

1 **A systematic and critical review of leadership styles in contemporary hospitality: A roadmap**
2 **and a call for future research**

3 **Abstract**

4 Different leadership styles can lead to diverse business performance (some styles are
5 correlated with positive performance while others are associated with negative performance),
6 and have a different effect on employee attrition rate and on organizational commitment. The
7 hospitality sector is a very competitive sector characterized by high seasonality and turnover
8 rates. In order to synthesize the literature on leadership styles in hospitality industry, we develop
9 a systematic literature to illustrate the dominant leadership styles in the hospitality research to
10 demonstrate theories utilized in hospitality leadership styles research, and to map the outcomes
11 of each leadership style. We present a comprehensive review of the 79 articles on leadership
12 styles in the hospitality context spanning over 13 years (2008–2020) and extend the scope in
13 distinctive means. We present conceptual clarity to leadership styles in the hospitality domain.
14 Then, we map the theoretical and nomological network of leadership styles in the hospitality
15 context. Moreover, we provide a comprehensive projected research agenda in order to
16 demonstrate theoretical discourses and empirical research. Overall, our critical review presents a
17 holistic idea of the main focus of the prior studies and what should be highlighted in future
18 studies.

19 **Keywords;** Leadership styles, Systematic literature review, Hospitality, Hotels

1. Introduction

Leadership is a concept that has been studied extensively in organizational and management sciences (Yamak & Eyüpoğlu, 2018). Sloof and von Siemens (2019) argue that organizational leaders have the right to make and implement decisions formally or informally. These decisions can affect their subordinates in an organization, therefore leaders should delegate and participate with their followers (Elkhwesky et al., 2019).

Indeed, there are numerous leadership styles, such as ethical leadership (Bhatti et al., 2020), transformational leadership (Khan et al., 2020), transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership (Sandstrom & Reynolds, 2020), and servant leadership (Karatepe et al., 2020). The consequences of the leadership styles are different in term or organizational performance (Al Khajeh, 2018), employees attrition rates (Nanjundeswaraswamy & Swamy, 2014) and different levels of organizational commitment (Yahaya & Ebrahim, 2016). In the same vein, Rabiul and Yean (2021) called for extensive research on leadership styles in the hotel industry.

Studies in the literature support the importance of leadership for hotels (Patiar & Wang, 2020), employees (He et al., 2019; Koo et al., 2019), customers (Ghosh & Khatri, 2018), and communities (Jang et al., 2017; Patiar & Wang, 2016). For instance, Stavrinoudis and Chrysanthopoulou (2017) found that charismatic leadership is vital to hotel reputation, while Tarkang et al. (2020) concluded that ethical leadership is important for hotel employees trust and job commitment. In addition, transformational and authentic leadership styles are significant to hotel customer satisfaction (Baquero et al., 2020).

Despite the increasing academic interest in leadership styles and the importance of creating a comprehensive review of the leadership styles literature in the hospitality industry and how prior studies have approached this topic and how it should be investigated in the future. To date, there is no systematic literature review for leadership styles research in hospitality including hotels, restaurants, resorts, motels, casinos, nightclubs, and food service operations. Prior systematic reviews have addressed other disciplines, such as nursing (Cummings et al., 2008; Wong & Cummings, 2007) and with reviews mostly focusing on one leadership style, such as servant leadership (Chon & Zoltan, 2019; Eva et al., 2019).

There are very limited systematic reviews in the literature addressing leadership styles in the hospitality industry, which has raised the need to conduct our systematic review to indicate research outlets or journals that publish leadership style research in hospitality. We explore the research contexts and design in hospitality research, illustrate the dominant leadership styles in the hospitality research, indicate the theories utilized in hospitality leadership styles research,

1 and map outcomes of each leadership style. Based on our review, a strategy for extending future
2 studies by both theoretical and empirical development is presented.

3 We suggest that it is time for a comprehensive literature review of the nomological
4 network of hospitality leadership styles research, with a wide range of empirical studies
5 demonstrating essential associations between leadership styles and outcomes. With four
6 overarching questions in mind, we approached our literature analysis as follows:

- 7 1. *What hospitality sectors are analyzed in leadership styles research? And what are the research*
8 *designs employed in research?*
- 9 2. *What are the dominant leadership styles in hospitality research? And what are the theories*
10 *utilized in research?*
- 11 3. *What are the outcomes of each leadership style utilized in the hospitality context?*
- 12 4. *In the hospitality context, what is the future course of leadership styles research?*

13 To address these questions, we conducted a systematic literature review to identify the
14 literature pertinent to leadership styles in the hospitality industry. To determine whether to
15 include an article in our review, the criterion was that the focus should be on leadership styles as
16 a key variable or subject area, so it is fundamental to conceptualize different leadership styles.

17 **2. The concept of leadership styles**

18 There are many styles of leadership. *Pygmalion leadership* is a type of leadership that is
19 important to motivate followers and their effectiveness (Kim et al., 2019). Based on
20 Karakowsky, DeGama, and McBey (2012), the Pygmalion effect refers to increased
21 subordinates' performance by increased supervisory expectations, it commences with the
22 optimistic prospects of a leader towards subordinates. The Pygmalion leader motivates her/his
23 subordinates to perceive themselves with these high expectations.

24 While *self-centered leadership* means that the leader prefers his/ her own company,
25 avoids people or groups, does not engage with others, works and acts separately from others,
26 and pursues to achieve his/ her own best interests (Nyberg et al. 2011), whereas *spiritual*
27 *leadership* is defined by Fry (2003) as “comprising the values, attitudes, and behaviors that are
28 necessary to intrinsically motivate oneself and others so that they have a sense of spiritual
29 survival through calling and membership”. In addition, *humor leadership* refers to leaders' use
30 of humor in the workplace as a work climate because they believe in the effective role of humor.
31 The leader develops a sense of humor, communicates with humor, uses non-offensive humor,
32 and enjoys and tells jokes (Decker & Rotondo, 2001; Koo et al., 2019).

1 There is a difference between *transformational leadership and servant leadership*. Stone,
2 Russell, and Patterson (2004) indicate that the focus of a transformational leader is on an
3 organization through building subordinates' commitment to organizational objectives, while the
4 focus of a servant leader is on followers and organizational objectives is the subordinate
5 outcome.

6 According to Bass (1990), *transformational leadership* means that a leader takes care of
7 the interests of his followers, motivates them, respects their mission and views, and makes them
8 take care of the interests of the group. The main characteristics of a transformational leader or
9 the four dimensions of transformational leadership are charisma or idealized influence,
10 inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Bass, 1990;
11 Judge & Piccolo, 2004).

12 *Servant leadership* is to nurture followers' interests and needs and direct their concern
13 toward the needs and concerns of others inside and outside an organization (Eva et al., 2019).
14 Van Dierendonck (2011) highlights that the six key characteristics of servant leadership
15 behavior namely empowering and developing people, humility, authenticity, interpersonal
16 acceptance, providing direction, and stewardship.

17 There is a common characteristic between *transformational leadership and charismatic*
18 *leadership*. Both of them focus on charisma. Charisma is defined by Waldman, Siegel, and
19 Javidan (2006) as a relationship between an individual (leader) and one or more followers based
20 on leader behaviours combined with favourable attributions on the part of followers. Bass
21 (1990) argues that *transformational leaders* can achieve their goals by being charismatic to their
22 followers to influence them and build trust. One of the essential components of *charismatic*
23 *leadership* is personality, in addition to cognitive skills, interpersonal skills, business skills, and
24 strategic skills which are charismatic leaders' characteristics (Mumford, Campion, & Morgeson,
25 2007; Stavrinoudis & Chrysanthopoulou, 2017).

26 *Authentic leadership* can be considered as a part of *servant leadership*, as authenticity is
27 regarded as one of servant leadership behaviour characteristics (van Dierendonck, 2011).
28 Gardner et al. (2005) reveals that authentic leadership focuses on authenticity that must be
29 achieved by an authentic leader through self-awareness, authentic actions and relationships, and
30 self-acceptance. They also assert that an authentic leader must be characterized by transparency,
31 trust, openness, an emphasis on subordinates' development, and orientate towards worthy goals
32 and objectives.

1 *Empowering leadership* can be considered as a part of *servant leadership* because one of
2 servant leadership behaviour characteristics is empowering and developing people (van
3 Dierendonck, 2011). Empowering leadership is defined by Chiang and Chen (2020), as the
4 ability of a manager to set good examples for his/her followers, give them the chance to share in
5 decision-making, express concern for them, as well as guide and inform subordinates.

6 There are some arguments related to *transactional leadership and non-transactional*
7 *leadership*. According to Bass (1997), and Judge and Piccolo (2004), *laissez-faire leadership* is
8 a separate form of leadership that is actually non-leadership which means avoiding leadership,
9 ignoring accepting responsibilities, hesitating in taking actions and decisions, and the absence of
10 a person in assertive situations. However, some studies considered *laissez-faire* as a part of
11 transactional leaders' characteristics. Bass, (1990) claimed that *transactional leaders* have some
12 characteristics which include contingent reward (one rewards good performance and
13 achievements of employees), management by exception (active) (i.e. the ability to search for
14 deviations from standards and rules and to take corrective actions), management by exception
15 (passive), which means the intervention in case standards are not met, and *laissez-faire* which
16 refers to abdicating responsibilities and avoiding making decisions.

