Leadership in restaurants and its organizational outcomes: a systematic review

Liderança em restaurantes e seus desfechos organizacionais: uma revisão sistemática

Liderazgo en restaurantes y sus resultados organizativos: una revisión sistemática

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Abstract
The service offered by restaurants is considered part of the population's lifestyle and contributes to the employability and economic growth of the countries. Leadership is an influencing variable for both positive and negative organizational outcomes. The objective of this Systematic Review was to identify the main organizational variables that leadership influences in restaurants. The authors developed specific search strategies for the PsycInfo, Pubmed, Web of Science, Scopus, Embase, Lilacs, Spell, Google Scholar, ProQuest Global, and BDLTD databases. The authors assessed the methodological quality of the included studies using MASTARI. Eighty-one studies were analyzed, 75 studies used quantitative data, and six studies used qualitative between 1996 and 2020. The leadership styles that showed the most favorable results were Transformational Leadership (20.9%), Leader-Member Exchange (14.8%), Supervisor Support (13.6%), and Servant Leadership (11.1%). The most researched organizational outcomes associated with leadership were Intention to Turnover and Turnover (31.9%), Organizational Commitment (22.2%), Work Performance (17.2%), and Job Satisfaction (15.8%). The most investigated variables in the surveys on leadership in restaurants were primarily focused on the led, indicating that researchers in the field still see the leader-led relationship in restaurants as the most needed work topic rather than organizational level variables.
Keywords: Leadership; Management; Organizational behavior; Restaurant; Food services; Systematic review.

Resumo
O serviço oferecido pelos restaurantes é considerado parte do estilo de vida da população e contribui para a empregabilidade e crescimento econômico dos países. A liderança é uma variável que influencia tanto os resultados organizacionais positivos quanto os negativos. O objetivo desta Revisão Sistemática foi identificar as principais variáveis organizacionais que a liderança influencia em restaurantes. Os autores desenvolveram estratégias de busca específicas para as bases de dados PsycInfo, Pubmed, Web of Science, Scopus, Embase, Lilacs, Spell, Google Scholar, ProQuest Global e BDLTD. Os autores avaliaram a qualidade metodológica dos estudos incluídos usando MASTARI. Foram analisados 81 estudos, 75 estudos utilizaram dados quantitativos e seis estudos qualitativos, entre 1996 e 2020. Os estilos de liderança que apresentaram resultados mais favoráveis foram Liderança Transformacional (20,9%), Intercâmbio Líder-Membro (14,8%), Supervisor Apoio (13,6%) e Liderança Servidora (11,1%), e os resultados organizacionais mais pesquisados associados à liderança foram Intenção de Rotatividade e Rotatividade (31,9%), Comprometimento Organizacional (22,2%), Desempenho no Trabalho (17,2%) e Satisfação no Trabalho (15,8%). As variáveis mais investigadas nas pesquisas sobre liderança em restaurantes foram focadas principalmente no liderado, indicando que pesquisadores da área ainda veem a relação líder-liderado em restaurantes como o tema de trabalho mais necessário, ao invés de variáveis de nível organizacional.
Palavras-chave: Liderança; Gestão; Comportamento organizacional; Restaurante; Serviços de alimentação; Revisão sistemática.

Resumen

El servicio que ofrecen los restaurantes es considerado parte del estilo de vida de la población y contribuye a la empleabilidad y al crecimiento económico de los países. El liderazgo es una variable influyente para los resultados organizacionales tanto positivos como negativos. El objetivo de esta Revisión Sistemática fue identificar las principales variables organizacionales en las que influye el liderazgo en los restaurantes. Los autores desarrollaron estrategias de búsqueda específicas para las bases de datos PsycInfo, Pubmed, Web of Science, Scopus, Embase, Lilacs, Spell, Google Scholar, ProQuest Global y BDLTD. Los autores evaluaron la calidad metodológica de los estudios incluidos mediante MASTARI. Se analizaron 81 estudios, 75 estudios utilizaron datos cuantitativos y seis estudios cualitativos, entre 1996 y 2020. Los estilos de liderazgo que mostraron resultados más favorables fueron Liderazgo Transformacional (20,9%), Intercambio Líder-Miembro (14,8%), Supervisor Apoyo (13,6 %) y Liderazgo de servicio (11,1 %), y los resultados organizacionales más investigados asociados con el liderazgo fueron Intención de Rotación y Rotación (31,9 %), Compromiso Organizacional (22,2 %), Desempeño Laboral (17,2 %) y Satisfacción laboral (15,8%). Las variables más investigadas en las encuestas sobre liderazgo en restaurantes se centraron principalmente en el liderado, lo que indica que los investigadores en el campo aún ven la relación líder-liderado en restaurantes como el tema de trabajo más necesario, en lugar de las variables de nivel organizacional.

Palabras clave: Liderazgo; Administración; Comportamiento organizacional; Restaurante; Servicios de alimentación; Revisión sistemática.

1. Introduction

The restaurant industry is among the most employable and economically growing sectors globally, and this service is considered a component of the lifestyle of the population of developed countries (Smith, 2018; Sukhu et al., 2017). On the other hand, most of these establishments have several organizational problems that worsen the quality of the service provided and lead to a consequent drop in profitability, which may be associated, directly or indirectly, with the poorly harmonious relationship between employees and leaders of these organizations (Bufquin et al., 2017).

According to the National Restaurant Association, US restaurant industry sales reached $659 billion and had 12.5 million employees by year-end 2020. Despite the importance of these numbers, they are still lower than expected, given the downturn in the US economy sector due to the Covid-19 pandemic (National Restaurant Association, 2021). With the drop in purchases by consumers, restaurants need to become more efficient to retain and gain customers. In this sense, service quality, primarily a function of employee performance, is a differential in this sector (Mathe & Slevitch, 2013b).

Among the variables that influence employee performance, leadership stands out. Restaurant managers are responsible for a large part of the decision-making concerning human resources and, consequently, the opportunity to improve service quality, customer satisfaction and increase the unit's overall financial performance. On the other hand, leadership also can adversely affect the Organizational Climate, Job Satisfaction, Employee Intentions to Turn, and, subsequently, the costs related to high Turnover rates - a robust negative characteristic of this sector (Burke, 2017; Department of Labor, 2020).

