

The Consortium Journal of Hospitality and Tourism

VOLUME 13, ISSUE 1, 2008

Letter from the Editor

Articles of Special Topics

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Call for Papers

**Historically and Predominantly Black Colleges and Universities,
Consortium of Hospitality Educators**

**Published at: University of Maryland Eastern Shore
School of Business and Technology
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Dear Reader:

The Consortium Journal has received a tremendous amount of support during the past eleven years. The Historically and Predominantly Black Colleges and Universities, Hospitality Consortium (HPBCU-HM) developed the Journal to provide an avenue for educators and business professional to present their findings and concerns in the areas of hospitality education and other hospitality related business issues. Because of the diversity of the hospitality industry, the publication is not limited to minority issues, even though they are welcomed. The journal was developed to be a platform for any hospitality-related issues in hopes that the publication of these issues will bring them forward to be discussed in the classroom as well as in private industry.

Because of the growth in travel, tourism, meetings, and special events, I would like to receive for review as many articles as possible pertaining to any of these areas. The next fall journal will focus specifically on these related types of issues. If you have completed work in other areas it can be reviewed for the spring publication if received by April 15. All articles for review for the fall issue should be received by October 15.

I would like to thank the University of Maryland Eastern Shore and you for your continued support and I hope you will continue to submit articles to the Consortium Journal for publishing consideration.

Sincerely,

Pender B. Noriega, DBA, CHE
Editor-in-Chief

WHEN SPORTS EQUAL BIG BUCKS FOR A TOURIST DESTINATION: A THREE-YEAR COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THE HONOLULU MARATHON

Jerome Agrusa, Joseph D. Lema, Todd Botto, and Yoon C. Cho

The purpose of this study was to assess the economic benefits of the 2005, 2006, and 2007 Honolulu Marathon. The island of Oahu has hosted the Honolulu Marathon since 1973 and has continued since the race conception. With the rapid development of sporting events throughout the tourism industry, Honolulu has created a popular event for sport tourists. Data for this study was comprised of participants from the 2005, 2006, and 2007 Honolulu Marathon through surveys that were administered to participants while attending the Honolulu Marathon Expo. The instrument consisted of 18 questions regarding accommodations, length of stay, as well as the amount of money that was spent by marathon participants on their lodging, food, souvenirs and other miscellaneous items while attending the marathon activities in Honolulu. Examination of these results is necessary for determining the economic effects the Honolulu Marathon and a major sporting event has on the state of Hawaii.

Key words: Sporting event, marathon, economic impact, Hawaii

INTRODUCTION

The largest major organized participatory event in Hawaii is the Honolulu Marathon. One area of tourism

that Hawaii is focusing on is sport tourism. With the decline in Hawaii's sun, sea, and sand tourism, sport tourism has become an attractive form of alternative tourism for the island state. With over seven (7.36) million visitors traveling to Hawaii annually and over \$11.5 billion in total expenditures per year, Hawaii has become dependent on the tourism industry (Blair, 2008).

The Honolulu Marathon is run immediately before the beginning of the high tourist season on the second Sunday of December. During this time of the year which usually has a drop in tourist arrivals to Hawaii, the Honolulu Marathon provides a much needed boost to the economy. As a result of the Honolulu Marathon, hotels in Honolulu are at full capacity, while in comparison

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the hotels on the other islands of Hawaii during this same time period usually have a 10% to 20% lower percentage level of hotel occupancy.

In many destinations around the globe, the visiting golfer and skier along with the traveling football, soccer, rugby or cricket fan all contribute to the local economies of the region. Broadly defined, sport tourism includes travel away from one's primary residence to participate in a sport activity for recreation or competition, travel to observe sport at the grassroots or elite level, and travel to visit a sport attraction such as a sports hall of fame or water park (Gibson, Attle, & Yiannakis, 1997). One of the fastest growing areas of the \$4.5 trillion global travel and tourism industry is sport tourism (Travel Wire News, 2004).

With travel and tourism expected exceed more than 10 percent of the global gross domestic product by 2011, a number of countries have reported as much as 25 percent of all tourism receipts being attributed to sport tourism (Travel Wire News, 2004). There is significant opportunities and benefits for tourism destinations such as Hawaii to increase their profile and promote their region in this lucrative niche market. For instance, Sports Travel Magazine has estimated that the sports-related travel and tourism market is worth over US\$118 billion. For many big cities as well as developing-countries, a well-run marathon can be a boon for tourism (Weinback, 2006). Furthermore, major sporting events are becoming tourism attractions as well (Ford-Warner, 2004). To increase their appeal, Organizers of marathons are adding a variety of races to the agenda to increase the appeal of the marathon as well as the location. By adding shorter races such as 5K's and 10K's, the marathon location creates a "running festival" for all levels of participants, and

the Honolulu Marathon has close to 5,000 walkers in their race day walk (Elphinstone, 2006).

Interest in major sporting events is not only being driven by tourist demand but also through increasing media exposure of the sporting event itself. The events of the Honolulu Marathon and results have been extensively reported through multi-media sources including the *Wall Street Journal*, *New York Times*, *Honolulu Advertiser*, *ESPN News*, *Associated Press*, *CNN*, and *NBC News*, to notably name a few. As attention continues to focus on this lucrative sport tourism market with events such as the Honolulu Marathon, the accurate reporting of data is necessary to examine the impact major events have on the economy over a period of time. The purpose of this study addresses the need for a comparison of three consecutive years from 2005 to 2007 of tourist spending data gathered from the Honolulu Marathon. Furthermore, as suggested by Allen (1993), participatory events often make use of existing infrastructure and volunteer labor and therefore can be relatively inexpensive to host. With the high benefit to cost ratio of the Honolulu Marathon, these comparative results are worth the necessary examination over a period of time.