17 *Laissez-faire leadership* may be considered as a part of *passive/avoidance leadership* that
18 can be measured by two factors; management by exception (passive) and *laissez-faire* behaviour
19 patterns (Luo et al., 2013; Zopiatis & Constanti, 2012), while *transactional leadership* can be
20 measured by contingent rewards and management by exception (active) (Zopiatis & Constanti,
21 2012).

22 There are other types of leadership associated with environmental and green practices.
23 *Environmental leadership* is the ability of a leader to mobilize and manage stakeholders inside
24 and outside an organization to accomplish organizational goals and vision associated with
25 environmental sustainability (Jang et al., 2017; Ramkissoon, Mavondo, & Sowamber, 2020).
26 *Green transformational leadership* is defined as “behaviors of leaders who motivate followers
27 to achieve environmental goals and inspire followers to perform beyond expected levels of
28 environmental performance” (Chen & Chang, 2013; Mittal & Dhar, 2016).

29 *Environmental transformational leadership* refers to managers who have a clear and strong
30 environmental vision, act as role models for subordinates by sharing their environmental values,
31 demonstrating the significance of sustainability, and taking actions related to environmental
32 problems, motivate followers by informing them about the future of work activities related to
33 environment and sustainability and building confidence in the capabilities of followers,

1 encouraging them to ask questions about the environment, discussing novel environmental ideas
2 with them, and providing their subordinates with training and development opportunities to be
3 able to handle diverse environmental problems as well as issues (Graves et al. (2013), and Kim
4 et al. (2020).

5 *Responsible leadership* concentrates on the relationship of the leader with all
6 stakeholders of an organization with whom they engage in a beneficial dialogue with them
7 (Voegtlin, 2011), whereas *ethical leadership* is characterized by using a leader honesty and
8 morals with subordinates. An ethical leader is reliable, outstanding, fair, and righteous in
9 making decisions (Tarkang et al., 2020).

10 There are some leadership styles related to authority and control. Guillet et al. (2012)
11 argued that *bureaucratic leadership* focuses on normative procedures and rules that must be
12 followed precisely and completely. In terms of the *autocratic leadership*, leaders have full
13 decision-making authority and organizational power (Yamak & Eyüpoğlu, 2018). Nyberg et al.
14 (2011) indicates that autocratic leadership means that the leader makes decisions in a dictatorial
15 way and forces values and opinions on their subordinates. *Directive leadership* is similar to
16 autocratic leadership where employees have no or little control and a leader has the dominant
17 influence on the organization (Clark et al., 2009). *Machiavellian leadership* refers to a leader
18 who concentrates on power and control and develops his/her communications only with those
19 who have the power or influence to assist him/her to achieve success (Guillet et al., 2012). In
20 this vein, Nyberg et al. (2011) indicates that malevolent leadership refers to a leader who is
21 insincere, vengeful, unfriendly, moody, and easily agitated, seeks to revenge when wronged, and
22 acts negatively towards others.

23 The opposite of bureaucratic leadership, Machiavellian leadership, directive leadership,
24 and autocratic leadership is *democratic/participative leadership* which refers to a leader who
25 shares and delegates authority and gives their followers the chance to make decisions (Yamak &
26 Eyüpoğlu, 2018). Similarly, Ogbonna and Harris (2000) highlights that a *participative leader* is
27 a non-directive leader who gives their subordinates the opportunity to participate in the
28 decision-making process through subordinates' interventions to make a quality decision and
29 contribution. *Supportive leadership* concentrates on the leader who must be sympathetic,
30 amicable, and considerate of subordinates needs.

31 Some leadership styles merge between respect, morals, and authority. *Paternalistic*
32 *leadership* can be defined as a combination of “strong discipline and authority with fatherly
33 benevolence and moral integrity couched in a ‘personalistic’ atmosphere” (Farh & Cheng,

2000). In this regard, benevolence, authoritarianism, and morality are the components of paternalistic leadership (Tuan, 2018).

According to Tsai (2008), *managerial leadership* consists of *construction-style leadership and consideration-style leadership*. Regarding the construction style, the focus of a leader is on the organizational framework and he/she demands their followers to save specific levels of performance to achieve goals, whereas the leadership approach concentrates on mutual communication, trust, and respect of a leader for their followers.

There are two leadership styles associated with the nature of gender, either male or female. *Feminine leadership* is the use of female values in a leadership position to make decisions, whereas *masculine leadership* is the use of male values (Guillet et al. 2019). Feminine values are characterized by “interdependence, cooperation, receptivity, merging, acceptance, awareness of patterns, wholes and contexts, emotional tone, personalistic perception, being, intuition, and synthesizing”, while male values are characterized by “self-assertion, separation, independence, control, competition, focused perception, rationality, analysis, clarity, discrimination, and activity” (Marshall, 1993).

Due to the importance of health and safety in the workplace to both customers and employees, *safety leadership* is now used. It is defined as adoption and maintaining high-level safety strategies and safety operational standards (Zhang et al., 2020) and is significant for customers' and employees' health, hotel quality, and hotel safety performance.

The *service leadership* mindset of an organization is very important to survive and to accomplish customer satisfaction and loyalty (Gronfeldt & Strother, 2005). It can be defined as “the culture that empowers an organization to strategize its promises, design its processes and engage its people in a proactive quest for competitive advantage”.

Finally, due to the importance of satisfying seasonal employees as permanent staff members, it is recommended to adopt *seasonal employee leadership* (Arasli et al., 2020) that is specifically directed for seasonal employees, takes care of their needs and wants, and motivates them to come back again for the next season.

3. Methodology

The principal purpose of our systematic review is to present an overview of the stream state of leadership styles research in the hospitality, identify its main outcomes and highlight gaps for future research. **Figure 1** illustrates the detailed systematic review process performed in

our research within distinct phases, which was adopted from Chon and Zoltan (2019), and Yang, Khoo-Lattimore, and Arcodia (2017).

To ensure comprehensiveness and to investigate studies related to leadership styles in the hospitality industry, we used the keyword “leadership” in combination with a set of keywords related with the sector (hotels, restaurants, hospitality industry, resort, motel, casino, night club, catering and food service business). This set of keywords allows reaching data saturation in the search of new papers (Saunders et al., 2018). The search was performed in the web of science (WOS), one of the most well-known and well-established databases (Paul & Criado, 2020).

We accessed WOS via the Egyptian Knowledge bank with their permission to access the studies for free. First, 172 articles were found in WOS database that do not restrict the publication year and were screened to eliminate duplicates. Hereafter, the subsequent eligibility criteria, reading the abstract and the conclusions of each paper were included:

- The focus is on leadership styles in the hospitality industry.
- The English language is used.
- Easy access to article through EKB.

79 studies published between 2008-2020 were suitable for the subsequent analysis. Each article from 79 was analyzed independently in detail by reviewing the abstract, literature, research methodology, results, and conclusion.

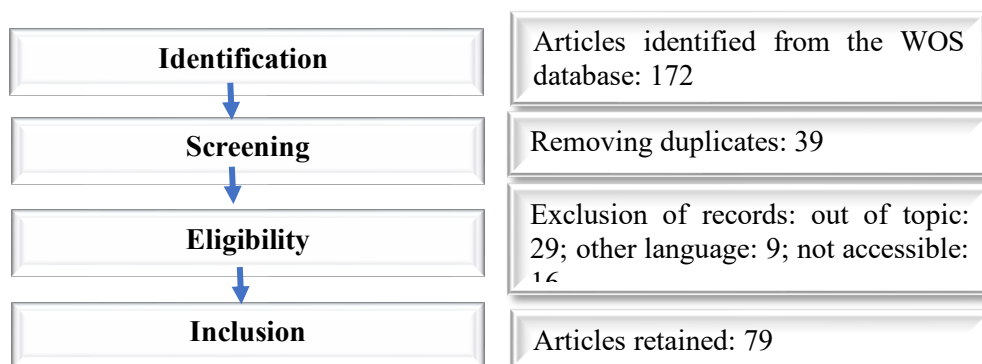


Figure 1. Literature search process was adopted from Chon and Zoltan (2019), and Yang et al. (2017).

4. Review findings

To illustrate our research questions, we have structured the analysis part into four central sections. Precisely, we (1) indicate research outlets or journals publishing hospitality leadership styles research; (2) provide a review of research contexts and designs used in hospitality research; (3) illustrate the dominant leadership styles in hospitality research, and (4) map the

nomological network by reviewing empirical work on hospitality leadership styles by focusing on the theories utilized and outcomes. Based on a review of the findings, we present and recommend an agenda for expanding future research through both theoretical and empirical advancement.

4.1. Research outlets publishing leadership styles research in hospitality

Leadership styles research in hospitality has attained a base in multiple various outlets (see **Table 1**). Since 2008 (see **Fig. 2**), research on leadership styles in hospitality has been published in top-tier hospitality journals.

Although 18 papers appeared in management and leadership journals, the majority of the articles belonged to hospitality outlets namely; International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, International Journal of Hospitality Management, and Tourism Management gained the greatest number of publications, with 20, 6, and 5 publications, respectively.

