on work engagement (Kunie et al., 2017). Therefore,

H9. Direction-giving language is positively related to work engagement.

H10. Empathetic language is positively related to work engagement.

H11. Meaning-making language is positively related to work engagement.

2.5. Mediating effects of motivating language between servant leadership, transformational leadership, and work engagement

Motivating language by servant and transformational leaders likely acts as an influential mechanism to enlighten subordinates' work engagement, given that counselling, instructions, and feedback are essential in human emotions (Pennington et al., 1999). Moreover, supportive, affiliative, and empathic communication are related to emotions, which may strengthen the connection between leaders and followers (Foa and Foa, 2012). Likewise, leaders motivate and affect employees with not only effective strategies but also rhetorical communication skills (Conger, 1991; Heracleous and Klaering, 2014).

Subordinates notice and observe the motivational and affective state of leaders by which they are encouraged to work (Gutermann et al., 2017). Thus, communication mediates leader-follower interactions (Zerfass and Huck, 2007), where motivating language plays a significant role in boosting employees' positive outcomes, and direction-giving language generates employee confidence by reducing ambiguity (Mayfield and Mayfield, 2018; Sarros et al., 2014). They, in turn, encourage meaningful work and a psychologically safe environment to increase engagement (Binyamin and Brender-Ilan, 2017; Geldenhuys et al., 2014; Kahn, 1990; Kunie et al., 2017).

Moreover, since meaning-making language applies meaning to work to generate excitement about the future, and empathetic language

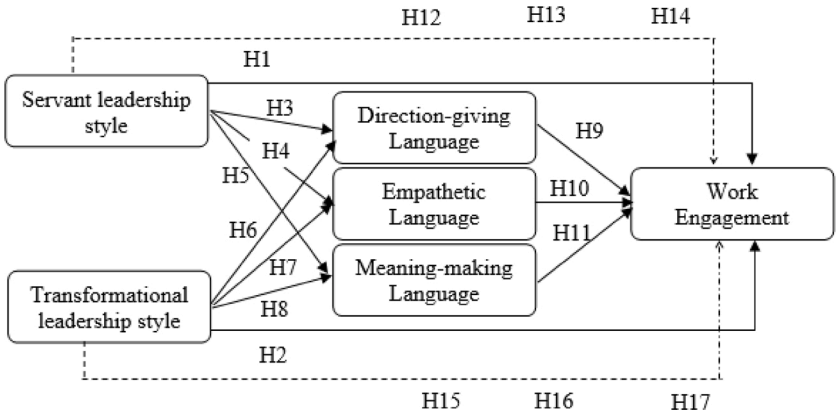

Fig. 1. Conceptual model.
Note: (——) Solid indicates direct and (- - -) dotted line indicates indirect hypotheses.

generates emotions to build relationships (Mayfield and Mayfield, 2018), emotions are essential. Thus, both meaning-making and empathetic language provide emotional power for relationship building, leads to further work engagement (Kunie et al., 2017; May et al., 2004). Hence, positive directional, empathetic, and meaning-making language generates better relationships, psychological safety, and meaning, thus resulting in positive co-worker norms (Binyamin and Brender-Ilan, 2017; Kunie et al., 2017).

Servant leaders motivate employees by speaking their mind, heart, and soul via persuasive or motivating language (Farling et al., 1999; Gutierrez-Wirsching, 2018). Likewise, transformational leaders transform followers using rhetorical skills, including verbal and non-verbal communication (Barge et al., 1989; Shamir et al., 1993). Emotional language is essential for transformational leaders through which they encourage positive work attitudes and behaviour (Rafferty and Griffin, 2004; Salter et al., 2010). Additionally, transformational leaders are optimistic (Arnold, 2017; Aryee et al., 2012). They employ communication to enable employees to realise company goals (Jensen et al., 2018). Hence, both servant and transformational leaders exercise motivating language for greater employee work engagement. Therefore,

H12–H14. (H12) Direction-giving language, (H13) empathetic language, and (H14) meaning-making language mediates the relationship between the servant leadership style and work engagement.

H15–H17. (H15) Direction-giving language, (H16) empathetic language, and (H17) meaning-making language mediates the relationship between the transformational leadership style and work engagement.

Thus, the conceptual model is presented in Fig. 1.

3. Research method

3.1. Data and sample procedure

According to the Bangladesh International Hotel Association, there are 44 star-rated hotels in Bangladesh (SomoyTV, 2020). Only employees from 32 hotels, consisting of 14 five-star, 4 four-star, and 14 three-star hotels, participated in the survey. According to the Bangladesh Hotel and Restaurant Ordinance 1982, five-star hotels should have a minimum capacity of 200 rooms; four-star hotels, 150 rooms; and three-star hotels, 100 rooms. As such, the estimated population is 5,766, with a room to employee ratio of 1:1, following prior studies (e.g., Kara et al., 2013). As recommend by Krejcie and Morgan (1970), a sample of 357 employees is considered representative for a population of this size. Lower and mid-level employees (e.g., concierge and food and beverage assistants) rated their immediate supervisors' leadership styles and use of motivating language, as well as their own level of engagement.

Table 1
Demographic Profile.

		No. of Participants	Percentage (%)
Gender	Male	327	83.6
	Female	64	16.4
Marital status	Single	248	63.4
	Married	135	34.5
Age Group	18–21 years	51	13.1
	22–25 years	154	39.5
	26–29 years	120	30.08
	30–33 years	49	12.6
	34 and above years	16	4.1
Educational background	SSC	11	2.8
	HSC	36	9.2
	Diploma	110	28.1
	Bachelor	178	45.5
	Masters	52	13.3
Departments of work	Front Office	134	34.3
	Food & Beverage	111	28.4
	House Keeping	67	17.1
	Sales & Marketing	52	13.3
	HRM	18	4.6
	Accounts	9	2.3

Data were collected between October and December 2019. A simple random sampling technique was used to collect data with a target of 357 responses. Bartlett et al. (2001) state that although the response rate has no certain role, around 50% would be adequate. Hence, based on the hotel size, 735 self-administered questionnaires were distributed to employees proportionately. With the consent of the human resources (HR) managers, the researcher and the associated representatives distributed questionnaires in a sealed envelope directly to the respondents to avoid potential bias. The completed questionnaires were collected within a specific time period (i.e. three to five weeks) directly by the researcher's own representatives, instead of the HR managers, to ensure participants' anonymity. After discarding missing data and outliers, a total of 391 valid questionnaires were retained with a 53.1% response rate, of which 83.6% were male and 16.4%, female, while 64.4% were single and 34.5%, married. The front desk had the highest number of respondents (34.4%), followed by food and beverage assistants (28.4%). The remaining respondents were from housekeeping (17.1%) and sales and marketing (13.3%). More than 45% hold degrees, followed by those with a diploma (28.1%), master's (13.3%), and high school certificate or equivalent (Table 1).