Leadership studies use a theory as a basis to analyze the performance or characteristics that differentiate a particular style of leadership (e.g., Transformational Leadership, Charismatic Leadership, Servant Leadership), or explore an aspect of the leader (e.g., Trust in the leader, Leader's Emotional Intelligence, or Leader's Interpersonal Justice) (Lord et al., 2017). Studies on the different types of leadership exercised in various organizations show how leaders' work seems to be significant in Organizational Performance (Folmar, 2021a; Huang et al., 2012; Powell, 2017).

In the review of Yahaya and Ebrahim (2016), leadership style seems to be an antecedent of Organizational Commitment, according to empirical evidence from many studies. Moreover, commitment is related to several favorable organizational results, such as Work Performance, Job Satisfaction, Work Motivation, and Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB).

In the study by Sun and Wang (2017) developed with workers from public education institutions, Transformational Leadership was associated with a lower intention to leave the organization and, consequently, a lower rate of real turnover and favoring the institution's collaborative culture. In contrast, the Laissez Faire leadership style was positively related to employee

turnover intention or anticipated turnover in the studies of Sajid Masood et al. (2020) and Pishgooie et al. (2019), with samples of university professors and nurses, respectively.

However, it is necessary to look at leadership specifically for the restaurant sector. This service has its own characteristics and difficulties, such as the great difference in education level and age among the team's employees, and a work environment with many discomforts (higher temperature, noise, activities with risk of injury), lower wages for most of the workforce, time pressure for meal delivery, among other circumstances that constantly challenge employees and leaders (Huang et al., 2012; Jahangiri et al., 2019; Jayaraman et al., 2011).

This systematic review aims to identify the main organizational variables influenced by Leadership in the context of restaurants and the most explored characteristics and theories of Leadership in this sector. Therefore, the research question was: "The influence of Leadership in restaurants is related to what organizational effects/outcomes/variables?".

Such a review can help researchers and managers better understand the role of leadership in restaurants and the effects of the influence of leaders on the service offered to provide support for the construction of strategies aimed at improving the quality of service in this sector.

2. Methodology

This systematic review was prepared according to the report items for systematic reviews and meta-analyses (PRISMA) and the Checklist (Moher et al., 2009) in the period between October 2020 and November 2021. No protocol registration in PROSPERO was necessary, as the platform is not intended for reviews that have Leadership or food services as the primary research topic. The acronym PECO (Population, Exposure, Comparison/Control, Outcome) was used in this review to help formulate the research question as follows: Population = formal leaders, Exposure = working in restaurants, Control = none, Outcome = organizational consequences by the influence of the style of Leadership exercised. Seventeen categories of organizational behavior variables that could be found related to leadership were also listed.

2.1 Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

As inclusion criteria, studies that assessed the influence of restaurant leaders on the organizational variables of these establishments were used. There was no restriction on language and study time. Only experimental and quasi-experimental simulation studies were excluded.

The following exclusion criteria were applied: (1) comments, letters, conferences, reviews, abstracts, communications, and books; (2) studies only validating psychometric measurement instruments (3) studies that were not carried out only in restaurants; (4) Studies that did not present Leadership as an influencing variable on the outcome.

2.2 Information sources

Searches were carried out individually and in detail for each of the following databases: PsycInfo, Pubmed, Web of Science, Scopus, Embase, Lilacs, Spell. A review of gray literature was also carried out in Google Scholar, ProQuest Global, and BDTD (Brazilian Digital Library of Theses and Dissertations). All searches were performed on November 18, 2020.

2.3 Search strategy

Appropriate combinations of truncation and keywords were selected and adapted for searching each database. QCRI (Qatar Computing Research Institute) developed the Rayyan software to select and exclude duplicate articles, and Mendeley Desktop managed all references.

2.4 Study selection

The selection was carried out in two phases. In phase 1, two reviewers (MDV, CRNL) independently reviewed the titles and abstracts of all references identified in the databases. Articles that did not meet the eligibility criteria were discarded. In phase 2, the same reviewers (MDV, CRNL) applied the eligibility criteria to the full texts of the selected articles. In cases of disagreement, the matter was discussed in both phases until a consensus was reached between the two reviewers. A third reviewer (RCCAA) made the final decision in situations where there was no consensus. The final selection was always based on the full text of the publication. Data were extracted by two reviewers (MDV, CRNL).

2.5 Data collection process

The following characteristics were collected from the selected articles: authors and year of publication, research country, sample size, type of study, number and type of establishments, number, position and gender of leaders, number, position and years of study of those led, gender, age and length of work in establishing the followers, theory or aspect of Leadership assessed, Leadership assessment instrument, organizational outcome variables related to Leadership, instruments used to measure such variables, main results and study limitations. Two reviewers synthesized all these data (MDV, CRL) in a standardized table. Calibration exercises were performed before starting the review to ensure consistency between reviewers. Reviewers resolved disagreements by discussion, and the third author (RCCAA) judged disagreements when not resolved.

Quality criteria were synthesized using the Assessment Instrument (MASTARI) and the Joanna Briggs Institute protocol to assess the articles' risk of bias. The risk of bias assessment instrument for quantitative cross-sectional studies included eight questions, namely:

1) Were the criteria for inclusion in the sample clearly defined?

2) Were the study subjects and the environment described in detail?

3) Has exposure been measured in a valid and reliable way?

4) Were objective and standardized criteria used to measure the condition?

5) Have confounding factors been identified?

6) Have strategies been established to deal with confounding factors?

7) Were the results measured in a valid and reliable way?

8) Was an appropriate statistical analysis used?

As for the qualitative studies, the questions applied to assess the risk of bias were:

1) Is there congruence between the stated philosophical perspective and the research methodology?

2) Is there congruence between the research methodology and the research question or objectives?

3) Is there a congruence between the research methodology and the methods used to collect data?

4) Is there congruence between the research methodology and the representation and analysis of data?

5) Is there congruence between the research methodology and the interpretation of results?

6) Is there a statement that locates the researcher culturally or theoretically?

7) Is the influence of the researcher on the research and vice versa addressed?