Table 1
Journals (select) publishing hospitality leadership styles research year (n=79)

Journal	No. of studies
International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management	20
International Journal of Hospitality Management	6
Tourism Management	5
Tourism and Hospitality Research	4
Sustainability	4
Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management	4
Tourism Management Perspectives	3
Leadership & Organization Development Journal	2
Journal of Business Ethics	2
Cornell Hospitality Quarterly	2
International Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Administration	2
Tourism: International Scientific-Professional Journal	2
International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research	1
Work, A Journal of Prevention, Assessment & Rehabilitation	1
International Journal of Organizational Leadership	1
Economic research-Ekonomska istraživanja	1
Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research	1
Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Insights	1
Social Behavior and Personality: An international journal	1
Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality & Tourism	1
International Journal of Business	1
Journal of Hospitality Marketing and Management	1
Asia Pacific Management Review	1
Personnel Review	1
International Journal of Intercultural Relations	1
Organizational Psychology	1
Tourism and Hospitality Management	1
Journal of Contemporary Issues in Business and Government	1
Anatolia	1
Journal of Public Affairs	1
South African Journal of Business Management	1
Chapter in Book Series: Advances in culture, tourism and hospitality research. Emerald Group Publishing Limited.	1
Research Note in Book Series: Advances in Hospitality and Leisure, Emerald Group Publishing Limited	1
Chapter in Book Series: Advances in hospitality and Leisure, Emerald Group Publishing Limited.	1
Proceedings of the 6th International Management Conference: Approaches in Organizational Management	1



4.2. Research contexts and designs in leadership styles research in hospitality

Table 2 categorizes the papers according to hospitality sectors. Most of the articles concentrated on hotels (87.3%), followed by restaurants (5%). Six studies (7.7%) shared a sample from more than one hospitality sector, hotels and restaurants, hotels and golf clubs, hotels and resorts, hotels and catering companies, lodging and foodservice. None of the studies were conducted in motels, casinos, and convention sectors.

Table 2

Classification of articles based on hospitality sectors.

Field of hospitality	No. of studies	%
Hotels	69	87.3
Restaurants	4	5
Hotels & restaurants	2	2.5
Hotels & golf clubs	1	1.3
Hotels & resorts	1	1.3
Hotels & catering companies	1	1.3
Lodging & foodservice	1	1.3
Total	79	100%

Table 3 summarizes the areas and samples of qualitative, quantitative, and mixed-method studies. The majority of the studies were conducted in China (34.2%), followed by the USA (6.3%), India (5%), Spain (5%), and Australia (5%). Only eight (10%) studies were conducted in the Middle East (Egypt, Turkey, Palestine, Iran, and Jordan). All articles (100%) are empirical with 71 (89.9%) using a quantitative methodology. All quantitative studies used surveys for data collection. This is in line with Ali et al. (2020), who concluded that the most widely used method of data collection in hospitality research is the survey approach. Only five (6.3%) studies were qualitative, and three (3.8%) studies used a mixed-method approach. The majority of the studies obtained the sample from only employees or managers and from supervisors with their subordinates. Only three articles included customers in the sample with managers or employees or/and supervisors.

All studies (n=5) that employed a qualitative approach, investigated transformational leadership, servant leadership, charismatic leadership, service leadership, or feminine and

1 masculine leadership. While all studies (n=3) that employed a mixed-method approach,
 2 investigated transformational leadership, servant leadership, transactional leadership, laissez-
 3 faire leadership, or employee seasonal leadership.

Table 3 4
 Areas and samples of qualitative and quantitative studies. 5

Method	Number of studies	Location	Sample	
Qualitative				6
Country/region				
Asia	1			
USA	1			7
China	1			
Grenada	1			
Not specified	1			8
Sample				
Managers			3	
Employees			1	9
Employees and food producers			1	
Quantitative				10
Country/region				
China	26			
India	4			
Spain	4			11
Australia	4			
USA	3			
Pakistan	3			12
South Korea	3			
Egypt	2			
Turkey	2			13
Northern Cyprus	2			
Cameroon	2			
Thailand	2			14
Indonesia	1			
U.K.	1			
Netherlands	1			15
Cyprus	1			
Vietnam	1			
Sweden, Poland, Italy	1			16
Palestine	1			
Iran	1			
Morocco	1			17
Malaysia	1			
Germany	1			
Romania	1			
Greek	1			18
Jordan	1			
Sample				
Employees			40	19
Managers			15	
Supervisors and subordinates			8	
Managers and employees			5	20
Managers and customers			1	
Employees and customers			1	
Supervisors, employees, and customers			1	21
Mixed-method				22
Country/region				
Not specified	1			
USA	1			23
Turkey	1			
Total	79			24

25

26

4.3. The dominant leadership styles in hospitality research

The leadership styles across the extracted hospitality studies were very diverse. Transformational leadership (25.6%) was the most researched topic, followed by servant leadership (12.4%), transactional leadership (10.6%), laissez-faire leadership (Non-transactional or Non-leadership) (6.2%), empowering leadership (5.3%), charismatic leadership (4.4%), and authentic leadership (4.4%). Other less researched leadership styles are shown in **table 4**.

Table 4

Leadership styles investigated in published hospitality studies.

Leadership style	No. of studies	%	
Transformational leadership	29	25.6	9
Servant leadership	14	12.4	
Transactional leadership	12	10.6	10
Laissez-faire leadership (Non-transactional or Non-leadership).	7	6.2	
Empowering leadership	6	5.3	11
Charismatic leadership	5	4.4	
Authentic leadership	5	4.4	12
Autocratic leadership	4	3.5	
Ethical leadership	4	3.5	13
Participative leadership	3	2.7	
Passive/avoidance leadership	2	1.8	14
Democratic leadership	2	1.8	
Feminine & masculine leadership	2	1.8	15
Managerial leadership	1	0.88	
Spiritual leadership	1	0.88	16
Environmental leadership	1	0.88	
Machiavellian leadership	1	0.88	17
Bureaucratic leadership	1	0.88	
Environmental-transformational leadership	1	0.88	
Green transformational leadership	1	0.88	18
Supportive leadership	1	0.88	
Directive leadership	1	0.88	
Malevolent leadership	1	0.88	19
Self-centered leadership	1	0.88	
Seasonal employee leadership	1	0.88	
Responsible leadership	1	0.88	20
Safety leadership	1	0.88	
Service leadership	1	0.88	
Paternalistic leadership	1	0.88	21
Humor leadership	1	0.88	
Pygmalion leadership	1	0.88	
Total	113	100%	22

Note: More than one leadership style can be considered in one single study.

23

4.4. Nomological network of leadership styles research in hospitality

4.4.1. Theories utilized in leadership styles research in hospitality context

The theoretical structures of empirical studies on hospitality leadership essentially draw from a number of theories which include social exchange theory (16.2%), transformational leadership theory (7.6%), servant leadership theory (6.7%), conservation of resources theory (5.7%), social learning theory (4.8%), and self-determination theory (4.8%) (See **Table 5**).

1 *Social exchange theory (SET)*

2 SET is one of leading theories in hospitality leadership styles research. The basis of SET
3 is the norm of reciprocity which refers to the mutual exchange of gratifications (Gouldner, 1960;
4 Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2012). SET has been used to explain how *paternalistic leadership*
5 enhances extra-role customer service, through mediating mechanism of employee work
6 engagement. Moreover, the social exchange relationship between employees and an
7 organization can be activated by paternalistic leaders through their benevolent or moral
8 behaviors not authoritarian behaviors (Tuan, 2018).

9 A study of Jang and Kandampully (2018) was also based on SET to explain how
10 employees turnover intention is influenced by their perception of *servant leadership*, through
11 the mediating role of affective organizational commitment. Karatepe et al. (2020) highlights that
12 SET provides guidance for interpreting the association between *servant leadership* and
13 innovative behavior.

14 Drawing on SET, Wu and Chen (2015) investigate the relationship between *empowering*
15 *leadership*, employee psychological contract fulfillment, employee knowledge exchange, and
16 service performance. SET was also adopted by Tarkang et al. (2020) to develop links between
17 *ethical leadership* and trust in leaders, affective commitment, and deviance behaviours toward
18 the organization.

19 *Transformational leadership theory*

20 Based on transformational leadership theory (Bass, 1990; Judge & Piccolo, 2004), the
21 four dimensions of transformational leadership are charisma or idealized influence, inspirational
22 motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. Bass (1990) argues that
23 transformational leaders can achieve their goals by being charismatic to their followers to
24 influence them and build trust (Ramkissoon, 2020a).

25 Based on this theory, Quintana et al. (2015) investigates the association between
26 transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and laissez-faire leadership, and employee
27 outcomes, which include perceived efficiency, satisfaction, and extra effort. The association
28 between transformational leadership, and job stress and job burnout (Salem, 2015), and
29 employee burnout and intention to quit has also been studied (Reddy & Mehta, 2019).

30 *Servant leadership (SEL) theory*

31 In a recent review of the current state of hospitality leadership styles research, SEL
32 theory has been used extensively (e.g., Ghosh & Khatri, 2018; Huang et al., 2016; Karatepe et

1 al., 2020; Ling et al., 2016; Qiu & Dooley, 2019; Ruiz-Palomino et al., 2019), this may be
2 because servant leadership has many positive outcomes for organizations, customers, and
3 communities. According to Liden et al. (2014), SEL theory focuses on a tenet of that servant
4 leaders guide and direct their subordinates to emulate the leader's behaviours by prioritizing the
5 needs and concerns of others over their own.