METHODOLOGY

The population for this study consisted of runners in the Honolulu Marathon who do not reside in Hawaii. There were two survey forms used in this study. Due to the extremely high number of runners from Japan, over 17,000 registered runners, the survey was then translated into Japanese for the Japanese-speaking marathon participants. The double translation (back translation) method was utilized in designing the

questionnaire (McGorry, 2000). This process generally provides a high fidelity translation, even though issues of literal translation and missing information may arise (Marin & Marin, 1991).

Pilot testing of 25 Japanese tourists was conducted on the instrument to ensure all questions could be understood and did not contain ambiguous questions or interpretive problems. The data was collected by administering a questionnaire to a convenience sample of Japanese participants and English speaking participants who were from 20 different countries from each of the years in this study. The questionnaire was developed by researchers and contained questions asking respondents when they arrived in Honolulu, their travel/lodging arrangements, and their expected expenditures on selected items. The final instrument consisted of 18 questions regarding accommodations, length of stay, as well as the amount of money that was spent by marathon participants on their lodging, food, souvenirs and other miscellaneous items while attending the marathon activities in Honolulu. The questionnaire also contained demographic questions, questions asking respondents when they came to Honolulu, their travel/lodging arrangements, and their expected expenditures on selected items, as well as other Likert-type questions on how they enjoyed their visit and whether or not they might return to Hawaii other than to run in the Honolulu Marathon.

The questionnaire used in this study was developed from a modified version of the survey instrument used by the authors in the 2000 Buy.Com Louisiana Open study (Agrusa & Tanner, 2002), which was based on the Nordic Model of Tourism (Paajanen, 1999). The Nordic Model is a research method that

determines the economic impact of tourism. The Nordic Model depicts the impact of tourism on a local economy. The input-output model and its variations are, internationally, the most popular analysis techniques in economic studies on tourism (Archer & Fletcher, 1996; Fletcher, 1989; Johnson, Obermiller, & Radtke, 1989). In comparison, the Nordic tourism income model is more flexible, easier to apply, and covers the whole tourism income-receiving industry (Paajanen, 1993, 1994). It is very accurate at local and regional levels and not dependent on heavy statistical data.

RESULTS

A total of 1385 in 2005, 1605 in 2006 and 1643 in 2007 usable survey questionnaires were collected and analyzed for this report. To limit confusion with the comparison of this report, all figures reported in **bold** were collected from the **2005 Honolulu Marathon** survey questionnaires, all figures reported in black were collected from the 2006 Honolulu Marathon survey questionnaires, and all figures reported underlined were collected from the *2007 Honolulu Marathon* survey questionnaires.

As shown in Table 1 and Table 2 there were **971** (1004) (1051) questionnaires completed in Japanese and **414** (603) (592) questionnaires completed in English. Close to half of the registrants **48.7%** (46.9%) (42.5%) were first time runners. When calculating into the formula the friends and family members who came specifically to support a marathon runner and did not run in the marathon, the Honolulu Marathon accounted for **\$100,070,000** (\$101,590,000) (\$108,890,000) in visitor spending.

Table 1.

Economic impact is calculated based on the Read Formula used by DBEDT (Department of Business, Economic Development & Tourism) Hawaii. The number of visitors for the Japanese Runners calculated in the table below includes [(2005) .76], [(2006) 1.00], [(2007)1.06] friends/family members for each Japanese Runner according to the results of the survey.

	2005		2006		2007	
	Japanese Runners	Japanese Walkers	Japanese Runners	Japanese Walkers	Japanese Runners	Japanese Walkers
Number of visitors	30,527	4,394	35,810	3,916	35,135	3,334
Average length of stay	5.91 days	5.91 days	5.23 days	5.23 days	5.27 days	5.80 days
Gain of visitor days	180,414	25,968	187,286	20,480	185,161	19,337
Estimated spending per visitor per day	\$240.10	\$240.10	\$256.20	\$256.20	\$258.20	\$267.40
Gain of Direct Visitor Expenditures	\$43.31 million	\$6.23 million	\$47.98 million	\$5.24 million	\$47.80 million	\$5.17 million
Output multiplier	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.64	1.64
Sales generated by additional related expenditures	\$69.29 million	\$9.96 million	\$76.77 million	\$8.39 million	\$78.40 million	\$8.48 million
Income multiplier	.46	.46	.47	.47	.47	.47
Direct, indirect and induced income generated	\$31.11 million	\$4.58 million	\$36.08 million	\$3.94 million	\$36.85 million	\$3.98 million
State tax multiplier	.097	.097	.097	.097	.089	.089
Direct, indirect and induced tax revenue generated	\$3,017,670	\$444,260	\$3,500,053	\$382,748	\$3,279,725	\$354,720

Table 2.

Economic impact is calculated based on the Read Formula used by DBEDT. The number of visitors for the U.S. Mainland Runners calculated in the table below includes [(2005) 1.89], [(2006)1.78],[(2007)1.27] friends/family members and for “Other Countries” Runners was [(2005) 1.63], [(2006) 1.82],[(2007)1.87] friends/family members according to the results of the survey.

	2005		2006		2007	
	U.S. Mainland Runners	“Other Countries” Runners (Does not include Japan)	U.S. Mainland Runners	“Other Countries” Runners (Does not include Japan)	U.S. Mainland Runners	“Other Countries” Runners (Does not include Japan)
Number of visitors	6,495	2,037	5,459	1,661	4,742	2,273
Average length of stay	10.17 days	10.17 days	9.12 days	9.12 days	10.04 days	10.24 days
Gain of visitor days	66,054	20,716	49,786	15,148	47,609	23,275
Estimated spending per visitor per day	\$150.10	\$150.10	\$158.20	\$158.20	\$167.30	\$181.30
Gain of Direct Visitor Expenditures	\$9.91 million	\$3.1 million	\$7.87 million	\$2.39 million	\$7.96 million	\$4.21 million
Output multiplier	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.64	1.64
Sales generated by additional related expenditures	\$15.86 million	\$4.96 million	\$12.60 million	\$3.83 million	\$13.06 million	\$6.92 million
Income multiplier	.46	.46	.47	.47	.47	.47
Direct, indirect and induced income generated	\$7.29 million	\$2.28 million	\$5.92 million	\$1.80 million	\$6.13 million	\$3.25 million
State tax multiplier	.097	.097	.097	.097	.089	.089
Direct, indirect and induced tax revenue generated	\$707,673	\$271,600	\$574,518	\$174,807	\$546,299	\$289,480

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The research team would like to thank Dr. Jim Barahal, President of the Honolulu Marathon, for his support in completing this research project.