Table 2
Means, standard deviation, and zero-order correlation of the study variables.

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Servant leadership	5.09	.95	1					
2. Transformational leadership	5.43	.93	.492**	1				
3. Direction-giving language	5.03	.91	.408**	.351**	1			
4. Empathetic language	4.84	1.25	.345**	.344**	.250**	1		
5. Meaning-making language	4.55	1.13	.228**	.141**	.265**	.165**	1	
6. Work engagement	5.09	.95	.602**	.501**	.459**	.403**	.385**	1

Note. M = means, SD = standard deviation. ** two-tailed significant correlation at 0.01 level.

3.2. Measures

The servant leadership style measure was adapted from Liden et al. (2015), which have been used by several scholars (e.g., Karatepe et al., 2018; Lapointe and Vandenberghe, 2015; Tang et al., 2016) and showed high reliability. The items include 'My immediate supervisor puts my best interests ahead of his/her own'. A widely used (e.g., Arnold and Walsh, 2015; Buil et al., 2019; Nielsen et al., 2008) seven-items scale, developed by Carless et al. (2000), measure transformational leadership style. The items include 'my immediate supervisor encourages me to think to solve the old problems innovatively'.

Mayfield et al. (1995) developed a measure for motivating language, including direction-giving (10-items), empathetic (six-items), and meaning-making language (eight-items). The items include 'my immediate supervisor offers helpful directions on how to do my job'. This scale has demonstrated good convergent validity (e.g., Binyamin and Brender-Ilan, 2017; Madlock and Sexton, 2015; Mayfield et al., 1998).

A widely employed nine-item unidimensional work engagement scale is adapted from Schaufeli et al. (2006). The items include 'I feel happy when I am working intensely'. Several scholars (e.g., Christian and Slaughter, 2007; Schaufeli et al., 2006; Vallieres et al., 2017) suggested that a unidimensional scoring scheme provide a more accurate representation of engagement. Thus, following the scholars and the recommendation by Sonnentag (2003), the unidimensional scale was employed, as it provides a single factor in the factor analysis. The questionnaires were designed with a seven-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree' to '7=strongly agree) and presented in both English and Bengali.

3.3. Questionnaire translation and pre-test

The 'committee approach' (e.g., Brislin, 1970) was employed to translate the questionnaire from English to Bengali. First, a group of three bilingual university lecturers in the field of management, equally fluent in both Bengali and English, did the translation. Second, the translation was checked for further clarification by two managers in the hospitality sector to avoid sensitive issues for hoteliers. A pre-test was performed to reduce ambiguity and increase the ease of understanding the questionnaires. A group of 10 employees provided opinions on whether they understood the questionnaires. Minor modifications were made based on the recommendations.

3.4. Control variables

Following earlier studies (e.g., de Sousa and van Dierendonck, 2014; Tsaur et al., 2019; van Dierendonck et al., 2013), gender, age, and work experience are controlled for to avoid their potential influence on employee work behaviour.

3.5. Data treatment, potential bias treatment, and data analysis

Data screening, descriptive statistics, common method bias, and hypotheses tests were conducted using SPSS 25.0 and Smart-PLS 3.0. In the data screening process, we found two sets of incomplete questionnaires and these were excluded from the final sample. Thus, only questionnaires without missing values were retained for further analysis. Outliers were deleted through the use of Mahalanobis distance, following Lynch's (2013) Chi-square (x^2) distribution, significant at the 0.001 level.

Table 3
Collinearity assessment.

Coefficient[a]	Tolerance	VIF
Servant leadership style	0.664	1.507
Transformational leadership style	0.703	1.422
Direction-giving language	0.770	1.299
Empathetic language	0.829	1.206
Meaning-making language	0.907	1.102

[a] =dependent variable: Work engagement.

Table 4
Heterogeneity test.

Criteria	Segment 1	Segment 2	Segment 3	Segment 4	Segment 5
AIC	3,991.09	3,898.55	3,855.07	3,830.48	**3,818.96**
AIC3	4,006.09	3,929.55	3,902.07	**3,893.48**	3,897.96
AIC4	4,021.09	3,960.55	**3,949.07**	3,956.48	3,976.96
BIC	4,050.62	**4,021.58**	4,041.60	4,080.51	4,132.49
CAIC	4,065.62	**4,052.58**	4,088.60	4,143.51	4,211.49
MDL5	**4,408.74**	4,761.70	5,163.72	5,584.62	6,018.60
EN		**0.399**	0.431	0.493	0.612

Note: AIC = Akaike's information criterion (AIC); CAIC = consistent AIC; BIC = Bayesian information criterion.

To check for common method bias/variance (CMV) in the data, Harman's single-factor test was performed. The result indicates no CMV, as a single factor could explain only 30.147% of the overall variance (Podsakoff and Organ, 1986). Moreover, to minimise bias, an established and shortened version of the scale was used, along with a bilingual questionnaire, to ensure that there were no overlapping constructs or ambiguity in the questionnaire (e.g., Podsakoff et al., 2003). Moreover, participants were assured of the anonymity of their responses to encourage them to provide true and honest opinions (e.g., Rees et al., 2013). Using Levene's test, non-response bias was tested by dividing the sample into two groups of early (223) and late (168) responses. The result shows no significant difference between the two groups.

Partial least squares-SEM (PLS-SEM) is suitable for predictive research with non-normal data and a complex model with many variables, including mediating variables (Hair et al., 2017).

3.6. Multicollinearity

Multicollinearity was checked in evaluating the intercorrelation between variable, the variance inflation factor (VIF), and tolerance to avoid misleading results (e.g., Marsh et al., 2004). Table 2 shows that the maximum correlation between variables is 0.602.

No multicollinearity issues exist among the variables, as indicated by the correlation below 0.70 (e.g. Yu et al., 2015), tolerance >0.2, and VIF < 5.0 (e.g., Hair et al., 2017). Table 3 displays the highest VIF value of 1.507 and the lowest tolerance values of 0.664.

Table 5
Convergent Validity with loading, cross-loading, AVE, CR, and α.