6 Additionally, SEL theory is based on setting goals, empowering and developing people,
7 making work meaningful, providing direction, and expressing humility, authenticity,
8 interpersonal acceptance, and stewardship. Empowering leadership is considered as part of SEL
9 theory, which takes care of empowering people by giving them the authority to increase their
10 intrinsic motivation; they are responsible for achieving organizational goals (Van Dierendonck,
11 2011).

12 *Conservation of resources (COR) theory*

13 The COR theory is one of the most widely cited theories in hospitality leadership styles
14 research (see, Ali et al., 2020; He et al., 2019; Wu & Chen, 2019) and in organizational
15 psychology (Hobfoll et al., 2018). COR theory argues that people strive to protect, gain, build,
16 and retain resources (e.g. supportive work practices, supportive leaders, feedback) to avoid
17 losing valued resources which can cause mental illness, stress, and burnout (Eva et al., 2019,
18 Hobfoll, 1989; Hobfoll et al., 2018). Furthermore, these resources assist them to successfully
19 contribute in the work environment. Hobfoll (2002) claims that resources may be psychological,
20 social, or material. Ali et al. (2020) argues that COR theory asserts that particular resources
21 (e.g., leadership) nourish further resource gain (e.g., job or personal resources), which then
22 handles individuals' attitudes and behaviors in the workplace.

23 Drawing on COR theory, Ali et al. (2020) develops a model consisting of *spiritual*
24 *leadership* and its association with workplace ostracism directly and indirectly through social
25 support and the moderating influence of employee justice orientation between spiritual
26 leadership and workplace ostracism. Furthermore, He et al. (2019) proposes that *responsible*
27 *leadership* is important for task performance, through a mediating mechanism for employee
28 well-being.

29 Tarkang and Ozturen (2019) draw on COR theory and SET to develop the relationships
30 between *ethical leadership*, trust in leaders, affective commitment, and deviance behavior, while
31 Wu and Chen (2019) use SLT and COR theory to investigate the association between *authentic*
32 *leadership*, collective mindfulness, collective thriving, and prosociality at the collective level.
33 The latter is viewed as social resources which can be invested and inspired to promote

1 prosociality (helping behaviour and proactive customer service behaviour) (Ramkissoon, 2020a;
2 2020b) in hotels, whilst based on *SLT*, they proposed the association between *authentic*
3 *leadership* and collective thriving.

4 *Social learning theory (SLT)*

5 SLT has supplied an influential basis for leadership styles studies in the hospitality
6 industry. Bandura (1971) claims that people can acquire new behaviours through experiences or
7 observing others, in addition to punishing and rewarding individuals after actions can influence
8 their behaviours. In this vein, leaders' behaviors in dealing with others are very critical to affect
9 their followers in the workplace (Tuan, 2018).

10 SLT has been used to explain how *paternalistic leaders* enhance extra-role customer
11 service, through the mediating mechanism of employee work engagement (Tuan, 2018) and to
12 explain how *servant leaders* influence their employees' personal social capital in terms of
13 bonding (networks linking employees of a similar kind) and bridging (networks linking agents
14 of different kinds), through fostering social interaction with peers inside and outside the group
15 (Zoghbi-Manrique-de-Lara & Ruiz-Palomino, 2019). More recently, Karatepe et al. (2020)
16 highlight that SLT is the theoretical focus to investigate the mediating role of climate for
17 creativity in the association between *servant leadership*, managerial innovation and innovative
18 behaviour.

19 *Self-determination theory (SDT)*

20 According to Deci and Ryan (1985), SDT claims that the determinants of behaviours are
21 autonomy, control, motivation. SDT argues that there are two types of autonomous motivation:
22 intrinsic and extrinsic. Intrinsic motivation relates to experiencing activities as interesting and
23 satisfying, while autonomous extrinsic motivation relates to experiencing activities that are not
24 as interesting, nonetheless, they are personally important for one's self-selected aims and
25 purposes. Both types are related to performance, satisfaction, trust, and well-being in the
26 workplace (Gagné & Deci, 2005).

27 Drawing on SDT (Deci & Ryan, 2002), autonomy, competence, and relatedness are job-
28 related needs of individuals. These needs provide the basis to describe an organization as
29 supportive or antagonistic to humans. SDT conceives of humans as active, growth-oriented
30 organisms, who innately seek and engage challenges in their environments, attempting to
31 actualize their potentialities, capacities, and sensibilities. Additionally, SDT focuses on

1 individual motivation and self-determination. Moreover, autonomy is important to motivate
 2 employees to do their tasks and participate in activities.

3 Recently, Zhang et al. (2020) state that SDT proposes that self-intrinsic motivation and
 4 external environmental information underlie people's behaviours. This study was based on SDT
 5 to investigate the relationship between *safety leadership* and employee safety behavior, through
 6 mediating mechanism of perceived severity and perceived susceptibility. Chiang and Chen
 7 (2020) investigate the association between *empowering leadership*, and voice behaviour and
 8 knowledge sharing, via the mediating mechanism of job autonomy. Kim et al. (2020) illuminate
 9 why employees may prefer to engage in eco-friendly behavior based on SDT.

Table 5
Theories utilized in hospitality leadership styles research.

Theory used	No. of studies	%
Social exchange theory	17	16.2
Transformational leadership theory	8	7.6
Servant leadership theory	7	6.7
Conservation of resources theory	6	5.7
Social learning theory	5	4.8
Self-determination theory	5	4.8
Path-goal theory	3	2.9
Full factor OR Full-range leadership theory	3	2.9
Upper echelon theory	3	2.9
Charismatic leadership theory	2	1.9
Authentic leadership theory	2	1.9
Leadership theory	2	1.9
Need theory	2	1.9
Value theory	1	0.95
Spiritual leadership theory	1	0.95
Stakeholder theory	1	0.95
Perceived supervisor support	1	0.95
Behavioral theory	1	0.95
Ethical leadership theory	1	0.95
Self-enhancement theory	1	0.95
Social identity theory	1	0.95
Creativity theory	1	0.95
Social cognitive theory	1	0.95
Transactional leadership theory	1	0.95
Contemporary leadership theories	1	0.95
Positive psychological theories	1	0.95
Social contagion theory	1	0.95
Innovation theory	1	0.95
Organizational creativity theory	1	0.95
Cultural psychology theory	1	0.95
Person-environment fit theory	1	0.95
Person-situation interactionist theory	1	0.95
Motivational theory	1	0.95
Item response theory	1	0.95
Effort-recovery theory	1	0.95
Demand-control-support theory	1	0.95
Grounded theory approach	1	0.95
Iso-strain theory	1	0.95
Herzberg's motivation theory	1	0.95
Psychological contract theory	1	0.95
Work engagement theory	1	0.95
Feedback system theory	1	0.95
Self-efficacy theory	1	0.95
Agency theory	1	0.95
Role theory	1	0.95
Triad communication theory	1	0.95
Service profit chain theory	1	0.95
Trickle-down model of leadership	1	0.95

Implicit leadership	1	0.95
Theory of androgyny	1	0.95
The S-D logic	1	0.95
Trust transfer theory	1	0.95
Pygmalion leadership theory	1	0.95
	95	

Note: More than one theory can be considered in one single study.

1

2 *4.4.2. Outcomes of each leadership style in hospitality research*

3 The majority of empirical articles on leadership styles in hospitality have focused on the
4 outcomes of adopting a leadership style and the impact on stakeholders. The predominant
5 viewpoint of these interactions and related studies are shown in **Table 6**.

6 *Transformational leadership*

7 The relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction (Ispas &
8 Babaita, 2012; Luo et al., 2013; Mohamed, 2016; Quintana et al., 2015; Rothfelder et al., 2012,
9 Ispas & Babaita, 2012) is the most scrutinized association in the transformational leadership
10 research. Likewise, there is a growing literature linking transformational leadership to
11 organizational commitment (Dai et al. 2013; Luo et al., 2017; Patiar & Wang, 2016). Some of
12 the less investigated relationships in the transformational leadership research are the association
13 between transformational leadership and employee civic virtue behavior (Khan et al., 2020),
14 customer satisfaction (Baquero et al., 2020), perceived supervisor support (Chen & Wu, 2020),
15 supervisor-triggered positive affect and employee voice behavior (Afsar et al., 2019), innovation
16 climate (Mohamed, 2016), positive psychological capital (Şeşen et al., 2019), employee
17 reactions (Katou et al., 2020), and organizational social capital (Mostafa, 2019). Additionally,
18 transformational leadership has been noticed to be negatively correlated to employee burnout
19 and intention to quit (Reddy & Mehta, 2019), psychological contract breach (Chen & Wu,
20 2017), job stress, and job burnout (Salem, 2015).