Of the **28,048** (28,635) (27,827) Honolulu Marathon runners, **17,349** (17,905) (17,056) were from Japan, **3,437** (3067) (2089) from the U.S. Mainland and **1,250** (913) (792) were from countries other than the Japan. There were also **4,394** (3916) (3334) walkers from Japan, resulting in **21,743** (21,821) (20,390) participants from Japan. More than **92%** (93%) (94%) of all the respondents stated that they had a positive experience with the Honolulu Marathon. The percentage of runners from Japan **36%** (32%) (30%) indicated that this is their first time to visit Honolulu, and almost 90% (for all three years) of the Japanese runners stated that they would return to visit Hawaii again in the future other than to participate in the Honolulu Marathon

Economic impact is calculated based on the Read Formula used by DBEDT. The total impacts amount to **\$100,070,000** (\$101,590,000) (\$108,890,000) in generated sales. For total direct, indirect and induced income **\$45.26 million** (\$47.75 million) (\$51.15 million) was generated. Finally, the direct, indirect and induced tax revenue generated the amounts of **\$4,441,203** (\$4,632,126) (\$3,719,743).

CONCLUSION

This study provides a market profile of tourists who participated in the Honolulu Marathon. In addition, this comparative study highlighted a number of the direct economic impacts those visitors have on Honolulu and the state of Hawaii. According to numerous studies and DBEDT (2006) of Hawaii, the Japanese traveler is the most sought after traveler because Japanese visitors are the highest-spending tourists on Oahu.

The increase in spending among Japanese tourists can be partially explained by their propensity to purchase *omiyage*, the Japanese custom of buying

small gifts for family and friends, as well as *kinen*, purchasing souvenirs which serve to legitimize and commemorate an individual's visit to a tourist destination. With close to one half of the Japanese participants in the study stating that this was their first Honolulu Marathon, the amount of dollars or Yen spent on *omiyage* and *kinen* is extremely beneficial for the local stores and the sales tax of Hawaii. Due to the high amount of dollars or Yen spent per day by Japanese tourists, an event such as the Honolulu Marathon that can consistently attract a significant number of Japanese tourists, especially during a typically slow tourism period.

Ideally, profiles of tourists who participate in the Honolulu Marathon would be performed on a yearly basis so that changes and trends in the visitor profile could be analyzed and marketing strategies could be adjusted accordingly. Sport tourism, specifically the Honolulu Marathon, has the potential to attract incremental visitors, increase employment, and contribute positively to the area's economy. In addition to the direct economic benefits of the Honolulu Marathon, the event will significantly improve international awareness of Hawaii as a sport tourism destination.

With over half of the state's tourism marketing dollars used to attract new tourists. Of the first time visitors who were participants in the Honolulu Marathon, over 90% stated that they are considering returning to Hawaii as tourists other than participating in the Honolulu Marathon. Therefore, the Honolulu Marathon as a sport tourism-marketing event has been very effective. However, Hawaii should also consider expanding its sports tourism market with other amateur sporting events, such as bicycling competitions, swimming events, and other running events, with almost two-thirds stating (for all three years) that if such

events were to be offered, they would return to participate.

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LEADERSHIP AND ORGANIZATIONAL SUCCESS: AN EXAMINATION OF THE TRAIT, SKILLS, AND TRANSFORMATIONAL APPROACHES

Jacqueline Awadzi Calloway and Winston Awadzi

Charismatic, intelligent, outgoing, innovative, driven, and insightful are all words that are used to describe leaders. Even the common person can name three or four qualities of leaders and provide names such as Martin King, Jr., Lee Iacocca, Bill Gates and Henry Ford as examples. However, ask for a definition of leadership and an explanation of what makes a person a great leader, the answers are varied and contradictory. This is where the discussion truly begins.

Keywords: Leadership, leadership traits, Leadership habits, transformational leadership

INTRODUCTION

There exists a plethora of literature devoted to defining and isolating the key characteristics, traits and habits of great leaders. Likewise, numerous ideas and models abound for creation of “roadmap” to transform an ordinary person into a great leader. Of these models, the most interesting and influential are the trait approach, skills approach and the transformational leadership approach. Each of these approaches offer a unique examination of leadership and the “tools” needed to be a great leader. The goal of the paper however, is not to look at the application of leadership best practices or provide tools for becoming a great leader. Rather,

this paper will focus on examining leadership theories from a historical and modern perspective. Specifically this paper will: explore definitions of leadership; discuss the importance of leadership; compare and contrast the trait, skills and transformation leadership models; analyze the development and effectiveness of each model; evaluate the impact of other models on the selected models; and explore future leadership models.

DEFINING LEADERSHIP

Leadership is one of the most discussed and debated topics in management. According to Zornada (2005), “success in many arenas, whether it be business, military, politics or activism, is attributed to good leadership. Similarly failure or underperformance is also readily attributed to poor leadership” (p 1). During the past fifty years, scholars have conducted numerous studies on the topic of leadership in the hopes of

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discovering what makes a great leader and definitions of the term leadership are abundant (George, Sim, McLean & Mayer, 2007).