8) Are participants and their voices adequately represented?

9) Is the research ethical according to current criteria or, for recent studies, is there evidence of ethical approval by a competent body?

10) Do the conclusions drawn in the research report flow from the analysis or interpretation of the data?

After the analysis, the risk of bias was categorized as "High" when the study reached up to 49% of a "yes" score; "Moderate" when the study achieved a 50–69% "yes" score; "Low" when the study achieved more than a 70% "yes" score.

To display the main theories and characteristics of leadership addressed in the studies and the main organizational outcomes evaluated, the WordCloud® tool was used to highlight the most mentioned variables.

3. Results and Discussion

Initially, 3172 articles were found in the ten electronic databases. After removing duplicates, titles and abstracts, 2102 articles were selected and read. After reading the abstracts, 107 relevant studies were selected for reading the full text. Records from two studies were selected from the full article reference list. The reviewers excluded 26 articles after the complete reading, as 15 of them were studies carried out in different sectors of hotels, without separation of data from the restaurant; 6 did not assess or relate Leadership to organizational outcomes; 4 were carried out in different organizations, with no data separation from the restaurants; and 1 was an instrument validation study, which did not assess organizational outcomes. In the end, 81 studies met the inclusion criteria and were considered for this systematic review. Figure 1 shows the flowchart of the process of identification, screening, and inclusion of studies.

Figure 1. Search and selection criteria flowchart. It was adapted from Prisma.
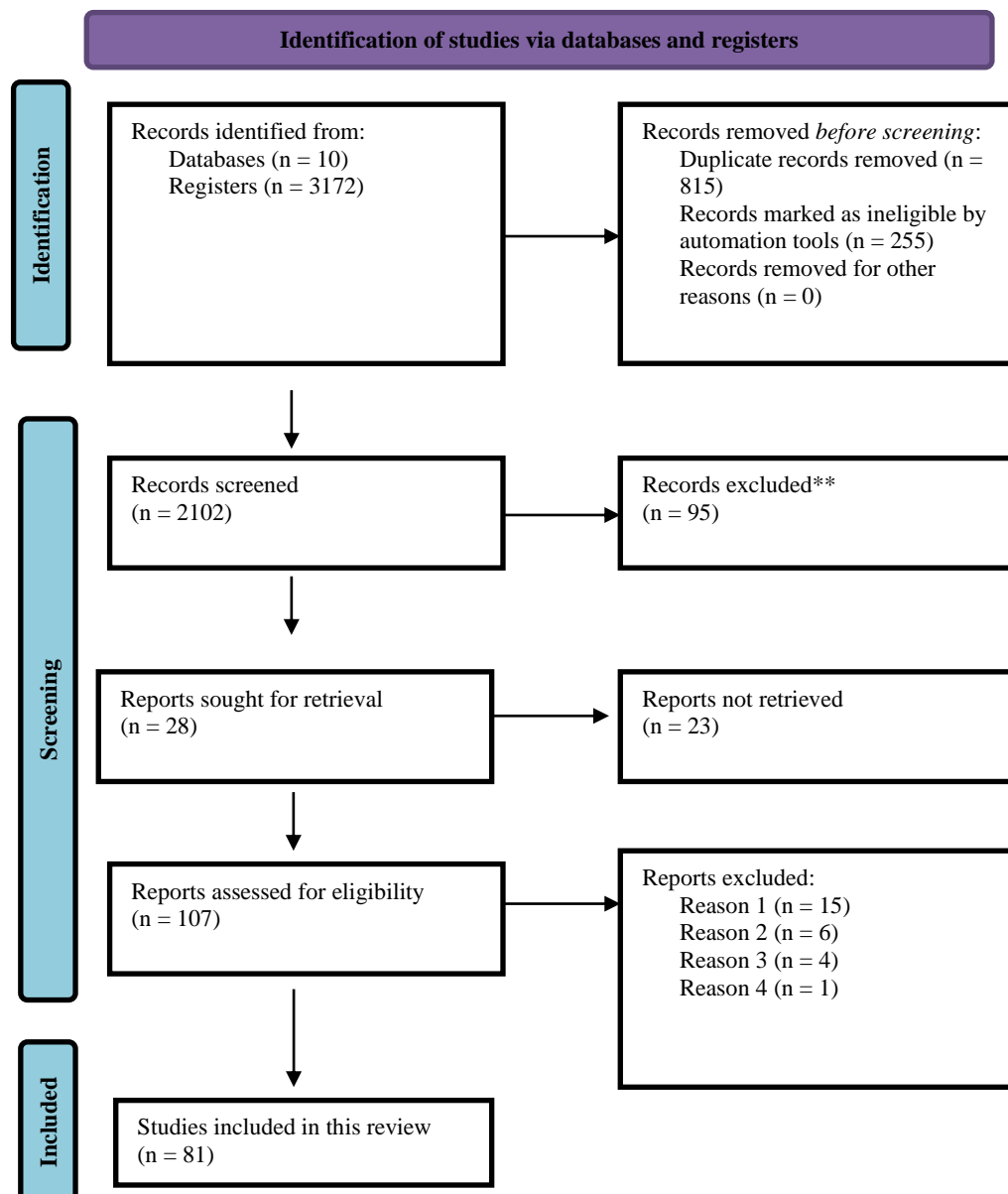
Source: Own authorship.

3.1 Studies characteristics

The studies selected for this review were carried out in the following countries: United States of America (n = 42), China (n = 13), Korea (n = 5), Canada (n = 2), Philippines (n = 2), Ghana (n = 2), India (n = 2), United Kingdom (n = 2), Turkey (n = 2), Australia (n = 1), Spain (n = 1), Indonesia (n = 1), Israel (n = 1), Malaysia (n = 1), Mexico (n = 1), Norway (n = 1), Sweden (n = 1), Trinidad and Tobago (n = 1). Most of the included studies were published in English (n = 80) and only 1 study in Spanish. The date range of the included studies was between 1996 and 2020. 75 studies used quantitative data and 6 studies used qualitative data (All data extracted from the articles can be found in Supplementary Materials - Table 1 and Table 2).