21 *Servant leadership*

22 Given the importance of servant leadership, it is not unexpected that servant leadership is
23 retrieved to be positively correlated to a broad range of outcomes in the hospitality industry.
24 These include innovative behavior and creativity climate (Karatepe et al., 2020), employees'
25 personal social capital (Zoghbi-Manrique-de-Lara & Ruiz-Palomino, 2019), firm innovativeness
26 (Ruiz-Palomino et al., 2019), leader–member exchange and employees' customer-oriented
27 organizational citizenship behavior (Wu et al., 2013). However, these relationships are less
28 examined in hospitality research. The most commonly examined relationship in servant
29 leadership research is the relationship between servant leadership and service quality (Ghosh &

1 Khatri, 2018; Koyuncu et al., 2014; Kwak & Kim, 2015; Qiu et al., 2020). Also, research
2 exposes that servant leadership is negatively associated with turnover intention (Jang &
3 Kandampully, 2018).

4 *Transactional leadership*

5 A nascent body of research has revealed that transactional leadership is certainly
6 associated with department performance (Patiar & Wang, 2020) and return on assets (Tran,
7 2017). Most research on transactional leadership has investigated its impact on employees. It
8 has been found that transactional leadership has been found to be positively associated with
9 employee perceived efficiency (Quintana et al., 2015), employee satisfaction (Ispas & Babaita,
10 2012; Luo et al., 2013; Quintana et al., 2015), and employee extra effort (Luo et al., 2013;
11 Quintana et al., 2015). In contrast, transactional leadership is negatively associated with
12 organizational commitment (Dai et al., 2013).

13 *Laissez-faire leadership*

14 Prior works have found that laissez-faire leadership is negatively related to employee
15 perceived efficiency (Quintana et al., 2015), positive psychological capital (Şeşen et al., 2019),
16 and group effectiveness (Whitelaw, 2013). This is due to laissez-faire is actually non-leadership
17 which means avoidance of leadership, neglect of responsibilities, reluctance to make decisions,
18 and absence of the person in situations needed (Bass 1997; Judge & Piccolo, 2004).

19 *Empowering leadership*

20 Our literature search found that empowering leadership has a broad range of job-
21 associated outcomes. These comprise employee job autonomy, employee voice, knowledge
22 sharing (Chiang & Chen, 2020), service-oriented employee behaviors (Lin et al., 2019),
23 employee shared values (Clark et al., 2009), management innovation, climate for creativity
24 (Hassi, 2019), employees' service innovative behavior, creative improvisation self-efficacy,
25 employee engagement (Wihuda et al., 2017), psychological contract fulfillment, and Knowledge
26 exchange (Wu & Chen, 2015). However, empowering leadership is adversely associated with
27 employees' job satisfaction because empowerment may add unwanted duties and
28 responsibilities to the job (Clark et al., 2009). Overall, it is obvious that from our literature
29 search, not all outcomes of empowering leadership have been investigated more than one time.

1 *Charismatic leadership*

2 Even though a number of studies (N=5; % 4.4) have investigated charismatic leadership
3 in the hospitality industry, only a few have focused on charismatic leadership outcomes. For
4 example, charismatic leadership is positively linked with hotel reputation (Stavrinoudis &
5 Chrysanthopoulou, 2017). Tromp and Blomme (2014) conclude that charismatic leadership is
6 not correlated with strain-based negative work-home interference. Other scholars study
7 antecedents of charismatic leadership. Yamak and Eyüpoğlu (2018) examine the relationship
8 between demographic characteristics of hotel managers and charismatic leadership, and find no
9 significant association. Kozak and Uca (2008) conclude that there is a significant link between
10 organizational factors, environmental factors and managers' leadership styles including charismatic
11 leadership. Eventually, one study is qualitative and does not demonstrate statistically significant
12 outcomes for charismatic leadership (Piuchan & Prachansit, 2019). Charismatic leadership
13 consequences need to be explored in future research.

14 *Authentic leadership*

15 Considering the authentic leadership outcomes, our review illustrates that previous scholars
16 reveal its positive link with customer satisfaction (Baquero et al., 2020), employee relational energy,
17 employee deep acting (Wang & Xie, 2020), employee trust, customer-oriented organizational
18 citizenship behavior (Qiu et al., 2019), collective mindfulness, and collective thriving (Wu & Chen,
19 2019). Researchers have recently shown that authentic leadership is negatively linked with
20 employees' perceived job insecurity, employee surface acting (Wang & Xie, 2020), employee
21 cynicism, tolerance to workplace incivility, and job search behaviour (Megeirhi et al., 2018). Our
22 review suggests that authentic leadership research is a nascent topic because the first published
23 article is 2018 (Megeirhi et al., 2018).

Table 6

Outcomes of each leadership style in hospitality research.

leadership style	Outcomes	Authors
Transformational leadership	Employees' civic virtue behavior (+)	Khan et al. (2020)
	Perceived supervisor support (+)	Chen and Wu (2020)
	Supervisor-triggered positive affect (+)	
	Customer satisfaction (+)	Baquero et al. (2020)
	Departments' performance (+)	Patiar and Wang (2020)
	Positive psychological capital (+)	Şeşen et al. (2019)
	Employees' reactions (+)	Katou et al. (2020)
	Employees' voice behavior (+)	Afsar et al. (2019)
	Organizational social capital (+)	Mostafa (2019)
	Employees' burnout (-)	Reddy and Mehta (2019)
	Employees' intention to quit (-)	
	Leader-member exchange (+)	Chen and Wu (2017)
	Psychological contract breach (-)	
	Employee collective identity (+)	Luo et al. (2017)
	Organizational commitment (+)	
	Relational identification (+)	Liang et al. (2017)
	Return on equity (+)	Tran (2017)
	Innovation climate (+)	Mohamed (2016)
	Employees' creativity (+)	
	Employees' satisfaction (+)	
	Departments' non-financial performance (+)	Patiar and Wang (2016)
	Departments' social performance (+)	
	Departments' environmental performance (+)	
	Managers' organizational commitment (+)	
	Job stress (-)	Salem (2015)
	Job burnout (-)	
	Employees' perceived efficiency (+)	Quintana et al. (2015)
	Employees' satisfaction (+)	
	Employees' extra effort (+)	
	Employees' creative self-efficacy (+)	Wang et al. (2014)
	Employees' creative role identity (+)	
	Employees' creativity (+)	
	Effectiveness of leadership (+)	Luo et al. (2013)
	Employees' satisfaction (+)	
	Employees' extra effort (+)	
	Employees' Trust (+)	Dai et al. (2013)
	Organizational commitment (+)	
	Procedural justice (+)	
	Distributive justice (+)	
	Group effectiveness (+, -)	Whitelaw (2013)
Employees' job satisfaction (+)	Rothfelder et al. (2012)	
Employees' job satisfaction (+)	Ispas and Babaita (2012)	
Corporate social responsibility (+)	Guillet et al. (2012)	
Organizational brand climate (+)	Uen et al. (2012)	
Employees' branding behavior (+)		
Customer satisfaction (+)	Patiar and Mia (2009)	
Staff development (+)		
Staff morale (+)		
Financial performance (+)		
Servant leadership	Innovative behavior (+)	Karatepe et al. (2020)
	Creativity climate (+)	
	Employees' service quality (+)	Qiu et al. (2020)
	Employees' personal social capital (+)	Zoghbi-Manrique-de-Lara and Ruiz-Palomino (2019)
	Firm innovativeness (+)	Ruiz-Palomino et al. (2019)
	Better treatment of customers by employees (+)	Ghosh and Khatri (2018)
	Service provided to customers (+)	
	Prompt action by employees (+)	
	Affective organizational commitment (+)	Jang and Kandampully (2018)
	Turnover intention (-)	
	Firm performance (+)	Huang et al. (2016)
	Service climate (+)	
	Employee service-oriented behaviors (+)	Ling et al. (2016)
	Customers' perception of service quality level (+)	Kwak and Kim (2015)
	Employees' engagement (+)	Carter and Baghurst (2014)
	Employees' loyalty (+)	
	Service quality (+)	Koyuncu et al. (2014)
	Leader-member exchange (+)	Wu et al. (2013)