Variables	Items	DGL	EML	MML	SL	TFL	WE	CR	α	AVE
Direction giving language (DGL)	DGL1	**0.786**	0.181	0.175	0.383	0.369	0.400	0.901	0.901	0.566
	DGL10	**0.785**	0.179	0.245	0.337	0.357	0.407			
	DGL3	**0.765**	0.131	0.251	0.334	0.330	0.416			
	DGL4	**0.812**	0.195	0.327	0.327	0.305	0.439			
	DGL6	**0.695**	0.201	0.193	0.358	0.265	0.345			
	DGL7	**0.796**	0.215	0.235	0.374	0.332	0.401			
	DGL9	**0.605**	0.121	0.217	0.292	0.236	0.306			
Empathetic language (EML)	EML1	0.113	**0.689**	0.083	0.302	0.341	0.290	0.879	0.882	0.552
	EML2	0.179	**0.825**	0.205	0.299	0.339	0.387			
	EML3	0.111	**0.639**	0.150	0.264	0.244	0.306			
	EML4	0.243	**0.928**	0.164	0.395	0.347	0.424			
	EML5	0.188	**0.658**	0.157	0.240	0.236	0.316			
	EML6	0.191	**0.676**	0.149	0.242	0.226	0.350			
Meaning making language (MML)	MML1	0.293	0.230	**0.923**	0.250	0.161	0.378	0.916	0.919	0.653
	MML3	0.225	0.163	**0.750**	0.208	0.103	0.337			
	MML4	0.313	0.172	**0.929**	0.252	0.178	0.388			
	MML5	0.234	0.153	**0.775**	0.199	0.124	0.357			
	MML6	0.261	0.166	**0.890**	0.258	0.181	0.385			
	MML7	0.165	0.081	**0.498**	0.131	0.112	0.212			
Servant leadership Style (SL)	SL1	0.331	0.239	0.216	**0.721**	0.402	0.500	0.889	0.890	0.535
	SL2	0.330	0.240	0.161	**0.705**	0.381	0.513			
	SL3	0.327	0.288	0.257	**0.734**	0.365	0.511			
	SL4	0.371	0.371	0.238	**0.778**	0.447	0.452			
	SL5	0.316	0.297	0.126	**0.700**	0.379	0.496			
	SL6	0.310	0.281	0.214	**0.713**	0.401	0.477			
	SL7	0.352	0.304	0.181	**0.766**	0.441	0.511			
Transformational leadership style (TFL)	TFL1	0.311	0.223	0.141	0.392	**0.711**	0.429	0.899	0.901	0.562
	TFL2	0.298	0.313	0.155	0.441	**0.769**	0.428			
	TFL3	0.331	0.271	0.076	0.374	**0.683**	0.372			
	TFL4	0.323	0.339	0.164	0.416	**0.758**	0.393			
	TFL5	0.285	0.257	0.125	0.388	**0.698**	0.414			
	TFL6	0.322	0.339	0.146	0.415	**0.789**	0.454			
	TFL7	0.330	0.310	0.133	0.457	**0.827**	0.498			
Work engagement (WE)	WE1	0.372	0.277	0.215	0.491	0.410	**0.673**	0.890	0.890	0.503
	WE2	0.295	0.373	0.273	0.434	0.415	**0.670**			
	WE3	0.366	0.326	0.308	0.475	0.444	**0.721**			
	WE5	0.404	0.315	0.398	0.464	0.372	**0.726**			
	WE6	0.390	0.337	0.333	0.501	0.425	**0.745**			
	WE7	0.380	0.307	0.284	0.429	0.394	**0.672**			
	WE8	0.355	0.344	0.337	0.515	0.394	**0.730**			
	WE9	0.375	0.379	0.286	0.515	0.389	**0.731**			

Note: AVE = average variance extracted; CR = composite reliability; α = Cronbach alpha.

Table 6
HTMT ratio criterion.

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Direction-giving language						
2. Empathetic language	0.228					
3. Meaning-making language	0.307	0.197				
4. Servant leadership Style	0.456	0.388	0.266			
5. Transformational leadership Style	0.416	0.385	0.176	0.547		
6. Work engagement	0.515	0.464	0.423	0.674	0.569	

Table 7
Quality of the model and fit indices.

Variables	R^2 (adjusted)	Q^2	SRMR
Direction-giving language	0.245 (Weak)	0.122 (Small)	0.055 (Good)
Empathetic language	0.196 (Weak)	0.095 (Small)	
Meaning-making language	0.071	0.040 (Small)	
Work engagement	0.608 (Moderate)	0.271 (Medium)	

Note: R^2 = coefficient of determination; Q^2 = cross-validated redundancy; SRMR = standardised root mean residual.

3.7. Robustness check

Table 4 shows that (AIC and AIC3); (AIC4 and BIC); and (AIC3 and BIC) indicate same number of segments. If the above criteria are met, entropy statistic (EN) should be >0.50. Thus, substantial heterogeneity is absent in the data (Matthews et al., 2016).

4. Results

4.1. Measurement model

Following Henseler et al. (2009), a two steps procedure was applied to test the model. In the first step, the measurement model evaluated through convergent validity includes average extracted variance (AVE), Cronbach's alpha (α), composite reliability (CR), and discriminant validity.

The following items DGL2, DGL5, DGL8, MML2, MML8, and WE4 were discarded due to unsatisfactory loading below 0.40 (Hair et al., 2014). According to Hair et al. (2017) convergent validity confirmed as minimum AVE ranges between 0.503 and 0.563 and CR ranges between 0.916 (see Table 5).

Discriminant validity was also ensured by evaluating the loading and cross-loading and the Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) ratio criterion. All items for the prime factor have higher loadings than other items in other variables (see Table 5).

Moreover, the recommended values for HTMT (see Table 6) was lower than 0.85 (Henseler et al., 2015). Thus, the variables meet the criteria for discriminant validity.

Table 8
Direct and indirect hypotheses.

	Hypothesis	(β)	t- Values	Decision	95% confidence interval bias corrected	
					LL	UL
H1	SL→WE	0.370	5.397*	Supported	0.238	0.506
H2	TFL→WE	0.197	3.012**	Supported	0.070	0.325
H3	SL→DGL	0.324	4.806*	Supported	0.191	0.456
H4	SL→EML	0.258	4.117*	Supported	0.132	0.378
H5	SL→MML	0.250	3.447*	Supported	0.107	0.388
H6	TFL→DGL	0.241	3.415*	Supported	0.098	0.377
H7	TFL→EML	0.251	4.058*	Supported	0.123	0.368
H8	TFL→MML	0.042	0.571	No support	−0.111	0.187
H9	DGL→WE	0.162	2.866**	Supported	0.054	0.275
H10	EML→WE	0.164	3.610*	Supported	0.077	0.254
H11	MML→WE	0.210	4.823*	Supported	0.123	0.296
H12	SL→DGL→WE	0.053	2.410***	Partial	0.018	0.105
H13	SL→EML→WE	0.042	2.745**	Partial	0.017	0.077
H14	SL→MML→WE	0.052	2.759**	Partial	0.021	0.097
H15	TFL→DGL→WE	0.039	2.047***	Partial	0.010	0.088
H16	TFL→EML→WE	0.041	2.577***	Partial	0.016	0.082
H17	TFL→MML→WE	0.009	0.549	No mediation	−0.022	0.042

Note: n = 391. *p ≤ 0.001 or t ≥ 3.29; **p ≤ 0.01 or t ≥ 2.58; ***p ≤ 0.05 or t ≥ 1.96. β = path coefficient. SL = servant leadership, TFL = transformational leadership, DGL = direction-giving language, EML = empathetic language, MML = meaning-making language, and WE = work engagement. LL = lower limit, UL = upper limit.