The American Heritage Dictionary (2007) defines leadership as the position or office of a leader, the capacity or ability to lead and provide guidance or direction. Kenneth Boulding in *The Image: Knowledge in Life and Society* offers a slightly different definition of leadership. Boulding (1956) stated, "Leadership is a process by which a person influences others to accomplish an objective and directs the organization in a way that makes it more cohesive and coherent" (p). Northouse (2004) offered his perspective of leadership. He defines leadership as "an influence process that assists groups of individuals toward goal attainment" (p 11). The volume and variety of leadership definitions adds confusion and controversy to the topic. Barker (2001) attempted to diffuse this situation by explaining the importance of consistent definitions in leadership study. He noted, "Definitions are somewhat arbitrary, and controversies about the best way to define leadership usually cause confusion and animosity rather than providing new insights into the nature of the process (p 476).

IMPORTANCE OF LEADERSHIP

Regardless of the leadership definition utilized in the discussion, the pivotal role of leaders in organizations is without dispute. Dave George as quoted in Capella OM8101 Leadership course notes, "A leader's role is to raise people's aspirations for what they can become and release their energies so they will try to get there" (Unit 4). Leaders in essence "rally the troops" and make possible the achievement of corporate goals and objectives. Leaders set the tone for the organization and their actions can

ultimately mean the difference between success and failure. Many scholars have noted that leaders are to organizations as organizations are to society. Scott (2003) referred to the development of organizations as "the principle mechanism by which, in a highly differentiated society, it is possible to get things done, to achieve goals beyond the reach of the individual" (p 3). The role of organizational leaders in our society is of paramount importance, as is an understanding of what transforms an ordinary person into a great leader.

HISTORICAL LEADERSHIP MODELS

Early studies in leadership theory centered on the identification of the personality traits of individuals who were perceived by others to be leaders (Smith & Foti, 1998). This was the basis for the "great man" theory espoused by Thomas Carlyle, a 19th century philosopher and historian (Stambler, 2006). Carlyle commented, "The history of the world is but the biography of great men" (Grossman, 2006). He pointed to men such as Churchill, Mussolini, and Roosevelt to support his case. Early studies focused on correlating personality traits and leadership effectiveness (Burke, 1979). However, these studies were conducted with people who were already great leaders often aristocracy. This led to the thought that leadership was tied to breeding and lineage. These theories often portray leaders as heroic, mythical, and predestined. In addition, they were gifted with mastery and control over political and social situations (Stambler, 2006). Carlyle's arch opponent in this area of study, Leo Tolstoy (1869) used his novel *War and Peace* to state his case and assert that heroic power is not an essential attribute. He believed that leaders possess only a small degree of personal mastery and are subject to

greater individual constraints (Stambler, 2006). Although there were many scholars who debated and clashed over the powers and abilities of leaders, these two are the most noteworthy. Their models of leadership power based on traits is an important link in the long established tradition of “born leaders” (Grossmann, 2006 and Stambler, 2006).

This dependency and single-minded focus on traits caused historical leadership studies to be deemed antiquated and biased (Barker, 2001). Barker (2001) asserted that “old theories of leadership, management, and administration are contained within the Newtonian language and logical positivism of the old physical sciences that are not consistent with new ideas about the nature of reality and life” (p 469). Modern day scholars believe that new thinking in leadership demands that old theories be reexamined and challenged to reflect societal changes, such as the widespread use of the Internet, global diversity of organizations, increased competition, evolution of business technology, and the increased use of teams in organizations. This criticism has led to an expansion of leadership theories, particularly in the area of leader-centered models.

LEADER-CENTERED MODELS

Leader-centered models focus on the leader as a micro-system unto his or herself, and strive to examine and explain the nature of the leader (Barker, 2001). These models center on the traits, actions and behavior of the leader. Early research in this area assumed that if these mystery traits could be identified, and found to exist in others, then they too, by possessing these traits, could become leaders. Both the skill and trait approaches are examples of leader-centered models. However, these

approaches are quite different, and where they differ is in their classification of the leader attributes. To expose these differences, let us look first at the trait approach.

Trait Approach

As one of the oldest attempt to study leadership, the trait approach has a strong foundation in historical theories of “great men” such as Lincoln, Gandhi and Napoleon. In fact, the trait theory developed as an out-sprout of the “great man” theory. Simply stated, the trait theory postulates that people are born with innate traits and attributes which predestine the ability to become a great leader (Northouse, 2004 and Stodgill, 1974).

Early scholars such as Stodgill, Mann, Lord Kirkpatrick and Locke conducted numerous studies centered on identifying and capturing these traits in order to recognize great leaders. Rooted in the assumptions that (1) people are born with inherited traits, (2) some traits are more particularly suited to leadership and that (3) the people who make great leaders possess the right combination of these traits the trait theory was heralded as the yardstick of leadership theory. Although a useful tool for examining people already in leadership positions, the trait approach was highly scrutinized for its usefulness as a predictive tool. Controversy centered around identifying the “magic list” of leader-required traits and the lack of consideration for the impact of situations on a leader’s ability to perform (Northouse, 2004). These discrepancies led Stodgill, as quoted in Northouse (2004), to the conclusion that “it is difficult to isolate a set of traits that are characteristic of leaders without factoring situational effects into the equation as well” (p 23). These shortcomings lead to the development of

other leadership models such as the skills approach.

Skills Approach

Although a leader-centered approach, the skills approach differs from the trait approach in the manner in which it handles the concept of innate skills and attributes of leaders. The skills approach focuses on the competencies of leaders. It postulates that effective leadership is based on core components and that if this skill-set could be identified, a leadership development program could be created and used to teach others to be leaders (Zornada, 2005).

Based on the assumption that leaders are made, rather than born, this theory emphasizes that successful leadership is based on definable, learnable behavior (Northouse, 2004). As a result, the skills approach is a behavioral leadership theory, which

focuses on what leaders actually do. This theory assumes that if success can be defined in terms of tangible actions, then it should be relatively easy to duplicate, and people can easily be trained to be leaders. This learned ability of leadership is a huge leap from the innate attribute assumption of the trait approach.