	Employees' customer-oriented organizational citizenship behavior (+)	
Transactional leadership	Departments' performance (+)	Patiar and Wang (2020)
	Return on assets (+)	Tran (2017)
	Employees' perceived efficiency (+)	Quintana et al. (2015)
	Employees' satisfaction (+)	
	Employees' extra effort (+)	
	Organizational commitment (-)	Dai et al. (2013)
	Procedural justice (+)	
	Distributive justice (+)	
	Group effectiveness (+, -)	Whitelaw (2013)
	Effectiveness of leadership (+)	Luo et al. (2013)
	Employees' satisfaction (+)	
	Employees' extra effort (+)	
Laissez-faire leadership (Non-transactional or Non-leadership)	Employees' job satisfaction (+)	Ispas and Babaita (2012)
	Employees' perceived efficiency (-)	Quintana et al. (2015)
	Positive psychological capital (-)	Şeşen et al. (2019)
Empowering leadership	Group effectiveness (-)	Whitelaw (2013)
	Employees' job autonomy (+)	Chiang and Chen (2020)
	Employees' voice (+)	
	Share knowledge (+)	
	Employees' service-oriented behaviors (+)	Lin et al. (2019)
	Management innovation (+)	Hassi (2019)
	Climate for creativity (+)	
	Employees' service innovative behavior (+)	Wihuda et al. (2017)
	Creative improvisation self-efficacy (+)	
	Employees' engagement (+)	
	Psychological contract fulfillment (+)	Wu and Chen (2015)
	Knowledge exchange (+)	
Charismatic leadership	Employees' job satisfaction (-)	Clark et al. (2009)
	Employees' shared values (+)	
	Hotel reputation (+)	Stavrinoudis and Chrysanthopoulou (2017)
Authentic leadership	Customer satisfaction (+)	Baquero et al. (2020)
	Employees' perceived job insecurity (-)	Wang and Xie (2020)
	Employees' surface acting (-)	
	Employees' relational energy (+)	
	Employees' deep acting (+)	
	Employees' trust (+)	Qiu et al. (2019)
	Customer-oriented organizational citizenship behavior (+)	
	Collective mindfulness (+)	Wu and Chen (2019)
	Collective thriving (+)	
	Employees' cynicism (-)	Megeirhi et al. (2018)
Tolerance to workplace incivility (-)		
Job search behaviour (-)		
Autocratic leadership	Strain-based negative work-home interference (+)	Tromp and Blomme (2014)
	Vitality among employees (-)	Nyberg et al. (2011)
	Mental health (-)	
Ethical leadership	Behavioural stress (+)	
	Knowledge sharing (+)	Bhatti et al. (2020)
	Employees trust (+)	Tarkang et al. (2020)
	Affective commitment (+)	Tarkang and Ozturen (2019)
	Deviance behaviors (-)	
	Job satisfaction (+)	Tahernejad et al. (2015)
	Organisational commitment (+)	
	Turnover (-)	
	Organizational citizenship behaviors (+)	
	Employees' customer-oriented behavior (+)	Qin et al. (2014)
Employees' individual job satisfaction (+)		
Employees' work engagement (+)		
Participative leadership	Organizational citizenship behavior (+)	Bhatti et al. (2019)
	Employees' job satisfaction (+)	Ispas and Babaita (2012)
Passive/avoidance leadership	Effectiveness of leadership (-)	Luo et al. (2013)
	Employees' satisfaction (-)	
Managerial leadership	Employees' extra effort (-)	
	Employees' satisfaction (+)	Tsai (2008)
Spiritual leadership	Workplace ostracism (-)	Ali et al. (2020)
	Sense of calling (+)	Salehzadeh et al. (2015)
	Sense of membership (+)	
	Organizational performance (+)	
Environmental leadership	Stakeholder engagement (+)	Jang et al. (2017)
	Environmental sustainability (+)	
Machiavellian leadership	Corporate social responsibility (-)	Guillet et al. (2012)
Bureaucratic leadership		

Environmental-transformational leadership	Employees' environmental belief (+)	Kim et al. (2020)	1
Green transformational leadership	Green organizational identity (+) Green creativity (+)	Mittal and Dhar (2016)	2
Supportive leadership	Employees' brand building behavior (+)	Xie et al. (2016)	
Malevolent leadership Self-centered leadership	Vitality among employees (-) Mental health (-) Behavioural stress (+)	Nyberg et al. (2011)	3
Responsible leadership	Millennial employee well-being (+) Task performance (+)	He et al. (2019)	4
Safety leadership	Employees' safety behavior (+)	Zhang et al. (2020)	
Service leadership	Customers' engagement (+)	Thomas-Francois et al. (2020)	5
Paternalistic leadership	Employees' work engagement (+, -)	Tuan (2018)	
Humor leadership	Employees' psychological empowerment (+)	Koo et al. (2019)	
Pygmalion leadership	Employees' trust in a leader (+) Employees' trust in an organization (+) Employees' job engagement (+) Employees' task performance (+)	Kim et al. (2019)	6 7

8 4.4.3. Outcomes of other leadership styles in hospitality research

9 With regard to *autocratic leadership*, it has been positively associated with behavioural stress
10 (Nyberg et al., 2011) and strain-based negative work-home interference (Tromp and Blomme,
11 2014), while its relationship is negative with vitality among employees and mental health (Nyberg et
12 al., 2011).

13 In terms of *ethical leadership*, it has been noted to be positively linked with knowledge
14 sharing (Bhatti et al., 2020), employees trust, affective commitment (Tarkang & Ozturen, 2019;
15 Tarkang et al. 2020), job satisfaction (Qin et al., 2014; Tahernejad et al., 2015), organizational
16 commitment, organizational citizenship behaviors (Tahernejad et al., 2015), employee customer-
17 oriented behavior, and employee work engagement (Qin et al., 2014). In addition, the negative effect
18 of ethical leadership on deviance behaviors (Tarkang & Ozturen, 2019; Tarkang et al., 2020), and
19 turnover (Tahernejad et al., 2015) has been empirically supported.

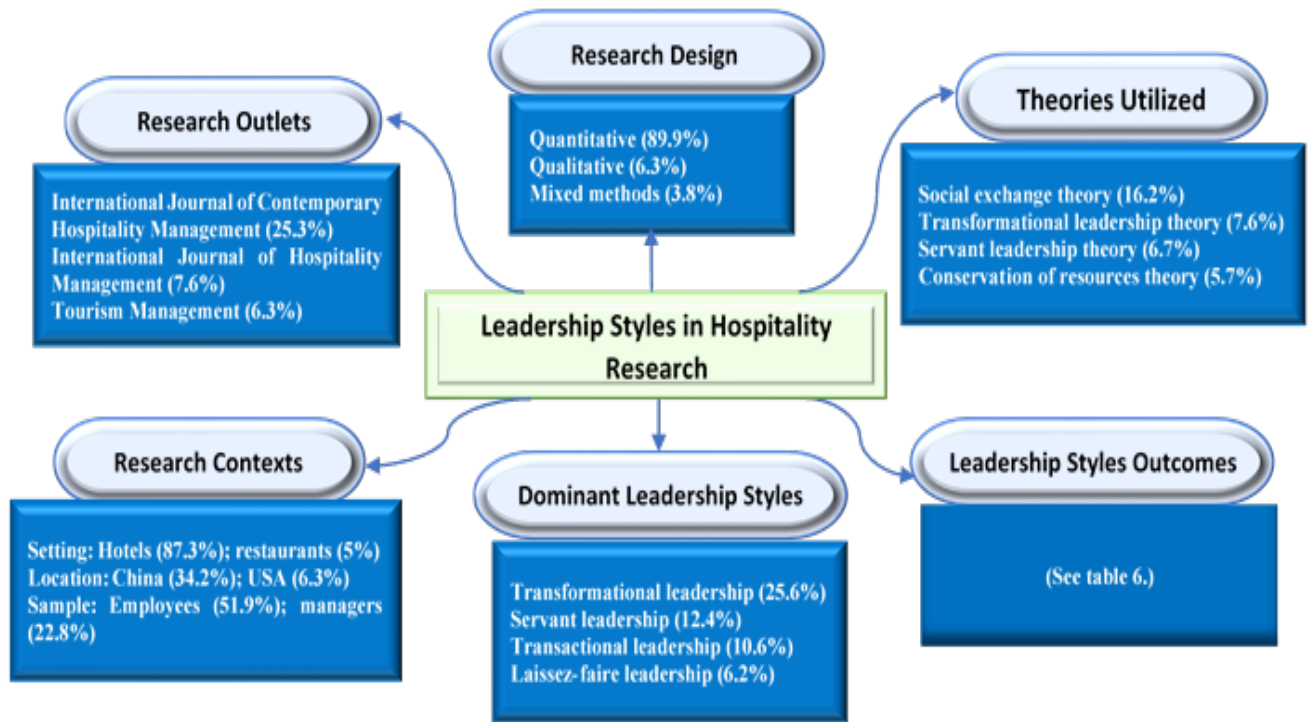
20 Regarding *participative leadership*, our review indicates that prior scholars demonstrate
21 a positive link with organizational citizenship behavior (Bhatti et al., 2019) and employee job
22 satisfaction (Ispas & Babaita 2012), while *passive/avoidance leadership* is negatively correlated
23 with effectiveness of leadership, employee satisfaction, and employees additional effort (Luo et
24 al., 2013).

25 Our review demonstrates the leadership styles that have not been rigorously examined in
26 hospitality research with their outcomes. These include *democratic, feminine and masculine,*
27 *managerial, spiritual, environmental, Machiavellian, bureaucratic, environmental-*
28 *transformational, green transformational, supportive, directive, malevolent, self-centered,*
29 *seasonal employee, responsible, safety, service, paternalistic, humor, and Pygmalion*
30 *leadership.*

31

1 **5. Agenda and call for future research**

2 **Fig. 3** maps the key findings extracted from the review. Drawing on the traits and
 3 patterns detected from the review, recommendations are presented for forthcoming studies. This
 4 section aims to provide an inclusive synopsis of future research potentials of leadership styles,
 5 thereby providing important clues for scholars who desire to further examine leadership styles in
 6 hospitality (see Fig. 4).



7
 8 **Fig. 3.** Summary of key review findings.