The standardised root mean residual (SRMR) value of 0.055 is lower than 0.08 and indicates a good model fit (Hair et al., 2017). Cross-validated redundancies (Q^2) displayed in Table 7 are greater than zero indicates model has small to medium predictive relevance (Hair et al., 2017). According to Hair et al. (2017), the coefficient of determination (R^2) of 0.19, 0.33, and 0.67 indicate that the exogenous variable has small, medium, and substantial effects on the endogenous variable, respectively. Thus, exogenous variables have weak to moderate influence on endogenous variables (see Table 7).

4.2. Structural model

In the second step, as Dijkstra and Henseler (2015) recommended, consistent bootstrapping was applied to 5,000 samples of a reflective measurement model to test the hypotheses. Initially, the effect of control variables, including age group (β = −0.009, t = 0.055, p > 0.05), gender (β = 0.094, t = 2.312, p < 0.05), educational level (β = 0.036, t = 0.927, p > 0.05), and work experience (β = 0.015, t = 0.488, p > 0.05), on work engagement was analysed. This study found that only gender (dummy-coded, male = 0, female = 1) has significant impacts on work engagement, which was consistent with the studies by Schaufeli et al. (2006) and Sonnentag (2003). Given the marginal changes of $R^2 = 0.007$ (i.e. with control variables = 0.615; without control variables = 0.608), all control variables were excluded in structural equation modelling in accordance with earlier studies (e.g., Tsaur et al., 2019; Schaufeli et al., 2008).

Regarding direct effects, 10 hypotheses were supported with P < 0.001 and P < 0.01 (Table 8 and Fig. 2). However, the transformational leadership style does not have a significant influence on meaning-making language (β = 0.042, p = 0.571 or p > 0.05). Thus, H8 was not supported (Fig. 3).

Regarding mediating effects (see Table 8), the result shows that meaning-making language does not mediate the relationship between transformational leadership style and work engagement (β = 0.009, t = 0.549 or p > 0.05). Thus, H17 was not supported. The remaining five hypotheses were supported, following a partial mediation with P < 0.01 and P < 0.05 significance levels. Partial mediation occurs when both indirect and direct effects are significant (Nitzl et al., 2016).

5. Discussion

As expected, the findings are in line with prior studies of the hotel industry (e.g., Chen and Peng, 2019; Huertas-Valdivia et al., 2019; Liang et al., 2017), where servant (H1) and transformational leadership style (H2) significantly influence followers' engagement. Positive, helpful, and encouraging behaviours of leaders are reflected in employees' positive behaviours (Chen and Peng, 2019; Shamir et al., 1993).

H3, H4, and H5 were supported, where servant leaders exercise motivating language and have significant positive impacts on meaning-making, direction-giving, and empathetic (Gutierrez-Wirsching, 2018). This finding implies and reconfirms that such leaders are persuasive communicators (Farling et al., 1999; Graham, 1991). The transformational leadership style is positively and significantly related to direction-giving (H6) and empathetic use of language (H7). There has been limited empirical study regarding the association between motivating language and transformational leadership. However, these empirical findings are consistent with earlier scholars (e.g., Barge et al., 1989; Rafferty and Griffin, 2004; Salter et al., 2010; Shamir et al., 1993). They stated that transformational leadership exercise rhetorical skills with emotional and inspirational communication.

Contrary to expectation, H8 was not supported since transformational leaders have no positive impacts on meaning-making language. This result could be explained by social desirability and

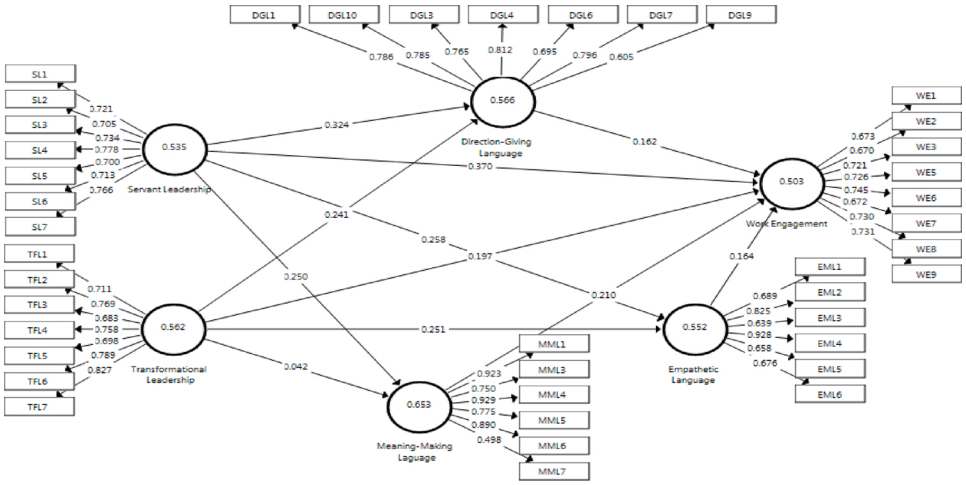

Fig. 2. Measurement model with loading and AVE.

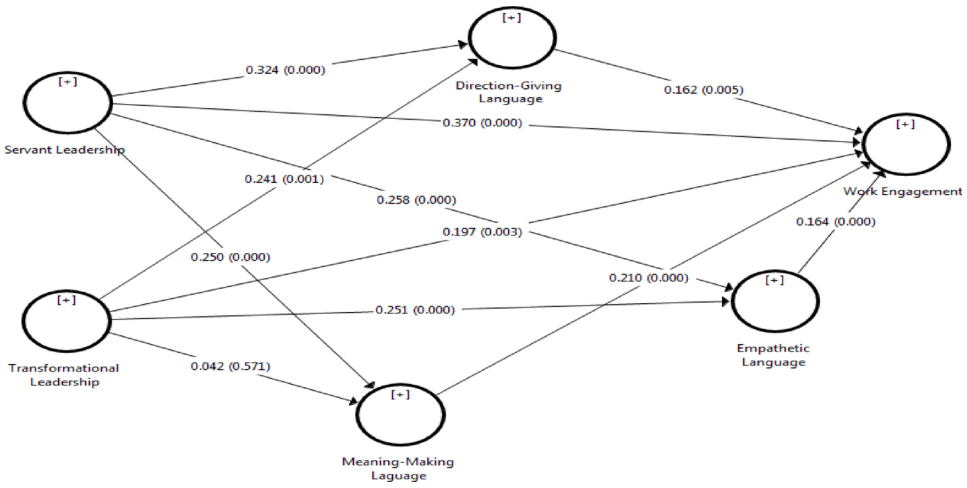

Fig. 3. Structural equation model.

individual capacity to accept the meaning transformational leaders prescribe for themselves and not for others. Moreover, there is the tendency of transformational leaders to expect higher performance, prioritise group goals, and provide challenging tasks (Breevaart et al., 2014; Podsakoff et al., 1990), which may not be meaningful for those with a different impression (Sullivan, 1988). A challenging task may not always be meaningful for less competent individuals.