Zornada (2005) contends that little research has been conducted to observe leaders at work in order to identify this leadership skill-set. In fact, he cites only three studies, which critically examine and identify what good leaders actually do. Research conducted by Zornada (2005) shows that how good leaders behave, act and work, when compared with poor leaders confirms that good leaders do possess a core leadership skill-set, which sets them apart. Zornada's research identifies the following characteristics of good and poor leaders.

Good leaders	Poor leaders
Extremely strong sense of self-awareness	Poor self-awareness
Readily adapted behavior	Stuck to one (tried and tested) approach
Willingly sought assistance in responding to situations of weakness	Went their own way
Always looking to develop themselves	Responded negatively to self-development
Under-rated themselves	Over-rated themselves

Other researches in this area such as Northouse identified other skill-sets, which are important to good leadership. Northouse (2004) states that effective leadership is based on five core components: competencies, individual attributes, leadership outcomes, career experiences, and environmental influences. This disparity symbolizes the issues that researchers often encounter when studying the topic of leadership, which is that different studies lead to

different conclusions. Despite these differences, the main concept of skills based leadership remains – good leadership is based on actions and competencies rather than personality traits.

Comparison of Trait and Skills Approach

A critical comparison of the trait and skill leadership approaches, identify several difference and similarities. Both approaches center on the leader, and give

no consideration to the followers or their relationship to the leader and the organization as a whole. However, while the trait approach is rooted in the “great man” theory and is based on the assumption that people are born possessing the innate skills needed to be an effective leader, the trait approach emphasizes the actions of leaders based on a specific, identified set of skills that enable one to learn to become a good leader.

Each approach has served a valuable purpose in the study of leadership. While many researchers such as Burke (1979) consider the trait approach to be passé, they do recognize its importance to early leadership studies and its effectiveness in shaping one of the oldest leadership theories. The skill approach has maintained a strong role in the current study of leadership. While determining the correct skill set needed for good leadership is difficult, the idea that leadership can be learned has proven invaluable to the study of leadership and has spurred the development of other behavioral theories and ideas such as role

theory, and tools such as the managerial grid.

Influence of Other Theories

Role theory as studied by Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn and Snoek (1964) centers on the idea that within each work environment, there are defined activities and behaviors associated with a specific job. The correlation between leader’s traits and their action within the organization is influenced by how the leader envisions his or her role in the organization. These expectations induce how the leader will interact with followers and identify which skills are needed for that purpose (Shivers-Blackwell, 2004). However, leader actions and expected behaviors are often impeded by conflict, organizational culture, internal pressure and unclear expectations (Shivers-Blackwell, 2004).

The Managerial Grid, presented by Blake and Mouton in the 1960s, is a tool, which can help leaders, create a balance between task (activities) and their behavior toward followers.

Concern for People	High	Country Club Management		Team Management
	Medium		Middle of the road Management	
	Low	Impoverished Management		Authority-compliance
		Low	Medium	High
Concern for Production (Task)				

Managerial Grid, Recreated from *Leadership Theory and Practice* (p 70) by Peter G. Northouse

This grid correlates the type of leadership and the leaders concern for task versus people. For example, the middle of the road management has a weak balance between people and work,

while the impoverished management is a lazy approach, which avoids work. Although commonly part of the style approach to leadership, this grid has useful applications across many theoretical areas in building relationships

between leader and follower (Northouse, 2004).

RELATIONSHIP THEORIES

While leader-centered models focus solely on the leader, relationship theories center on building a relationship between leader and follower. These models include transformational and transactional leadership. Transformational leadership focuses on elevating both the leader and the follower to a higher level of motivation and morality, while transactional leadership focuses on the exchange between leader and follower (Northouse, 2004). In this section, we shall explore transformational leadership, its antithesis pseudo-transformational leadership, and conduct a comparative analysis of transformational and transactional leadership.

Transformational Leadership

Transformational leaders are active leaders who possess the distinct characteristics of charisma, inspiration, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Bryant, 2003). Charisma as defined by Weber (1974) as quoted in Northouse (2004) is “a special personality characteristic that gives a person superhuman or exceptional powers and is reserved for a few, is of divine origin, and results in the person being treated as a leader” (Northouse, 2004, p. 171). Inspiration refers to a leader’s ability to motivate and move others to action. Intellectual stimulation refers to the leader’s ability to engage followers in the thought processes needed to derive solutions and solve problems (Bryant, 2003). Lastly, individual consideration is the special attention a leader pays to each follower through encouragement and genuine

concern for his or her well-being (Bryant, 2003).

As Northouse (2004), noted, “Although the transformational leader plays a pivotal role in precipitating change, followers, and leaders are inextricably bound together in the transformational process” (p 170). This area of leadership is a new part of the leadership equation and current research is overflowing with articles and books describing the virtues of “transformational” leadership. Viewed as a radical new form of leadership transformational leadership focuses heavily on the ethics of the leader in their use of power to motivate and align followers toward a common goal.

James MacGregor Burns is credited with the introduction of this leadership model (Northouse, 2004). His early research was based on the assumptions that group collaboration yields better outcomes than working alone and that transformational leadership raises both the leader and follower to a higher moral and motivational level (Burns, 1978). He believed that leadership had a strong foundation in ethical and moral behavior and looked to leaders to set a positive example. Burns focused on linking the roles of leaders and followers. He offered examples such as Mohandas Gandhi as role models for transformational leadership (Northouse, 2004).

Other researchers in the area of transformational leadership included Bass (1985) who offered an expanded transformational leadership model. Bass (1985), as cited in Northouse (2004), argues that “transformational leadership motivates followers to do more than the expected by doing the following: (1) raising followers’ levels of consciousness about the importance and value of specified and idealized goals, (b) getting followers to transcend their own self-

interest for the sake of the team or organization, and (c) moving followers to address higher-level needs (p 173). Despite its potential ability to achieve greater results than other leadership methods, unscrupulous leaders may use transformational leadership to manipulate their followers (Homrig, n.d.). This inauthentic, deceptive form of leadership has been given the name “pseudo-transformational” by Bass and Steidlmeier (1999).