The 81 studies included were carried out in 18 different countries. The country with the highest number of studies was the United States of America (51.2%, n = 42), followed by countries from the Asian continent (China & Korea, with 22.2%, n = 18). Countries from Europe, Oceania, Africa, and Central America were included in this survey. South America did not contribute studies to this review. This result is consistent with leadership's scientific production in recent years, which points to the US as the country with the highest number of publications (60.3%) and Central and South America with the smallest contribution (0.8%) (Gardner et al., 2020). This result reinforces the importance of stimulating scientific productions with the theme of Leadership in South American countries.

The sample size used in quantitative studies ranged from 31(Folmar, 2021a) to 5200 respondents (McClean et al., 2013). The number of establishments ranged from 1 (Babin & Boles, 1996) to 265 (Piong, 2016); 16 studies did not clarify the number of restaurants evaluated in the survey. Regarding qualitative studies, the number of participants ranged from 4 (Miller, 2017; Smith, 2018) to 18 (C. E. Yang et al., 2020), and the number of establishments investigated ranged from 1 (Carter & Baghurst, 2014; Stallworth, 2020) to 5 (Hyman, 2020) (Tables 1 and 2). Different establishments were included in the survey: fast-food restaurants, franchise restaurants, casual dining, and hotels were among the most cited. 70.4% (n = 57) of the articles indicated data collection in only one type of restaurant, 14.8% (n = 12) used data from more than one type of restaurant, and 14.8% (n = 12) reported only that the collection was carried out in "restaurants", but they did not mention the type of service provided.

Of the 81 studies, 71.9% (n = 59) reported that the leaders were restaurant managers or supervisors, 4.9% (n = 4) included restaurant owners as leaders, and 2.4% (n = 2) cited chefs. Only 1 (1.2%) study cited the nutritionist as the leader and 19.5% (n = 15) did not inform the position of the study leaders.

Regarding the leader's gender, 77.7% (n = 63) of the studies did not report this data or only reported information on respondents in general (leaders, subordinates, customers), without separating the data. Only 18 studies clearly exposed this information, of which 14 (77.8%) reported that the majority of leaders were male, and 4 (22.2%) were primarily female. The meta-analysis of Badura et al. (2018) revealed that although, over time, the magnitude of gender differences in leadership emergence has diminished, women are still, in general, less likely to emerge as leaders than men.

Of the 18 studies that exposed the leader's gender information, only one (Langhorn, 2004) related gender difference with organizational results. Restaurants that had women as general leaders were more profitable (22.3% profit growth) than their male counterparts (11.4%); however, this difference was not significant (p = 0.06).

According to the review from Shen and Joseph (2021), the literature on gender and leadership remains fragmented and incomplete, necessitating further studies that emphasize the nuances of the leadership criterion variable on the role of gender. Therefore, research in this area could benefit from more expressive data from studies in restaurants to clarify and inspire new theoretical approaches on the complex gender-leadership relationship, mainly because gender seems to be a neglected variable by most publications.

Regarding the characteristics of employees, 52.1% of the studies did not report the employees' positions. However, of the studies that reported the positions: 80% reported front-line positions (waiter, receptionist, cashier, maitre, bartender, cleaning), 37.5 % of food handlers (cooks, kitchen assistants, kitchen chefs), 12.5% sub-managers or managers in training, and 10% from the administrative sector. It is possible to observe that the influence of leadership on the difference in positions in restaurants is also a theme to be explored in future studies. Therefore, we highlight the importance of new research that examines leadership in terms of the different roles of those being led.

Regarding the gender of the followers, 75.6% (n =62) of the studies reported this data, and only in 33.8% (n =21), the male gender was the majority concerning the female gender (n =41) (66.2%). This data corroborates the considerable increase in the number of women working in the restaurant industry observed in the last three decades in the United States of America (Department of Labor, 2020).

The gender of the subordinate seems to have a significant influence on their perception of leadership's characteristics (Gatling et al., 2020; Zhang, 2013). The study of Gatling et al. (2020) revealed that women are more sensitive to the leader's perceived integrity behavior. That female follower is more likely to trust leaders who promote a high level of integrity behavior compared to male followers. Thus, Leadership's difference in perception according to the gender of employees in restaurants may be the target of future research, given the growth of women in the workforce in this sector (Department of Labor, 2020).

3.2 Prevalence of Leadership Theories

Regarding the Leadership theories used in the studies in this review, the most discussed were: Transformational Leadership (20.9%, n = 17), Leader-Member Exchange – LMX (14.8%, n = 12), Supervisor Support (13.6%, n = 11), Servant Leadership (11.1%, n = 9), and Transactional Leadership (7.4%, n = 6).

These results had some similarities with those found in the review by Gardner et al. (2020) on the scientific production of Leadership in the last decade in The Leadership Quarterly, with the Transformational Leadership Theory in first place in research. LMX was also among the top five surveyed in the last decade. However, the Supervisor Support theory was not found (it may have been included in a specific category), and Servant Leadership was ranked 26th.

The instruments most used to assess Leadership in restaurants were: 1. Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire – MLQ, in different versions, originally from Bass & Avolio (1990); 2. *Leader-Member Exchange* – LMX, in different versions, originally from Graen et al. (1982); 3. *Servant Leadership Scale* de (Ehrhart, 2004); 4. Scales were built by the authors of the articles themselves (Ballesteros & de Saá, 2012; Inelmen, 2009; McClean et al., 2013; Ziegert, 2005). Other scales mentioned were: *Work Environment Scale* (Moos, 1981), *Influence Behavior Questionnaire* (Yukl & Falbec, 1990), *Ethical Leadership Scale* (Brown et al., 2005), and *Authentic Leadership Scale* (Avolio et al., 2007), among others, in addition to instruments without nomenclature and whose authors' names are cited (ex.: Eisenberger, 2002; Tepper, 2000; Chen, 2006). Table 1 presents the validation evidence data of the main scales used in the studies in this review:

Table 1. Internal consistency values of the most used leadership instruments in the included studies.