Motivating language, including direction-giving (H9), empathetic (H10), and meaning-making language (H11), have significant positive impacts on work engagement. The study findings are in line with previous findings (Gutierrez-Wirsching, 2018; Kunie et al., 2017; Madlock and H. Clubbs, 2019; Madlock and Sexton, 2015), where motivating language has substantial impacts on employee positive outcomes. Regarding the Bangladeshi hotel industry, this study reconfirms that language for clarifying goals, positive feedback, and empathy produces positive employee outcomes.

Finally, H12, H13, H14, H15, and H16 are supported by empirical data, where motivating languages are important mechanisms for both leadership styles to boost follower engagement. This finding reconfirms what scholars proposed; for example, communication skills and effective leadership are inseparable (Hackman and Johnson, 2013). It further clarifies that leaders motivate employees with not only their effective strategies but also their rhetorical communication skills (Conger, 1991).

5.1. Theoretical contribution

The study findings have both theoretical and practical implications. Regarding the theoretical contribution, the results demonstrate the empirical link between transformational leadership and direction-giving and empathetic language. This result reaffirms prior studies (e.g., Barge et al., 1989; Salter et al., 2010; Shamir et al., 1993), where transformational leadership employ rhetorical communication skills. Findings contribute in literature establishing link between transformational leadership and motivating language as suggested by Sarros et al. (2014). Further, our findings reconfirm the relationship between servant leadership and motivating language via three separate dimensions. Gutierrez-Wirsching (2018) provide the empirical relationship between servant leadership and motivating language but did not elaborate specifically on the three dimensions. Thus, this study revalidates the earlier finding of Gutierrez-Wirsching (2018) on the relationship between servant leadership style and motivating language in the hotel industry.

Second, extending speech act theory (Austin, 1962; Sullivan, 1988), this study confirms that three types of motivating languages are underlying mechanisms for servant leadership styles through which leaders influence engagement. Similar results found connections to transformational leadership, except for meaning-making language. It indicates that both leaders exercise motivating language as a mechanism to induce positive work behaviour, which has not been examined by past studies. This study is first to introduce motivating language as a mediator between leadership styles and work engagement. Earlier studies (Madlock and H. Clubbs, 2019; Sharbrough et al., 2006) only show employees outcomes, while few studies (e.g., Gutierrez-Wirsching, 2018) implemented mediation effects in different contexts with different employee outcomes (e.g., USA). This study investigated the hotel industry context in Bangladesh. Thus, it contributes to the literature by providing evidence that motivating language is a communication behaviour that complements servant and transformational leadership styles.

Third, several scholars have highlighted conceptual overlaps with transformational leadership (Andersen, 2018; Coetzer et al., 2017; Stone et al., 2004) and shown the fundamental differences between servant and transformational leadership style, thus establishing unique variance in outcomes over one leadership to others and their divergent validity (Banks et al., 2018; Hoch et al., 2016). This study presents motivating language with three dimensions to understand the difference between the two leadership styles: servant leadership is different from transformational leadership, at least regarding meaning-making language. Precisely, servant leaders use three types of motivating languages, while transformational leaders use direction-giving and empathetic language to boost employees' work engagement.

5.2. Managerial implications

The implementations of this study are valuable to the hospitality profession in several ways. First, practising both leadership styles in the hotel industry for positive employee outcomes is recommended. In less developed countries, practising servant and transformational leadership styles for successful organisational outcomes are beneficial. Hoteliers may adopt transformational leadership style practices along with servant leadership, which is well known for its service-oriented leadership style (Gui et al., 2020; Williams et al., 2017).

Moreover, this study provides practical implementations for hospitality professionals on ways to bridge the gap between leadership practices and employee work engagement. Servant leaders, for example, can serve employees through the motivational use of spoken language to increases the level of work engagement. Likewise, transformational leaders must motivative employees by practising directional and empathetic communication for better work engagement. Leaders may have intrinsic spoken language skills to motivate employees via interpersonal exchange. The results can help hoteliers appreciate how

leadership styles can play an important role through communication behaviours in engaging employees.

Hospitality professionals should train to develop motivating language. Thus, employees can develop motivating language to prepare them for future managerial roles. Finally, hospitality professional may evaluate motivating language in selecting leaders and further development.

5.3. Limitation and future research directions

This study has some limitation, which gives scope for future research. First, the results may not be generalised outside the star-rated hotels in Bangladesh and other industries. Future research may include all types of hotels to ensure generalisability and replicate to other industries. Second, cross-sectional data was suitable to test the phenomena of both leadership styles, particularly leaders' use of rhetorical skills and subordinates' work engagement. However, the results of cross-sectional data may change over time due to management policy and economic situations that could change in a cause-and-effect relationship. Third, although the single-source report was not a problem, multiple sources might provide different results. This study is limited to a quantitative approach; therefore, future studies may adopt qualitative research with an in-depth interview and focus group. Finally, several studies have theoretically argued that transformational and servant leaders are different in their approaches and suitable for different contexts (Coetzer et al., 2017; Van Dierendonck et al., 2013). Other factors may also impact the relationship between leadership styles, motivating language, and engagement. Future research may introduce the factors that these relationships may hinge on, such as work environment, individual ability, and social factors.

References

Albrecht, S.L., Bakker, A.B., Gruman, J.A., Macey, W.H., Saks, A.M., 2015. Employee engagement, human resource management practices and competitive advantage. J. Organ. Eff. People Perform. 2 (1), 7–35.

Andersen, J.A., 2018. Servant leadership and transformational leadership: from comparisons to farewells. Leadersh. Organ. Dev. J. 39 (6), 762–774.

Arnold, K.A., 2017. Transformational leadership and employee psychological well-being: a review and directions for future research. J. Occup. Health Psychol. 22 (3), 381–393.

Arnold, K.A., Walsh, M.M., 2015. Customer incivility and employee well-being: testing the moderating effects of meaning, perspective taking and transformational leadership. Work Stress 29 (4), 362–378.

Aryee, S., Walumbwa, F.O., Zhou, Q., Hartnell, C.A., 2012. Transformational leadership, innovative behavior, and task performance: test of mediation and moderation processes. Hum. Perform. 25 (1), 1–25.

Attridge, M., 2009. Measuring and managing employee work engagement: a review of the research and business literature. J. Workplace Behav. Health 24 (4), 383–398.