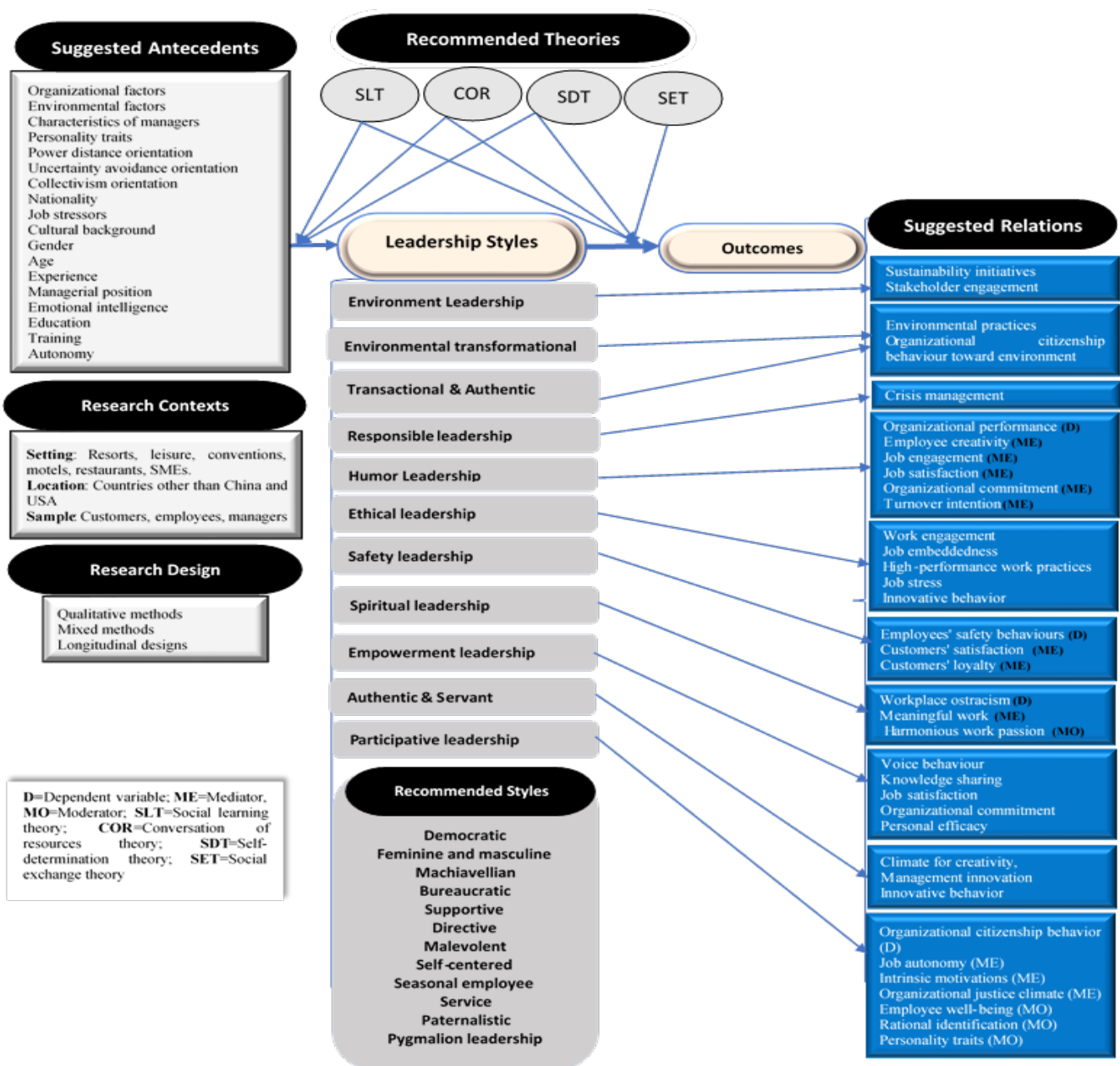


Fig. 4. Suggestions for future hospitality research in leadership

5.1. New research line 1: Antecedents

The majority of empirical articles on leadership styles in hospitality have focused on the consequences of adopting a leadership style and the impact on stakeholders, but the antecedents of leadership styles are scant in hospitality literature. Yamak and Eyüpoğlu (2018) investigate the relationship between demographic characteristics of hotel managers and autocratic, democratic, laissez-faire, and charismatic as leadership styles. In addition, Kozak and Uca (2008) examine the link between organizational factors and managers' leadership styles including autocratic, democratic, laissez-faire, and charismatic leadership. In this regard,

1 Zopiatis and Constanti (2012) study transformational, passive/avoidance, and transactional
2 leadership styles and their correlation with the personality traits of extraversion, openness,
3 agreeableness, conscientiousness, and neuroticism.

4 Given the apparent gaps in previous works, our review recommends exploring factors
5 that give rise to each leadership style. Based on Sharma and Kirkman (2015), we propose to
6 investigate the effect of leader power distance orientation, personality trait of narcissism, leader
7 uncertainty avoidance orientation, leader collectivism orientation, and leader job stressors
8 (antecedents) on leadership styles in hospitality. Antecedents of leader behaviour could be
9 organizational culture, policies, and team culture (Eva et al., 2019) that need further
10 investigation.

11 Our review affirms that the antecedents of leadership styles in hospitality demands
12 scholarly attention. These antecedents or factors may include culture, education, training,
13 gender, personal traits, age, years of professional experience, managerial position, and
14 emotional intelligence. Our review suggests duplicating studies of Kozak and Uca (2008),
15 Yamak and Eyüpoğlu (2018), and Zopiatis and Constanti (2012), in different cultural contexts;
16 this could result in promising findings as due to the diversity in hospitality industry across
17 countries. Moreover, the direct effect of antecedents investigated in their research has not been
18 empirically proven yet in other studies. We also agree with the recommendation of Chon and
19 Zoltan (2019) who advise to examine the effect of formal leadership education and leadership
20 training in hospitality on servant leaders' behaviours.

21 *5.2. New research line 2: Advancing research contexts and design in leadership styles research*

22 It is acknowledged that there are several shortcomings in research contexts of leadership
23 styles research in hospitality. Several studies examined were conducted in China and USA.
24 There very limited studies on leadership in hospitality from the developing and emerging
25 nations as well as other developed countries, such as Turkey, South Korea, Egypt, Italy,
26 Germany, and Greek. These destinations are important in the international tourism and
27 hospitality sector. Additionally, most of the leadership studies have been conducted in hotels.
28 Future research should consider resorts, leisure, conventions, motels, and restaurants,
29 specifically small and medium enterprises, targeting multiple sources including employees,
30 customers, and managers.

31 In order to handle the weaknesses of the study designs, our review suggests integrating
32 qualitative methods (e.g., focus group, case study, ethnography, interview, observation, and
33 Delphi technique) and quantitative methods (e.g., questionnaire, secondary data analysis, and

1 experimental design). This will allow for more in-depth data related to leadership styles in
2 hospitality (e.g., service leadership, paternalistic leadership, safety leadership, environmental
3 leadership, responsible leadership, humor leadership, Pygmalion leadership) from contexts such
4 as restaurants, hotels, or resorts. This is also important to avoid criticisms directed to tourism
5 research for favoring a positivist approach (Yang et al., 2017).

6 Longitudinal designs recommended by many researchers (Chiang & Chen 2020; Hassi,
7 2019; Lin et al., 2019; Tarkang et al., 2020), are fundamentally required in studies of driving
8 patterns because the cross-sectional study design undermines the causal conclusions derived
9 from the results.

10 *5.3. New research line 3: Theoretical advancement*

11 In addition to the importance of investigating the effect of leadership styles on followers'
12 behaviours and outcomes in hospitality, it is critical to consider antecedents of leadership styles.
13 In order to achieve this goal, we need more theoretical perspectives. To broaden the
14 nomological network linked with leadership styles, we recommend integrating different theories
15 in future research. This integration can be between social exchange theory (SET), conservation
16 of resources (COR) theory, social learning theory (SLT), and self-determination theory (SDT).

17 Our review recommends that SLT should be used in future research not only to explain
18 how leadership styles influence followers' behaviors and outcomes, but also as a structure for
19 studying the role of antecedents such as experiences and organizational factors (e.g., culture and
20 policies) in determining leaders' behaviours. SLT (Bandura, 1971) claims that people can
21 acquire new behaviours through experiences or observing others, in addition to punishing and
22 rewarding individuals after actions and can influence their behaviours.

24 Although a number of studies (Ali et al., 2020; He et al., 2019) focus on the importance
25 of COR theory in explaining how leadership styles influence follower behaviors and outcomes,
26 COR theory has been neglected as a frame for investigating the role of organizational support or
27 resources (e.g., psychological, social, or material) in driving leaders' attitudes and behaviours in
28 the workplace.

29 A limited number of studies have combined COR theory with other theories. However, to
30 the authors' knowledge, previous scholars have neglected to explain the effect of an organization
31 on leaders' behaviours or their leadership styles through the lens of COR theory, in addition to
32 the impact of leaders' behaviours or leadership styles on followers' behaviours or outcomes
33 through the lens of SLT or SET.

1 SDT has been utilized by leadership styles research in hospitality. For example, SDT was
2 used to investigate the relationship between safety leadership and employee safety behavior,
3 through mediating mechanism of perceived severity and perceived susceptibility (Zhang et al.,
4 2020). In addition, Kim et al. (2020) utilized SDT to explain why employees may choose to
5 engage in eco-friendly behavior. Nevertheless, we also suppose that there is a gain in employing
6 SDT as a frame for examining the antecedents of different leadership styles. Drawing on Deci
7 and Ryan (1985), SDT proposes that the determinants of behaviours are autonomy, control,
8 motivation. In addition, autonomy, competence, and relatedness are job-related needs of
9 individuals that provide the basis to describe an organization as supportive or antagonistic to
10 humans (Deci & Ryan, 2002).