Ethical Issues and Pseudo-transformational Leadership

Based on their extensive research on the topic, Bass and Steidlmeier (1999) propose that the ethics of leadership rest upon three pillars. These pillars are: (1) the moral character of the leader; (2) the ethical legitimacy of the organization’s values and (3) the morality of the actions that leaders and followers engage in and collectively pursue. Each of these pillars emphasis and embraces the ideal of morality, which is an essential attribute for a leader in the study of transformational leadership. Unlike their false counterparts, transformational leaders possess charisma, the ability to motivate and intellectually stimulate followers and exhibit a true consideration and caring for their followers (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999).

Pseudo-transformational leaders on the other hand, often seek power and position at the expense of their followers. They manipulate and foster false trust by appearing to be a ‘company man’ while indulging their own self-interests (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999). Ethics, according to Spitzer (2000), “seem to be in a perpetual state of ambiguity” (page 4). As a result, lawsuits, lack of trust, corporate theft, and loss of integrity are becoming norms in the workplace (Spitzer, 2000). The prevalence of pseudo-transformational leaders is evidenced in corporate scandals

such as Enron, Martha Stewart, Tyco, United Nations, WorldCom, Fannie Mae, Qwest Communications, Rite Aid, and Health South, (Warren and Rosenthal, 2006).

Kubal, Baker, and Coleman (2006) in their article “Doing the Right Thing: How Today’s Leading Companies are Becoming More Ethical” stated “Ethics are a big deal for corporate America and not just for global competitors such as Enron, WorldCom, and Citigroup. Both small and large organizations daily face thorny moral dilemmas such as retention, promotion, compensation, and privacy” (Para 3). Such ethical issues, which are not directly related to leader misconduct, are critical to the success of the organization. Ethics and integrity issues must be addressed and resolved by senior leadership rather than by human resource (HR) professionals (Kubal et al, 2006).

Bass and Steidlmeier (1999) believed that “Fundamentally, the authentic transformational leader must forge a path of congruence of values and interests among stake holders, while avoiding the pseudo-transformational land mines of deceit, manipulation, self-aggrandizement and power abuse” (p 182). Despite its usefulness as a tool in the achievement of organizational and corporate goals, transformational leadership must be used cautiously and ethically.

Comparison of Transformational and Transactional Leadership

Transformational leadership is often compared to transactional leadership. Both styles have strong philosophical bases, and ethical components (Bass and Steidlmeier, 1999). Unlike transformational leadership, which focuses on engaging and motivating followers to a higher level, transactional leadership centers

around the contingent exchange of rewards based on performance between leaders and followers (Shivers-Blackwell, 2004). Bass and Steidlmeier (1999) argue that transformational leadership is an enhancement rather than a substitute for transactional leadership. They assert that effective leadership is based on a blending of the two theories given that most leaders exhibit a combination of characteristics from both theories.

To be effect leaders need to balance their daily objectives, which are transactional with their desire to motivate and elevate their team, which is a transformational ideal. Leaders who are able to create a mixture of the two styles are able to achieve corporate results while creating an atmosphere of empowerment, teamwork, and growth (Northouse, 2004).

LEADERSHIP FOR THE FUTURE

As leadership theories have evolved, little has changed in terms of defining and understanding leadership. Barker (2001) commented, "Articles claiming to offer new perspectives [on leadership] generally do not show much deviation from convention" (p 475). Despite his viewpoint, leadership in this new world global economy will require a new context for leadership. A new framework of leadership theories is needed which builds upon the core attributes of ethics and innovation that future leaders will need in order to be successful.

Clemmer (1999) believes that the biggest obstacle leaders of the future must address is that of change. This change is evidenced in the advances in technology, fluctuations in the economy, the advancement of countries such as China, Japan and Mexico, the move away from hierarchical business structures in favor of more flexible virtual organizations and the increased focus on

working in teams. Clemmer (1999) deems the traits of authenticity, passion, commitment, spirit growth and energy as those essential to good leadership. He bases his assertion on the need for leaders to be well rounded.

Leading modern day leadership theorists, Kouzes and Posner (2002) assert that leadership is not the private reserve of charismatic men and women. Instead, it is a process and position that even ordinary people can aspire to and achieve. From an analysis of thousands of cases and surveys, the team developed a model of leadership that consists of what they call The Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership® and a survey tool called the Leadership Practices Inventory. These practices consist of (1) modeling the way, (2) inspire a shared vision, (3) challenge the process, (4) enabling others to act and (5) encouraging the heart.

While each of the theorists above focus solely on the leader, and what he or she should be doing, the most noted advance in the study of leadership is the recognition of the role of the individual. Winston (1997) asserted, "The new role of leadership is to establish and sustain the organization's proactive, innovative culture. This task requires leaders who can develop an atmosphere of trust and mutual support with their followers so they can identify potential problems before they become crises" (p 6). Leaders of the future will face incredible challenges. They will be tasked with achieving results, while operating within established ethical boundaries. They will need to motivate and encourage their followers. Obviously transformational leadership theory, with its strong focus on ethics and motivation will be a strong role in shaping organizations of the future.

Leaders will also have to find balance and a means of rejuvenating

themselves (as well as their team) in order to face these tasks. Loehr and Schwartz (2000) observed that leaders expect themselves and their employees to exhibit sustained high performance in times of extreme pressure and organizational turbulence. Such a level of performance cannot be accomplished without bringing mind, body and spirit into peak condition (Loehr and Schwartz, 2000).

Russ Moxley, as quoted in Ken Shelton (2000) wrote, "It may seem strange to consider spirit as something connected to work. We tend to compartmentalize life. Work is just work, a way to earn a living, and we think of spirit as something we attend to outside of work" (page 1). The question of whether or not work is the proper place to address such issues is of growing importance in a society in which more time is spent at work than at home (Shelton, 2000). Research continually highlights the importance of achieving the work-life balance and the need for a unified mind, body and spirit.