Instrument	Studies	Internal consistency found in the study
Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire – MLQ (Bass & Avolio, 1990)	Barling, J.; Loughlin, C.; Kelloway, E. K. (2002)	(10 items selected from the original MLQ to compose the Transformational factor) Transformational: α = 0.91
	Dartey-Baah, K. ; Addo, S.A. (2018)	(MLQ 5x Short form) Transformational: α = 0.87 Transactional: α = 0.83
	Dartey-Baah, K. ; Anlesinya, A.; Lamptey, Y. (2019)	(MLQ 5x Short form) Transformational: α = 0.94 Transactional: α = 0.61
	Detert, J. R.; Burris, E. R. (2007)	(5 items selected from the original MLQ to compose the Transformational factor) Transformational: α = 0.91
	Folmar, J. A. (2020)	It does not mention
	Hofmann, D. A.; Jones, L. M. (2005)	(MLQ 5x Short form) Transformational: α = 0.97 Transactional: α = 0.79 Passive leadership: α = 0.89
	Ko, W. H.; Kang, H. Y. (2019)	(5 items selected from the original MLQ to compose the Transformational factor) Transformational: α = 0.88
	Jacques, P. H.; Garger, J.; Lee, K.; Ko, J. (2015)	(7 items taken from the original MLQ to assess 2 factors) Extra effort (3 items): α = 0.72 Leader effectiveness (4 items): α = 0.77
	Lee, J. E. et al. (2013)	(3 items selected from the original MLQ to compose the Transformational factor) Transformational: α = 0.92
	Molina, J.; Pérez, A.; López, H. (2016)	It does not mention
	Mtairek, M. (2013)	It does not mention
Leader-Member Exchange – LMX (Graen, et al., 1982)	Cha, J. and Borchgrevink, C.P. (2018)	(LMX-5 Scale) α = 0.85
	Collins, M. (2007)	(LMX-7 Scale) α = 0.89
	Collins, M. (2010)	(LMX-7 Scale) α = 0.91
	Kim, B. P.; George, R. T. (2005)	α = 0.90
	Medler-Liraz (2014)	(LMX-7 Scale) α = 0.90
	Reynolds, D. (2002)	(LMX-7 Scale) α = 0.92
	Yoon, M. H.; Yoon, D. J. (2019)	(LMX-7 Scale) α = 0.89
Leader-Member Exchange – LMX (Liden and Maslyn, 1998)	Farrell, M. A.; Oczkowski, E. (2012)	α = 0.92
	Liao, Chenwei ; Wayne, Sandy J ; Liden, Robert C ; Meuser, Jeremy D. (2016)	α = 0.92
	Mardanov, I. T.; Maertz, C. P.; Sterrett, J. L.	α = 0.88

	(2008)	
Servant Leadership Scale de Ehrhart, (2004)	Jang, J. (2013)	Ehrhart Scale, (2004) $\alpha = 0.94$
	Jang, J. ; Kandampully, J. (2018)	Ehrhart Scale, (2004) $\alpha = 0.83$
	Peng, J. C.; Chen, S.W. (2020)	Ehrhart Scale, (2004) $\alpha = 0.95$
	Peng, J.C.; Jien, J. J.; Lin, J. (2016)	Ehrhart Scale, (2004) $\alpha = 0.94$
Work Environment Scale (Moos, 1981)	Babin, B. J.; Boles, J. S. (1996)	$\alpha = 0.76$
Influence Behavior Questionnare (Yukl & Falbe, 1990)	Barbuto, J. E.; Scholl, R. W.; Hickox III, C. F. ; Boulmetis, J. (2001)	α value ranged from 0.73 to 0.90 among the 9 scale factors
Ethical Leadership Scale (Brown et al., 2005)	Detert, J. R. ; Treviño, L. K. ; Burris, E. R.; Andiappan, M. (2007)	$\alpha = 0.89$
	Tang, G. et al. (2014)	$\alpha = 0.91$
Authentic Leadership Scale (Avolio, Gardner, & Walumbwa, 2007)	Jacques, P. H.; Garger, J.; Lee, K.; Ko, J. (2015)	α value ranged from 0.74 to 0.81 among the 4 scale factors
Scales constructed by the authors of the studies	Ballesteros, De Saá (2012)	Supervisor Support $\alpha = 0.88$
	İnelmen (2009)	Trust in Supervisor Scale $\alpha = 0.76$
	McClean, Burris e Detert (2013)	Unit managerial access to organizational resources $\alpha = 0.93$
	Ziegert (2005)	α value ranged from 0.78 to 0.96 among the scale factors

Source: Own authorship.

As observed in Table 1, the chosen instruments mainly presented internal consistency values conventionally considered satisfactory ($\alpha > 0.6$), and some actual values greater than 0.9, which has been discussed as indicative of item redundancy and/or inadequate size of the test (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011; Vaske et al., 2017). Although the scales used by the studies present evidence of validation, the volume of different instruments identified in the restaurant leadership surveys is remarkable.

The wide range of theories and instruments of leadership demonstrates the field's high theoretical effort. It raises concerns about the unnecessary proliferation of constructions that overlap and do not always add value to pre-existing theories. The excess of available theories and instruments can threaten theoretical and practical knowledge in the field and prevent a complete analysis of the construct in a review, such as a meta-analysis (Banks et al., 2018). Figure 2 shows the breadth of Leadership theories used in restaurant studies.

Figure 2. WordCloud® of the most used Leadership theories in restaurant studies.

Source: Own authorship.

3.3 Prevalence of organizational outcomes related to Leadership

More than 100 different organizational variables were evaluated in the Leadership studies in restaurants. The most investigated in the studies were: Organizational Commitment (22.2%, n = 18), Intention to Turn (18.5%, n = 15), Work Performance (17.2%, n = 14), Job Satisfaction (15.8%, n= 13), and Turnover (13.4%, n= 11). Figure 3 shows the outcome variables addressed in the studies.

Figure 3. WordCloud® of the most investigated organizational outcome variables in Leadership studies in restaurants.

Source: Own authorship.