11 Based on SDT, we can suppose that autonomy of the leader to determine how he/she
12 leads (autonomy), his/her participation in leadership education and training programs
13 (competence) and his/her accessibility to tutors (relatedness) can affect his/her personality traits
14 and leadership behaviours. We claim that the gap in recognizing the antecedents of leadership
15 styles may be due to the absence of a guiding theory, SDT may present the focus required to
16 embark on linking this gap.

17 *5.4. New research line 4: Variables in relation to contemporary and future issues in hospitality* 18 *context*

19 The hospitality setting is influenced by environmental issues, it is critical to consider
20 sustainability initiatives in all sectors (Chon & Zoltan, 2019; Dewnarain, Ramkissoon, &
21 Mavondo, 2019). However, a limited number of scholars have investigated leadership styles and
22 their association with environmental and sustainability issues. Jang et al. (2017) examined the
23 impact of environmental leadership on stakeholder engagement, environmental sustainability,
24 and financial and non-financial performance in restaurant industry in USA. Kim et al. (2020)
25 also examined the association between environmental-transformational leadership, employees'
26 environmental beliefs, and organizational citizenship behaviour toward environment in hotels in
27 Thailand. Further analysis of these topics in different contexts would be interesting. Our review
28 also suggests investigating the association between different leadership styles and sustainability
29 initiatives in hospitality sectors.

30 Future scholars should investigate different styles of leadership (e.g., environmental
31 transformational leadership, transactional, and authentic leadership) and their association with
32 the environmental management practices to explore the most effective style for hotel and

1 restaurant environmental management practices. Our recommendation is in line with Kim et al.
2 (2020).

3 Given the importance of responsible leadership in contemporary management, especially
4 due to the crisis of ethics (Frangieh & Yaacoub, 2017), further research is critically needed to
5 develop a unified set of measurement tools (Agarwal & Bhal, 2020; Frangieh & Yaacoub,
6 2017). Tsui (2020) also makes a call for responsible leadership research at organizational level,
7 specifically on COVID-19 crisis due that “the management literature is rather thin about
8 (responsible) leadership during a crisis”.

9 Our review reveals the leadership styles that have not been rigorously examined in
10 hospitality research with their outcomes or consequences. These include democratic, feminine
11 and masculine, managerial, spiritual, environmental, Machiavellian, bureaucratic, environmental
12 transformational, green transformational, supportive, directive, malevolent, self-centered,
13 seasonal employee, responsible, safety, service, paternalistic, humor, and Pygmalion leadership.
14 In this regard, we strongly suggest that further research can be extended.

15 Future research can investigate the relationship between humor leadership and
16 organizational performance through mediating mechanism of employee creativity, job
17 engagement, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention. We
18 recommend using the measure of Koo et al. (2019). Further research is also encouraged to
19 investigate safety leadership, safety knowledge, and safety motivation post the COVID-19
20 pandemic in restaurants and resorts and to correlate with employee safety behaviours and
21 customer satisfaction and loyalty.

22 The efficiency of feminine and masculine styles of leadership (Guillet et al., 2019) needs
23 further investigation. We agree with the recommendation of Ali et al. (2020) to use meaningful
24 work as a mediator between spiritual leadership and workplace ostracism, in addition to
25 harmonious work passion can be examined as a moderator between spiritual leadership and
26 workplace ostracism.

27 Future investigations could examine ethical leadership and its association with work
28 engagement, job embeddedness, high-performance work practices, job stress, or innovative
29 behavior. This suggestion is consistent with Tarkang and Ozturen (2019), and Tarkang et al.
30 (2020). Our review recommends highlighting the association between participative leadership
31 and organizational citizenship behavior, with the moderating role of employee well-being,
32 rational identification, and personality traits, as well as mediating role of job autonomy, intrinsic

1 motivations, and organizational justice climate. This is in line with the recommendation of
2 Bhatti et al. (2019).

3 All studies on empowering leadership were conducted in hotels (e.g., Lin et al., 2019;
4 Wihuda et al., 2017), especially in China (e.g., Chiang & Chen, 2020; Lin et al., 2019), thus we
5 encourage researchers to test whether the findings can be replicated in other hospitality
6 organizations and cultural contexts. As suggested by Chiang and Chen (2020), the impact of
7 empowerment leadership on voice behaviour, knowledge sharing, job satisfaction,
8 organizational commitment, and personal efficacy needs further investigation.

9 Our study reinforces the view of Karatepe et al. (2020) that further research is needed to
10 investigate authentic leadership with servant leadership to examine whether servant leadership
11 better explains climate for creativity, management innovation, and innovative behavior than
12 authentic leadership. Furthermore, our review suggests that authentic leadership research is a
13 nascent topic because the first published article is in 2018 (Megeirhi et al., 2018).

14 **6. Practical implications for hospitality sectors**

15 Our study has demonstrated the impacts of different leadership styles from prior research
16 in hospitality and their links with contemporary issues in hospitality. Based on our systematic
17 review for 79 articles in hospitality sectors, we now stipulate practical recommendations for the
18 entire hospitality industry and practitioners.

19 Practitioners need to understand the outcomes of different leadership styles (Hristov &
20 Ramkissoon, 2016; Hristov, Minocha, & Ramkissoon, 2018). Some styles have negative
21 impacts on organizational success. Malevolent, self-centered, and autocratic leadership styles
22 can destroy employees' vitality and mental health and increase stress. Passive/avoidance and
23 laissez-faire leadership styles can decrease employees' extra effort, satisfaction, efficiency, and
24 group effectiveness because a leader ignores responsibilities and hesitates in taking decisions.

25 Due to the importance of sustainability, creativity, innovation, safety, and business
26 performance in normal and crisis times, we encourage practitioners to adopt some leadership
27 styles. *First*, environmental leadership which focuses on mobilizing and managing stakeholders
28 inside and outside an organization to accomplish goals and vision associated with environmental
29 sustainability (Ramkissoon & Sowamber, 2018; 2020). *Second*, environmental transformational
30 leadership practices include having a clear environmental vision, serving as a role model for
31 subordinates, demonstrating the significance of sustainability, taking actions related to
32 environmental problems, building confidence in followers' capabilities, encouraging to ask

1 questions about environment, discussing novel environmental ideas, and providing training and
2 development to handle environmental problems.

3 *Third*, empowering leadership is very vital to managerial innovation, climate for
4 creativity, employees' service innovative behavior, and creative improvisation self-efficacy.
5 This style implies the ability of managers to set good examples for subordinates, guide and give
6 them the chance to participate in decision-making, and express concern for employees. *Fourth*,
7 servant leadership has many outcomes, such as innovative behavior, creativity climate, firm
8 innovativeness, and business performance. Servant leaders care about followers' interests and
9 needs and direct their concern toward the needs and concerns of others inside and outside an
10 organization.

11 *Finally*, safety leadership principles can be implemented by hospitality operations during
12 COVID-19 and post the pandemic (Ramkissoon, 2020b; Salem, Elbaz, Elkhwesky, & Ghazi,
13 2021) because this style is important for employee safety behaviours, customer and employee
14 health, hotel quality, and hotel safety performance. This style focuses on adopting and
15 maintaining high-level safety strategies and safety operational standards.

16 **7. Conclusion**

17 The impetus for this study was shaped by the cumulative academic interest in leadership
18 styles, the importance of creating a comprehensive plan for the main focus of leadership styles
19 in the hospitality literature, what it should highlight in the future and the lack of systematic
20 review for leadership styles research in hospitality. Therefore, our study aimed to: indicate
21 research outlets publishing leadership research in hospitality, provide a review of research
22 contexts and designs utilized in hospitality research, illustrate the dominant leadership styles in
23 hospitality, and indicate the theories utilized and outcomes of leadership styles. Ultimately, we
24 presented and recommended a map for developing forthcoming research through both
25 theoretical and empirical advancement.

26 To achieve these aims, our study reviewed 79 articles focused on leadership styles in
27 hospitality. Our review has demonstrated that leadership styles research in hospitality has made
28 progress in the past 13 years; however, there are conceptual and empirical overlaps among
29 different leadership styles in hospitality. Additionally, hospitality leadership research is
30 restricted in research contexts and research design. There is a lack of research on antecedents
31 and integrating theories in studies. Our review has revealed that several leadership styles have
32 not been rigorously examined in hospitality research with their outcomes. By following the
33 guidance presented in this review, we expect to advance and maintain hospitality leadership

1 research to provide substantive insights into the context of hospitality leadership over the
2 coming years.

3 **8. Limitations and future research**

4 Due to the selective, observational, and retrospective nature of the systematic review
5 (Petticrew & Roberts, 2006), the current study was not exempted from limitations. The search
6 strategy used to find articles published in WOS about leadership styles in hospitality was
7 restricted to title to boost the accuracy of the subsequent literature. Future research is
8 recommended to modify the research strategy by applying three parameters: title, abstract, and
9 keywords. Even though WOS is one of the most well-known databases (Paul & Criado, 2020),
10 we suggest that future research includes Science Direct and Scopus. Future research could also
11 offer statistical measures of prior outcomes by applying meta-analysis. Regardless of these few
12 limitations, the current study is the first to systematically review different leadership styles in
13 hospitality studies.

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