Leadership of the future will be exciting and challenging and only a few will be successful in meeting these demands. Lipp (1999) suggested that the leaders who will be successful are those who can establish a bond with their followers and use charisma to persuade followers to do things they would rather not. Only time will tell which of these leadership theories will prove most effective in the future.

CONCLUSION

The area of leadership is complex, and intriguing. It has been studied for hundreds of years, and still debate rages as to which theories and models are most useful. Theorists such as Carlyle, Locke, Bass, Burns, Kouzes, and Posner have all tried to provide insight into this mysterious topic. As economic and

political fluctuations, global technology and scarcity of nature resources drive change in the business, the need for leaders who are ethical and innovative will be of paramount importance. Many researchers have espoused theories on how to find, train and prepare these future leaders. Whether the trait theory of born leadership, the skills theory of learned leadership or the transformation theory of ethics and motivation will prove the most useful, only time and additional research will uncover the answer. What is certain is that "Leaders do not command, control, direct, wield clubs, or shout orders. They generate commitment, not compliance. They enable, empower, trust, and respect--and then get out of the way and let people get results" (Winston, 1997, p 8). This is the meaning of true leadership.

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ASSURANCE OF LEARNING OF HOSPITALITY AND TOURISM MANAGEMENT PROGRAMS: A PILOT TEST

Cynthia R. Mayo and Clorice Thomas-Haysbert

Hospitality and tourism management programs are required to perform assessments to assure learning and to evaluate program effectiveness that facilitate improvement. The purposes of this study were: 1) to identify the extent to which programs already assess program goals and 2) to learn strategies used by directors of hospitality and tourism management programs to assess program goals. A survey instrument with Likert-type scales was used to gather information from program administrators. A total of 47 (30 %) of the program directors responded to the survey. Thirty-two or 68 % of the respondents indicated that assessment is mandated by their universities, and 19 or 59 % believed that the present strategies used, measure program effectiveness. The majority of the respondents indicated that several strategies are used to assess program effectiveness. Twenty or 63 % of the respondents use a capstone course, whereas, all respondents who administer assessments used some type of examination. Findings may provide useful information as programs meet the new criterion of program assessment to assure learning.

Keywords: Hospitality education, tourism education, assurance of learning

INTRODUCTION

Hospitality and tourism management (HTM) education program administrators and faculty strive to provide high-quality instruction and valuable experiences to students relevant

to the hospitality and tourism management industry. Program assessment is one means of evaluating the effectiveness of programs and enhancing instructional experiences. Additionally, the current challenges of declining state support require continuous planning and the delivery of quality education that is verifiable and relevant to the many facets of the industry (Gardiner, 1989; Hu & Wei, 2006). Over the past decade, institutions of higher education have placed greater attention on curriculum evaluation, especially for programs seeking

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accreditation and programs that are relatively new. Regional accreditation organizations, such as the Southern Association of Colleges and Universities of the South (SACS), one of six regional groups that accredit colleges and universities, are requiring that schools develop more objective ways of measuring and assuring student learning (Golden, 2006). are being met and provide information to make changes that improve program effectiveness. The purposes of this study were to assess if program administrators are assessing program goals and if so, what strategies are currently being used?

Literature Review

The literature review focuses on the components of assessments, as research on assessment strategies used by hospitality and tourism management programs were limited. Despite our best efforts, no research study related to assurance of learning, using program goals within the last five years relating to hospitality and tourism management programs was identified. Therefore, concepts and principles related to assessment and research studies from other disciplines are presented in the literature review.

Hospitality and tourism management administrators have traditionally been required to conduct self-studies to evaluate program effectiveness and some have excellent curriculum evaluation practices that include extensive assessment activities. This is important because objective assessments identify needed changes and progress toward the program's mission and goals (AACSB, 1993). The accreditation by ACPHA (Accrediting Commission for Programs in Hospitality Administration) requires program faculty and administrators to assess

programs using seven key factors related to: program content, operation and utilization of resources (mission and objectives), administration and governance, curriculum, faculty, physical and financial resources, library resources and student services.

Many program administrators have begun to seek ways to assess programs to improve the quality of students' education, using data gathered from classroom tests, classroom surveys, research that identifies competencies needed by students, and feedback by alumni (Chonko & Caballero, 1991). As the need of the industry changes, traditional techniques become ineffective and the need to assess programs becomes a critical requirement of program success (El-Khawas, 1998). The development of assessment strategies must address two critical questions: What do the students know and what are the students able to do by the end of each semester and upon graduation? In order to accomplish successful assessment goals, there must be an analysis of current strategies and the development of objective ways to assess learning is needed.

The world has become more guests centered, technology driven and turbulent. World changes serve as the driver in curriculum development. Additionally a system of continuous monitoring of programs is always essential to detect and adjust for needed changes (Pond, 2005).

Hospitality and tourism management courses are quantitatively assessed, but the assessments do not always include the results that indicate assurance of learning, based on program goals. A formal objective process to assess program learning goals is a clear and essential challenge. Due to the

increased demands of accrediting bodies, funding organizations and globalization, concrete strategies with relevant data must be developed and implemented for survival. Based on a literature review, little information was available to determine current methods used by hospitality and tourism management administrators to assess program outcomes.

Zhu and McFarland (2005) proposed a conceptual framework for measuring learning accomplishments that start as discussions with internal and external constituents, which lead to learning expectations, program mission, goals, outcomes and direct measures of learning. The key issues of the framework are what needs to be assessed and the method to measure outcomes. Once the types of assessments are identified and tested, the design of a sound system would provide the recognition that improvements are needed in the learning process. The assessment data must be reflected in the curriculum planning component to enhance learning and to build an assessment culture that produces positive results (AACSB, 2006).