3.3.1 Leadership and Organizational Commitment in restaurants

Organizational Commitment was one of the most evaluated outcome variables in Leadership studies in restaurants. This variable refers to the bond between the individual and the organization and provides for a stable and lasting relationship between them, contributing to the organization's success (Cooper-Hakim, A. Viswesvaran, 2005). Among the results found in the surveys, the positive relationship between the Supervisor Support and the Commitment of the team members stands out ($p < 0.05$) (Cho & Johanson, 2008), having the Organizational Commitment a mediating role between Leadership and Intention of the led to leave or to stay (Ghazali et al., 2018; Jang & Kandampully, 2018; Tews et al., 2019). Affective Organizational Commitment was negatively and significantly correlated with Intention to Turn ($\gamma = -0.42$, $p < 0.01$) (Jang & Kandampully, 2018).

Still, on customer service, it was observed that the Team Commitment mediated the relationship between LMX and the customer service behaviors (Yoon & Yoon, 2019). In addition, a positive and significant relationship was also found between the satisfaction of the led and the Organizational Commitment ($\beta = 0.78$, $p < 0.01$) from the Leader Empowering Behaviors (LEB), and consequent greater satisfaction of the establishment's customers (Namasivayam et al., 2014. Finally, Piong (2016) study concluded that Servant Leadership could allow restaurants to increase their employees' Organizational Commitment.

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According to the review from Yahaya and Ebrahim (2016), the literature shows that leadership is an antecedent of the Organizational Commitment of the subordinates. In turn, it influences Work Performance. Employees who work under consultative or participatory leadership are more committed to the organization, more satisfied with their jobs, and perform better at work (Yousaf et al., 2018).

Thus, studies on leadership in restaurants confirm previous research findings on the anticipation of leadership over Organizational Commitment, with significant relationships between these two variables. Furthermore, Organizational Commitment plays a mediating role between leadership and other organizational outcomes, such as Intentions to turn, employee job satisfaction, and customer satisfaction.

3.3.2 Leadership, Intention to Turn, and Turnover in restaurants

Although both addresses the change of employees, Intention to Turn and Turnover are different variables. The first refers to an employee's disposition not yet effective, and the second to the actual act of leaving the organization. However, the study of Purba et al. (2016), included in this review, found that restaurant employee Intentions to Turn were positively and significantly correlated with actual Voluntary Turnover 15 months later ($p < 0.01$).

Turnover is one of the main problems in the restaurant industry and results in lost profit for organizations and creates economic challenges for countries (Burke, 2017). Furthermore, the higher turnover rate may be a symptom of an unharmonious relationship between those led with Leadership, as shown by some of the studies in this review presented below.

According to the results of Bufquin et al. (2018), Intentions to Turn were significantly lower when followers rated their leaders as caring and competent individuals ($p<0.001$). Trust in the supervisor significantly affected the quality of relationships between leaders and subordinates ($p < 0.01$) (Purba et al., 2016), and was significantly related to sales ($t = 3.46$, $p < 0.01$), profits ($t = 2.76$, $p < 0.05$) and marginally significant for Turnover ($t =1.63$; $p <0.10$) in restaurants in the study of Davis et al. (2000). In addition, the leader's support and encouragement for fun in the workplace (which includes adopting a relatively casual business attitude and allowing employees to have fun at work) seem to have a favorable impact on reducing turnover (Tews et al., 2013, 2014).

However, Turnover and Leadership do not appear to have a direct influence relationship in restaurants. Emotional Supervisor Support was related to Turnover through Affective Organizational Commitment (Tews et al., 2019). Affective Organizational Commitment fully mediated the relationship between employee perception of Servant Leadership and Intention to Turn (Jang & Kandampully, 2018). The study of Tang et al. (2015) showed a significant mediating effect of leader-led Value Congruence on the relationship between Ethical Leadership and employees' intention to leave ($z = −2.39$, $p ≤0.05$), and the study of Collins (2010) showed a significant mediating effect of leader-led Value Congruence on the relationship between Ethical Leadership and employees' intention to leave.

It should also be noted that some studies did not identify a relationship between Leadership and Turnover. In Guchait et al. (2015) study, Organizational Commitment was considered the most influential for both Intention to leave and Intention to stay. There was no significant relationship between Supervisor Support and Intention to leave or stay in employment. In the sample of Burke (2017), there was also no significant relationship between Leader's Emotional Intelligence and employee turnover rates.

3.3.3 Leadership and Work Performance in restaurants

Work Performance is perhaps one of the variables of greatest interest to restaurant managers and owners, as customers will judge the establishment's quality through the service provided by the employees. Therefore, as employees are in direct

contact with customers, they can influence customer satisfaction, loyalty, and, consequently, profitability (S.-M. Lee et al., 2016).

In the study of Lee et al. (2016), Authentic Leadership had positive and significant effects on Leader Trust (coefficient = 0.667, p < 0.01) and Work Performance (coefficient = 0.307, p < 0.01) of the followers but did not affect Organizational Identification. But Organizational Identification significantly affected Work Performance (coefficient = 0.243, p < 0.05) and Employee Loyalty (coefficient = 0.298, p < 0.01), being a complete mediator between them. In the results of Peng and Chen (J.-C. Peng & Chen, 2020), Concern Climate and Work Engagement mediated the relationship between Servant Leadership and the Work Performance of frontline employees.

Still, on the mediating variables between Leadership and Work Performance, knowledge sharing and Team Cohesion, respectively, mediated the relationship between Empowering Leadership and Team Performance in the study by Tung and Chang (Tung & Chang, 2011), and the Leader Political Skill was positively and significantly related to Team Performance (r = 0.14, p < 0.05) and the Team Cohesion (r = 0.13, p < 0.05) in the sample of Yang e Zhang (F. Yang & Zhang, 2014).

Therefore, it is possible to observe that studies in restaurants on the influence of Leadership on employee performance generally consider some other variable as a mediator. This result corresponds to the findings of the meta-analytic review by Martin et al.(Martin et al. 2016), which verified that trust, job satisfaction, motivation, and empowerment mediate the effects between LMX and Work Performance.

3.3.4   Leadership and Job Satisfaction in restaurants

Job Satisfaction can be defined as a pleasant or positive emotional state resulting from someone's work or work experiences (Locke, 1976). Employee satisfaction at work is an important factor in customer retention and the establishment's success. The practice of leadership is considered a relevant variable in Job satisfaction, given its influence on the various aspects of the work of those being led (Hancer & George, 2003).