Austin, J.L., 1962. How to Do Things with Words. Oxford University Press, London.

Bakker, A.B., Demerouti, E., 2017. Job demands–resources theory: taking stock and looking forward. J. Occup. Health Psychol. 22 (3), 273–285.

Bakker, A.B., Albrecht, S.L., Leiter, M.P., 2011. Key questions regarding work engagement. Eur. J. Work. Organ. Psychol. 20 (1), 4–28.

Banks, G.C., Gooty, J., Ross, R.L., Williams, C.E., Harrington, N.T., 2018. Construct redundancy in leader behaviors: a review and agenda for the future. Leadersh. Q. 29 (1), 236–251.

Barge, J.K., Downs, C.W., Johnson, K.M., 1989. An analysis of effective and ineffective leader conversation. Manag. Commun. Q. 2 (3), 357–386.

Barling, J., Slater, F., Kevin Kelloway, E., 2000. Transformational leadership and emotional intelligence: an exploratory study. Leadersh. Organ. Dev. J. 21 (3), 157–161.

Bartlett, J.E., Kotrlik, J.W., Higgins, C.C., 2001. Organizational research: determining appropriate sample size in survey research. Inf. Technol. Learning Perform. J. 19 (1), 43–50.

Bass, B.M., Avolio, B.J., 1990. Developing transformational leadership: 1992 and beyond. J. Eur. Ind. Train. 14 (5).

Binyamin, G., Brender-Ilan, Y., 2017. Leaders's language and employee proactivity: enhancing psychological meaningfulness and vitality. Eur. Manag. J. 36 (4), 463–473.

Bottum, C.E., Lenz, D.L., 2010. Within Your Reach. The Beautitudes in Business and Everyday Life. Lulu. com.

Bouwmans, M., Runhaar, P., Wesselink, R., Mulder, M., 2017. Fostering teachers' team learning: An interplay between transformational leadership and participative decision-making? Teach. Teach. Educ. 65, 71–80.

Breevaart, K., Bakker, A.B., Demerouti, E., Sleebos, D.M., Maduro, V., 2014. Uncovering the underlying relationship between transformational leaders and followers' task performance. J. Pers. Psychol. 13 (4), 194–203.

Brislin, R.W., 1970. Back-translation for cross-cultural research. J. Cross. Psychol. 1 (3), 185–216.

Buil, I., Martínez, E., Matute, J., 2019. Transformational leadership and employee performance: the role of identification, engagement and proactive personality. Int. J. Hosp. Manag. 77, 64–75.

Carless, S.A., Wearing, A.J., Mann, L., 2000. A short measure of transformational leadership. J. Bus. Psychol. 14 (3), 389–405.

Chen, S., Peng, J., 2019. Determinants of frontline employee engagement and their influence on service performance. Int. J. Hum. Resour. Manag. 1–24.

Chon, K.K., Zoltan, J., 2019. Role of servant leadership in contemporary hospitality. Int. J. Contemp. Hosp. Manage.

Christian, J.S., Ellis, A.P., 2013. The crucial role of turnover intentions in transforming moral disengagement into deviant behavior at work. J. Bus. Ethics 119 (2), 193–208.

Christian, M.S., Slaughter, J.E., 2007. Work engagement: a meta-analytic review and directions for research in an emerging area. Acad. Manag. Proc. 2007 (1), 1–6.

Clark, R.A., Hartline, M.D., Jones, K.C., 2009. The effects of leadership style on hotel employees' commitment to service quality. Cornell Hosp. Q. 50 (2), 209–231.

Coetzer, M., Bussin, M., Geldenhuys, M., 2017. The functions of a servant leader. Adm. Sci. 7 (1), 5.

Conger, J.A., 1991. Inspiring others: the language of leadership. Acad. Manag. Perspect. 5 (1), 31–45.

de Sousa, M.J., Van Dierendonck, D., 2014. Servant leadership and engagement in a merge process under high uncertainty. J. Organ. Chang. Manag. 27 (6), 877–899.

Derue, D.S., Nahargang, J.D., Wellman, N., Humphrey, S.E., 2011. Trait and behavioral theories of leadership: an integration and meta-analytic test of their relative validity. Pers. Psychol. 64 (1), 7–52.

Dijkstra, T.K., Henseler, J., 2015. Consistent partial least squares path modeling. Mis Q. 39 (2), 297–316.

Dollard, M.F., Bakker, A.B., 2010. Psychosocial safety climate as a precursor to conducive work environments, psychological health problems, and employee engagement. J. Occup. Organ. Psychol. 83 (3), 579–599.

Eva, N., Robin, M., Sendjaya, S., Van Dierendonck, D., Liden, R.C., 2019. Servant leadership: a systematic review and call for future research. Leadersh. Q. 30 (1), 111–132.

Farling, M.L., Stone, A.G., Winston, B.E., 1999. Servant leadership: setting the stage for empirical research. J. Leadersh. Stud. 6 (1–2), 49–72.

Farndale, E., Van Ruiten, J., Kelliher, C., Hope-Hailey, V., 2011. The influence of perceived employee voice on organizational commitment: an exchange perspective. Hum. Resour. Manage. 50 (1), 113–129.

Foa, E.B., Foa, U.G., 2012. Resource theory of social exchange. Handbook of Social Resource Theory. Springer, pp. 15–32.

Geldenhuys, M., Łaba, K., Venter, C.M., 2014. Meaningful work, work engagement and organisational commitment. SA J. Ind. Psychol. 40 (1).

Graham, J.W., 1991. Servant-leadership in organizations: inspirational and moral. Leadersh. Q. 2 (2), 105–119.

Greenleaf, R.K., 1996. On Becoming a Servant Leader. San Francisco, CA.

Gui, C., Luo, A., Zhang, P., Deng, A., 2020. A meta-analysis of transformational leadership in hospitality research. Int. J. Contemp. Hosp. Manage. 32 (6), 2137–2154.

Gutermann, D., Lehmann-Willenbrock, N., Boer, D., Born, M., Voelpel, S.C., 2017. How leaders affect followers' work engagement and performance: integrating Leader–Member exchange and crossover theory. Br. J. Manag. 28 (2), 299–314.

Gutierrez-Wirsching, S., 2018. The Relationship between Motivating Language and Servant Leadership (Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation). Texas A&M International University, Texas.

Hackman, M.Z., Johnson, C.E., 2013. Leadership: a Communication Perspective. Waveland Press.

Hair, J.F., Black, W.C., Babin, B.J., Anderson, R.E., 2014. Multivariate Data Analysis: Pearson New International Edition, 7th ed. Pearson Higher Ed., New York, NY.