Some studies emphasized how the quality of the relationship between leader-led was able to significantly and positively predict employee satisfaction (Collins, 2007; Folmar, 2021b) and that a significant positive correlation was found between Leader Efficacy and Job Satisfaction ($\beta = 0.19$; p <0.01) (Jacques et al., 2015). In the study of Han, Kim, and Kang (2017), the results indicate that leader Emotional Intelligence and Support have a significant positive relationship with employee satisfaction at work (p < 0.01) and still lead to high levels of service performance. Langhorn and Steve (2004) also found a positive and significant relationship between some factors of emotional intelligence of leaders with team satisfaction and unit profit (p = 0.003; p =0.042 respectively) and customer satisfaction (p = 0.004).

Job Satisfaction was also presented as a mediating variable in some studies. In the study of Bufquin et al. (2018), Job Satisfaction was a mediator between the affectionate behavior and competence of the leaders and the Intention to Turn of the employees. Job Satisfaction was also a mediator between leader empowerment and greater customer satisfaction (Namasivayam et al., 2014).

Another systematic review of nurses on leadership and job satisfaction identified that 88% of the included studies showed a significant correlation between leadership style and job satisfaction, with transformational, authentic, resonant, and servant styles having positive correlations. In contrast, passive-avoidant and laissez-faire showed negative correlations in all cases (Specchia et al., 2021).

In this review, no negative correlations were found between leadership styles and Job Satisfaction. Only in the study of Mardanov et al. (2008), satisfaction with supervision has a weak explanatory power in general job satisfaction, contrary to other surveys included.

3.3.5 Results of qualitative studies

Regarding qualitative data, some results of the included surveys will be highlighted. In the study of Carter and Baghurst (Carter & Baghurst, 2014), the interviews and focus groups culminated in the relevance and application of Servant Leadership in restaurants. It was discussed that Servant Leadership positively influences employee engagement while contributing to their loyalty to the workplace. Based on the servant-leader experience (personal growth, relationships, and leading by example), the participants were more committed, built healthy working relationships, and actively achieved organizational goals.

The emerging themes of the study of Hyman (2020) included consideration, knowledge sharing, Effective Leadership through strong work dynamics, and team development. An important recommendation is that leaders strive to retain their employees by exercising consideration and willingness to evolve their management style to meet the needs of the restaurant industry and its workforce. In the results of Stallworth (2020), communication, positive reinforcement, and training were the three central themes of the semi-structured interviews with restaurant leaders. An important recommendation for business leaders in the fast-food restaurant industry is to cultivate a work environment that promotes open communication.

The study of Miller (2017) evaluated human capital strategies and turnover in restaurants led to the emergence of 4 themes: positive working relationships with employees, employee motivation, employee incentives, and employee selection. Implications include providing organizational leaders with a better understanding of human capital strategies to reduce voluntary employee turnover intentions and contribute to social change through improved organizational profitability, increasing competitive advantage, and economic sustainability of companies in this sector in the United States. Smith (2018) highlighted the importance of implementing successful strategies by Transformational Leadership to reduce employee turnover, which would save business operations and profitability from degrading operational disruptions due to frequent recruitment and labor shortages.

The study of Yang et al. (2020) identified nine sources of negative emotions of employees related to Leadership: workplace miscommunication, destructive managerial leadership, kitchen trouble, poor task management, inadequate remuneration, career development problems, conflicts with personal relationships, customer service problems, and problems in leisure and health. For the authors, these results reveal that the mechanism that drives employees' negative emotions is much more complex than positive emotions. It is up to leaders to try to transform some sources of negative emotion into positive motivations.

It is observed that the qualitative studies of leadership in localized restaurants were all published in the last decade (between 2012 and 2020), which shows the recent interest in scientific production in the field. In addition, the studies were based on different constructs of leadership and organizational outcomes, which, as well as quantitative findings, can hinder the solid construction of leadership knowledge in the context of restaurants (Bryman, 2004). Therefore, it is recommended that future qualitative research take advantage of the structures already used by these pioneering works in the area to broaden and deepen the discoveries.

3.4 Risk of bias

The risk of bias analysis of the quantitative studies (n = 75) resulted in 53 studies at low risk (70.7%), 18 studies at moderate risk (24%), and four at high risk (5.3%). All studies answered the main question and assessed Leadership's influence on restaurants. Some studies did not answer some questions about the risk of bias because they did not make the information clear, and, therefore, they scored higher on the risk of bias (Table 2).

Table 2. Classification and percentage of risk of bias in quantitative studies.

Author, year	Risk of bias	Risk Percentage (%)
Babin & Boles (1996)	High	37.5
Ballesteros & de Saá (2012)	Moderate	50
Barbuto (2001)	Low	75
Barling et al. (2002)	Moderate	62.5
Bufquin et al. (2018)	Low	75
Burke (2017)	Moderate	50
Cha & Borchgrevink (2018)	Low	75
Cho & Johanson (2008)	Low	75
Cho et al. (2009)	Low	75
Collins, M. (2007)	Low	75
Collins (2010)	Low	100
Dartey-Baah & Addo (2019)	Low	100
Dartey-Baah et al. (2019)	Low	100
Davis et al. (2000)	Moderate	50
Detert & Burris (2007)	Low	87.5
Detert et al. (2008)	Low	87.5
Fang-guo (2013)	Low	75
Farrell & Oczkowski (2012)	Moderate	50
Folmar (2021)	Moderate	62.5
Ghazali et al. (2018)	Moderate	62.5
Gill et al. (2006)	Moderate	62,5
Guchait et al. (2014)	Low	100
Guchait et al. (2015)	Moderate	62.5
Han et al. (2017)	Low	87.5
Hofmann & Jones (2005)	Low	87.5
Holm et al. (2015)	Low	87.5
Hu et al. (2012)	Low	100
Inelmen (2009)	Low	100
Jaarsveld et al. (2021)	Low	75
Jacques et al. (2015)	Moderate	62.5
Jang (2013)	Low	100
Jang & Kandampully (2018)	Low	75
Jung et al. (2020)	Moderate	62.5
Kao & Cheng (2017)	Low	100
Kim & George (2005)	Low	75
Kim et al. (2009)	Moderate	62.5
Kluemper et al. (2019)	Moderate	62.5
Ko & Kang (2019)	Low	75
Langhorn (2004)	High	37.5
Lee et al. (2013)	Low	75
Lee et al. (2016)	Low	75
Liao et al. (2017)	Low	100
Liden et al. (2014)	Low	75
Liu & Liu (2020)	Low	100
Mardanov et al. (2008)	Moderate	50
Mathe & Slevitch (2013)	Low	87.5
Mathisen et al. (2012)	Low	75
McClean et al. (2013)	Low	87.5
Medler-Liraz (2014)	Low	100
Molina et al. (2016)	High	37.5
Mostafa (2019)	Low	87.5
Mtairek (2014)	Moderate	62.5
Namasivayam et al. (2014)	Low	100
Needham (2018)	Moderate	62.5
Peng & Chen (2020)	Low	100
Peng et al. (2016)	Low	87.5
Piong (2016)	Low	75
Pradhan & Jena (2019)	Low	87.5
Purba et al. (2016)	Low	87.5
Qiu et al. (2020)	Low	100
Restubog et al. (2011)	Low	87.5
Reynolds (2002)	Moderate	62.5
Richmond (1997)	Low	100
Steffensen (2020)	Low	87.5

Su et al. (2019)	Low	100
Susskind et al. (2007)	High	37.5
Tang et al. (2015)	Low	87.5
Tews et al. (2014)	Low	87.5
Tews et al. (2013)	Low	75
Tews et al. (2019)	Low	100
Tung & Chang (2011)	Low	75
Wallace et al. (2011)	Low	75
Yang & Zhang (2014)	Low	75
Yoon & Yoon (2019)	Low	87.5
Ziegert (2005)	Moderate	62.5

Source: Own authorship.

Regarding the risk of bias analysis of the qualitative studies, all presented a low risk of bias and answered 100% of the instrument's questions (Table 3).

Table 3. Risk of bias assessment of summarized quantitative studies.

Author, year	Risk of bias	Risk Percentage (%)
Carter & Baghurst (2014)	Low	100
Hyman (2020)	Low	100
Miller (2017)	Low	100
Smith (2018)	Low	100
Stallworth (2020)	Low	100
Yang et al. (2020)	Low	100

Source: Own authorship.

4. Conclusion

This systematic review of leadership in restaurants identified 81 studies published between 1996 and 2020, with a sample size ranging from 31 to 5200 respondents for quantitative studies and from 4 to 18 participants for qualitative studies.

The most productive decade of restaurant leadership studies was between 2010 and 2020, with 61 (75.3%) studies published in this period, 18 (22.2%) studies published in the decade 2000 to 2010, and only 2 (2.4%) previous studies to the year 2000. The growing production of leadership studies in restaurants corroborates the findings of Gardner et al. (2020) review about production at The Leadership Quarterly over the past decade.

More than 20 different leadership theories were used in the studies, with the range of instruments used to assess leadership being even greater, which demonstrates the theoretical effort of the field but hinders a complete analysis of the construct in the context of restaurants.

In summary, the results of studies on leadership in restaurants highlight mainly the significant positive relationships between the most used leadership theories (Transformational Leadership, LMX, Supervisor Support, and Servant Leadership) and the most cited outcomes: Organizational Commitment, Work Performance, and Job Satisfaction, in addition to a significant negative relationship between these leadership styles and Intention to Turn and Turnover. The main recommendations of the pioneer studies published in the 1990s (Babin & Boles, 1996; Richmond, 1997) included shifting from the individual analysis level to an organizational analysis level and further exploring the employee-customer relationship. Such proposals have been implemented over the years, as observed in several studies of the last decade (Farrell & Oczkowski, 2012; Han et al., 2017; Jang, 2013; Langhorn, 2004; Liden et al., 2014; Liu & Liu, 2020; Mostafa, 2019; Peng & Chen, 2020; Su et al., 2019; Jaarsveld et al., 2021). They indicate that the research on leadership in restaurants has been paying attention to the evolutions and suggestions of the area.

However, it is pertinent to note that all the most investigated variables in quantitative surveys on Leadership in restaurants were person-led as their primary focus. No organizational variable such as sales, profit, or organizational performance occupied the top of the surveyed outcomes. The qualitative surveys reinforce this result. This may indicate that researchers in the field still see the leader-led relationship in restaurants as the most needed work topic.

The future research agenda suggested by studies published in recent years include: applying research to different types of restaurants (Bufquin et al., 2018; DiPietro et al., 2019), develop longitudinal studies to explain the causality between the constructs (Jang & Kandampully, 2018; Jung et al., 2020; Luo et al., 2019; Peng & Chen, 2020; Self et al., 2020; Yoon & Yoon, 2019), more multilevel analytics research (Luo et al., 2019), check the differences in leadership assessment according to the position held by the subordinate (Bufquin et al., 2018), investigate the reasons for employees to remain in their restaurant jobs (DiPietro et al., 2019), examine relationships with other types of leadership and organizational outcomes (Luo et al., 2019; Peng & Chen, 2020; Self et al., 2020; Steffensen, 2020), further analyze the reasons for the high reliability values of the instruments (α >0,9) (Mushtaq et al., 2019), increase the sample number and collect data from different sources (Mushtaq et al., 2019; Qiu et al., 2020; Yoon & Yoon, 2019), among others.

In addition to these specific recommendations for the development of the evaluated outcome variables, research, in general, suggests the application of the hypothesis model in other types of organizations (Jang, 2013; Jung et al., 2020; Steffensen, 2020), giving greater focus to the used leadership construct than to the characteristics of work in restaurants.

However, we recommend that further research explore the leadership construct from the service in restaurants perspective to identify the most relevant particularities in this context. Examples are the differences in the perception of leadership according to gender, age and level of education of subordinates and how this affects work in restaurants. Also, the degree of autonomy that the leader has within the organization influences the organization's results, organizational training results on relationship and communication between organization-leader-led in food services, and if there is a relationship between the number of meals produced by the establishment and leadership style perceived by subordinates.

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