Hair, J., Hollingsworth, C.L., Randolph, A.B., Chong, A.Y., 2017. An updated and expanded assessment of PLS-SEM in information systems research. Ind. Manag. Data Syst. 117 (3), 442–458.

Hater, J.J., Bass, B.M., 1988. Superiors' evaluations and subordinates' perceptions of transformational and transactional leadership. J. Appl. Psychol. 73 (4), 695–702.

Henseler, J., Ringle, C.M., Sinkovics, R.R., 2009. The use of partial least squares path modeling in international marketing. Adv. Int. Market. 277–319.

Henseler, J., Ringle, C.M., Sarstedt, M., 2015. A new criterion for assessing discriminant validity in variance-based structural equation modeling. J. Acad. Mark. Sci. 43 (1), 115–135.

Heracleous, L., Klaering, L.A., 2014. Charismatic leadership and rhetorical competence. Group Organ. Manag. 39 (2), 131–161.

Hoch, J.E., Bommer, W.H., Dulebohn, J.H., Wu, D., 2016. Do ethical, authentic, and servant leadership explain variance above and beyond transformational leadership? A meta-analysis. J. Manage. 44 (2), 501–529.

Huertas-Valdivia, I., Gallego-Burín, A.R., Lloréns-Montes, F.J., 2019. Effects of different leadership styles on hospitality workers. Tour. Manag. 71, 402–420.

Jensen, U.T., Moynihan, D.P., Salomonsen, H.H., 2018. Communicating the vision: how face-to-face dialogue facilitates transformational leadership. Public Adm. Rev. 78 (3), 350–361.

Jin, Y., 2010. Emotional leadership as a key dimension of public relations leadership: a national survey of public relations leaders. J. Public Relat. Res. 22 (2), 159–181.

Jung, H.S., Yoon, H.H., 2015. Understanding pay satisfaction: the impacts of pay satisfaction on employees' job engagement and withdrawal in deluxe hotel. Int. J. Hosp. Manag. 48, 22–26.
Jung, D.I., Bass, B.M., Sosik, J.J., 1995. Bridging leadership and culture: a theoretical consideration of transformational leadership and Collectivistic cultures. J. Leadersh. Stud. 2 (4), 3–18.
Kahn, W.A., 1990. Psychological conditions of personal engagement and disengagement at work. Acad. Manag. J. 33 (4), 692–724.
Kara, D., Uysal, M., Sirgy, M.J., Lee, G., 2013. The effects of leadership style on employee well-being in hospitality. Int. J. Hosp. Manag. 34, 9–18.
Karatepe, O.M., Ozturk, A., Kim, T.T., 2018. Servant leadership, organisational trust, and bank employee outcomes. Serv. Ind. J. 39 (2), 86–108.
Krejcie, R.V., Morgan, D.W., 1970. Determining sample size for research activities. Educ. Psychol. Meas. 30 (3), 607–610.
Kunie, K., Kawakami, N., Shimazu, A., Yonekura, Y., Miyamoto, Y., 2017. The relationship between work engagement and psychological distress of hospital nurses and the perceived communication behaviors of their nurse managers: a cross-sectional survey. Int. J. Nurs. Stud. 71, 115–124.
Lapointe, É., Vandenberghe, C., 2015. Examination of the relationships between servant leadership, organizational commitment, and voice and antisocial behaviors. J. Bus. Ethics 148 (1), 99–115.
Liang, T., Chang, H., Ko, M., Lin, C., 2017. Transformational leadership and employee voices in the hospitality industry. Int. J. Contemp. Hosp. Manage. 29 (1), 374–392.
Liden, R.C., Wayne, S.J., Zhao, H., Henderson, D., 2008. Servant leadership: development of a multidimensional measure and multi-level assessment. Leadersh. Q. 19 (2), 161–177.
Liden, R.C., Wayne, S.J., Meuser, J.D., Hu, J., Wu, J., Liao, C., 2015. Servant leadership: validation of a short form of the SL-28. Leadersh. Q. 26 (2), 254–269.
Luthans, F., Peterson, S.J., 2002. Employee engagement and manager self-efficacy. J. Manag. Dev. 21 (5), 376–387.
Lynch, S.M., 2013. Using Statistics in Social Research: a Concise Approach. Springer Science & Business Media.
MacLeod, D., Clarke, N., 2009. Engaging for Success: Enhancing Performance through Employee Engagement. Department for Business Innovation and Skills, London. Crown copyright.
Madlock, P.E., H. Clubbs, B., 2019. The influence of supervisors' use of motivating language in organizations located in India. Int. J. Bus. Commun., 232948841983559
Madlock, P.E., Sexton, S., 2015. An application of motivating language theory in Mexican organizations. Int. J. Bus. Commun. 52 (3), 255–272.
Marsh, H.W., Dowson, M., Pietsch, J., Walker, R., 2004. Why multicollinearity matters: a re-examination of relations between self-efficacy, self-concept, and achievement. J. Educ. Psychol. 96 (3), 518–522.
Matthews, L.M., Sarstedt, M., Hair, J.F., Ringle, C.M., 2016. Identifying and treating unobserved heterogeneity with FIMIX-PLS. Eur. Bus. Rev. 28 (2), 208–224.
May, D.R., Gilson, R.L., Harter, L.M., 2004. The psychological conditions of meaningfulness, safety and availability and the engagement of the human spirit at work. J. Occup. Organ. Psychol. 77 (1), 11–37.
Mayer, D.M., Bardes, M., Piccolo, R.F., 2008. Do servant-leaders help satisfy follower needs? An organizational justice perspective. Eur. J. Work. Organ. Psychol. 17 (2), 180–197.
Mayfield, J., Mayfield, M., 2010. Leader-level influence on motivating language. Compet. Rev. 20 (5), 407–422.
Mayfield, J., Mayfield, M., 2018. Motivating Language Theory: Effective Leader Talk In The Workplace. Palgrave Macmillan.
Mayfield, J., Mayfield, M., Kopf, J., 1995. Motivating language: exploring theory with scale development. J. Bus. Commun. 32 (4), 329–344.
Mayfield, J., Mayfield, M.R., Kopf, J., 1998. The effects of leader motivating language on subordinate performance and satisfaction. Hum. Resour. Manage. 37 (3–4), 235–248.
McColl-Kennedy, J.R., Anderson, R.D., 2002. Impact of leadership style and emotions on subordinate performance. Leadersh. Q. 13 (5), 545–559.
Nielsen, K., Randall, R., Yarker, J., Brenner, S., 2008. The effects of transformational leadership on followers' perceived work characteristics and psychological well-being: a longitudinal study. Work Stress 22 (1), 16–32.
Nitzl, C., Roldan, J.L., Cepeda, G., 2016. Mediation analysis in partial least squares path modeling. Ind. Manag. Data Syst. 116 (9), 1849–1864.
Patterson, K.A., 2003. Servant Leadership: a Theoretical Model (Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation). Graduate School of Business, Regent University.
Pennington, D.C., Gillen, K., Hill, P., 1999. Social Psychology. University Press, London, Oxford.
Podsakoff, P.M., Organ, D.W., 1986. Self-reports in organizational research: problems and prospects. J. Manage. 12 (4), 531–544.
Podsakoff, P.M., MacKenzie, S.B., Moorman, R.H., Fetter, R., 1990. Transformational leader behaviors and their effects on followers' trust in leader, satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behaviors. Leadersh. Q. 1 (2), 107–142.
Podsakoff, P.M., MacKenzie, S.B., Lee, J., Podsakoff, N.P., 2003. Common method biases in behavioral research: a critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. J. Appl. Psychol. 88 (5), 879–903.
Rafferty, A.E., Griffin, M.A., 2004. Dimensions of transformational leadership: conceptual and empirical extensions. Leadersh. Q. 15 (3), 329–354.
Rees, C., Alfes, K., Gatenby, M., 2013. Employee voice and engagement: connections and consequences. Int. J. Hum. Resour. Manag. 24 (14), 2780–2798.
Salter, C., Green, M., Duncan, P., Berre, A., Torti, C., 2010. Virtual communication, transformational leadership, and implicit leadership. J. Leadersh. Stud. 4 (2), 6–17.
Sarros, J., Luca, E., Densten, I., C. Santora, J., 2014. Leaders and their use of motivating language. Leadersh. Organ. Dev. J. 35 (3), 226–240.
Schaufeli, W.B., Bakker, A.B., Salanova, M., 2006. The measurement of work engagement with a short questionnaire. Educ. Psychol. Meas. 66 (4), 701–716.
Schaufeli, W.B., Taris, T.W., Van Rhenen, W., 2008. Workaholism, burnout, and work engagement: Three of a kind or three different kinds of employee well-being? Appl. Psychol. 57 (2), 173–203.
Sendjaya, S., Sarros, J.C., Santora, J.C., 2008. Defining and measuring servant leadership behaviour in organizations. J. Manag. Stud. 45 (2), 402–424.
Shamir, B., House, R.J., Arthur, M.B., 1993. The motivational effects of charismatic leadership: a self-concept based theory. Organ. Sci. 4 (4), 577–594.
Shantz, A., Alfes, K., Truss, C., Soane, E., 2013. The role of employee engagement in the relationship between job design and task performance, citizenship and deviant behaviours. Int. J. Hum. Resour. Manag. 24 (13), 2608–2627.
Sharbrough, W.C., Simmons, S.A., Cantrill, D.A., 2006. Motivating language in industry: its impact on job satisfaction and perceived supervisor effectiveness. J. Bus. Commun. 43 (4), 322–343.
SHRM, 2017. The Cost of Poor Communications. April 10 Retrieved from. https://www.shrm.org/resourcesandtools/hr-topics/behavioral-competencies/communication/pages/the-cost-of-poor-communications.aspx.
Sipe, J.W., Frick, D.M., 2015. Seven Pillars of Servant Leadership: Practicing the Wisdom of Leading by Serving. Paulist Press.
Sivanathan, N., Cynthia Fekken, G., 2002. Emotional intelligence, moral reasoning and transformational leadership. Leadersh. Organ. Dev. J. 23 (4), 198–204.
Somoy, T.V., 2020. আয় না থাকার অজুহাতে অনকে হ·াটনে বতেন দচ্ছিনো | Five Star Hotel in Bangladesh. Retrieved from Somoy TV website. https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=KMNtgc1tvZU.
Sonnentag, S., 2003. Recovery, work engagement, and proactive behavior: a new look at the interface between nonwork and work. J. Appl. Psychol. 88 (3), 518–528.
Spears, C., 2005. The Understanding and Practice of Servant Leadership. School of Leadership Studies, Regent University, pp. 1–8.
Stone, A.G., Russell, R.F., Patterson, K., 2004. Transformational versus servant leadership: a difference in leader focus. Leadersh. Organ. Dev. J. 25 (4), 349–361.
Sullivan, J.J., 1988. Three roles of language in motivation theory. Acad. Manag. Rev. 13 (1), 104–115.
Tang, G., Kwan, H.K., Zhang, D., Zhu, Z., 2016. Work–family effects of servant leadership: the roles of emotional exhaustion and personal learning. J. Bus. Ethics 137 (2), 285–297.
Tsaur, S., Hsu, F., Lin, H., 2019. Workplace fun and work engagement in tourism and hospitality: the role of psychological capital. Int. J. Hosp. Manag. 81, 131–140.
Vallieres, F., McAuliffe, E., Hyland, P., Galligan, M., Ghee, A., 2017. Measuring work engagement among community health workers in Sierra Leone: Validating the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale. Revista de Psicología del Trabajo y de las Organizaciones 33 (1), 41–46.
Van Dierendonck, D., Nuijten, I., 2011. The servant leadership survey: development and validation of a multidimensional measure. J. Bus. Psychol. 26 (3), 249–267.
Van Dierendonck, D., Stam, D., Boersma, P., De Windt, N., Alkema, J., 2013. Same difference? Exploring the differential mechanisms linking servant leadership and transformational leadership to follower outcomes. Leadersh. Q. 25 (3), 544–562.
Wang, B., Qian, J., Ou, R., Huang, C., Xu, B., Xia, Y., 2016. Transformational leadership and employees' feedback seeking: the mediating role of trust in leader. Soc. Behav. Personal. Int. J. 44 (7), 1201–1208.
Weaver, P., Mitchell, S., 2012. Lessons for Leaders from the People Who Matter. Retrieved from. https://www.ddiworld.com/ddi/media/trend-research/lessonsforleadersfromthepeoplewhomatter_mis_ddi.pdf?ext=.pdf.
Williams, W.A., Brandon, R., Hayek, M., Haden, S.P., Atinc, G., 2017. Servant leadership and followership creativity. Leadersh. Organ. Dev. J. 38 (2), 178–193.
Xanthopoulou, D., Bakker, A.B., Demerouti, E., Schaufeli, W.B., 2009. Work engagement and financial returns: a diary study on the role of job and personal resources. J. Occup. Organ. Psychol. 82 (1), 183–200.
Yu, H., Jiang, S., Land, K.C., 2015. Multicollinearity in hierarchical linear models. Soc. Sci. Res. 53, 118–136.
Yukl, G., 2010. Leadership in Organizations. Person, Upper Saddler River. New Jersey.
Yukl, G., 2012. Effective leadership behavior: what we know and what questions need more attention. Acad. Manag. Perspect. 26 (4), 66–85.
Zerfass, A., Huck, S., 2007. Innovation, communication, and leadership: new developments in strategic communication. Int. J. Strateg. Commun. 1 (2), 107–122.