Additionally, reform movements dictate greater quantitative proof to justify the high cost of a college education. Some argue that assessment may be the primary responsibility of accrediting agencies (McDaniel, 2006). Also, administrators must cope with the fact that, as dollars shrink for program support, more information is needed to assess the worth and benefit of offering programs that may not be developing managers and leaders who add value to an organization (Hu and Wei, 2006). Administrators must be able to document that program goals and results

Outcomes' assessment is defined as a method to measure if students have the knowledge, skills and values that graduates should possess. This shows that documentation indicates that program goals and objectives have been met and can be applied in ever-changing "real-life" situations. Processes used as outcomes' assessments of learning have been used for many years, especially for grades K-12, but were not emphasized for colleges and universities. Still do assessments truly measure what was taught or have there been processes developed that measure and serve as an assurance of meeting the program goals and objectives? The answer to both of these questions is probably no (Allen, 2004). From a five-year literature review of assessment methods used, in general, the focus has been placed on students assessment of learning, measuring knowledge possession and practical performance, including students' attitudes and not program assessments (Allen, 2004). Other indirect measures include student, graduate and employer surveys.

Subjective data alone are not adequate to measure learning, guide programmatic improvements or be used as a basis for hospitality and tourism management instruction (Warner, 2003). A review of studies revealed that the number of people who are actually engaged in measuring student learning, especially hospitality programs is minimal. Most studies have been conducted related to the identification of core competencies, which should serve to develop program goals and objectives and assessments (Mayo & Thomas-Haysbert, 2005). Little evidence supports that the development of goals and objectives assures student learning (Poikela, 2004). Poikela ascertains that

professors should establish competency outcomes by realizing the expectations and perceptions of students. This requires sustainable planning of instruction and teaching. Due to the increased impetus to assess learning, two key elements serve as hindrances to the process (AACSB, 2003). One is many faculty members resist student assessments because they do not realize the value, or they do not wish to learn how to assess learning and secondly, the push by politicians to assess students using standardized tests has been emphasized ((Allen, 2004).

Other reasons given for failure to develop assessment strategies include assessment is time consuming and assessments could be used to punish the faculty. Some faculty members believe that developing assessment strategies divert precious time from what they view as their principal activities, which are teaching, research and community service (Poikela, 2004). Yet, assessments will save faculty time. It is through assessment that professors find out that a concept has not been mastered, it would be an indication that the concept must be taught in a different way, or more practice is needed (Banta 2005).

The idea that assessment is not something professors know how to do is the most important reason faculty members resist assessment. Evaluation is considered the most difficult form of learning, based on Bloom's Taxonomy of the cognitive domain. By the model, human beings learn through a series of six progressively more complex steps: knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation. Learning outcomes are specific and are not easy to develop (Bloom, 1956). Many faculty members are not trained in

developing reliable sources of assessments and how to interpret results (Grolund, 1970). University administrators must provide the training, so that the task becomes the norm rather than the exception.

Types of Learning Outcomes to Consider

Grolund (1970) provided eight types of outcomes assessment lists, which are based on Bloom's Taxonomy. They include knowledge, application, thinking skills, general skills, attitudes, interests, appreciation and adjustments. Items included as knowledge are terminology, facts, concepts, principles, methods and procedures. Knowledge is the ability to remember previously learned materials. This may involve the recall of a wide range of material, from facts to complete theories. It is the lowest level of learning outcomes in the cognitive domain. Items related to application include information and methods and procedures related to problem solving skills. It also includes thinking skills: critical thinking and scientific thinking. These components are included as general laboratory, performance, communication and social skills. Included also are: attitudes and values.

Assessment can take place at the course level provided that components of the program goals and objectives are included at the general education level. Direct evidence of student learning include: course-embedded measures, comprehensive examinations, and performance measures, such as research papers, projects and presentations, journals, logs, student self-assessments, pre and post tests and portfolios. Under general education, direct evidence of student learning include: multiple points: beginning, middle and end, rising junior

tests, peer exams (GRE, LSAT, GMAT, and MCAT), student portfolios, faculty-developed examinations, and exit interviews (Palomba and Banta, 1999). Some indirect methods include student evaluations, self-reported measures, and satisfaction surveys at entry, middle and immediately before graduation.

Some assessment measures currently used do not indicate student learning. They include faculty publications (unless students are involved), courses selected or elected by students, faculty/student ratios, percentage of students who study abroad, enrollment trends, percentage of students who graduate within five years, diversity of student body and satisfaction surveys (Banta, 2005). These measures are typically used for promotion and tenure purposes and have no relevance to student achievement.

Learning Concepts and Strategies

Learning describes the outcomes of educational processes in terms of knowledge and skills developed. Development of goals and objectives for hospitality and tourism management programs is the initial step in developing assessment strategies; however, there is little evidence that the act of establishing outcomes by itself affects student achievement (Pandit, 2006). Once goals are established, multiple measures must be developed which are aligned with goals. Once program goals are determined in terms of required knowledge and skills, they are aligned with curricula, the identification of instruments and measures to assess learning must be decided. The collection, analyzing and dissemination of the information for continuous improvement complete the process that is recycled each year (AACSB, 2007).

In a study conducted by Duke and Reese (1995), their objective was to describe part of an evolving process that uses continuing participation and feedback from students and alumni to detect shifts in educational needs. Current evaluation techniques for the marketing department were examined and compared along with a special survey of alumni. The results were used to indicate changes needed not only in the curriculum, but also in information-gathering procedures (Duke and Reese, 1995). The researchers also evaluated program assessments that centered primarily on classroom evaluations from continuing students. The authors concluded that the assessments were good for operational purposes, but were not appropriate for longer term planning, which must include the needs of employers.

Using more than one form of assessment, students must be able to demonstrate their various abilities. Multiple assessments provide students with several opportunities to demonstrate their various abilities. Assessments should measure student performance in both qualitative and quantitative measures of achievement (McDaniel, 2006, AACSB, 2007).

Assessments should be developed to include an analysis of learning, processes, standardized and teacher-made tests, norm criterion referenced tests and teacher observation of abilities, using rubrics that specify evaluation criteria. The data must be analyzed to improve instruction, gain instructional coherence, provide feedback, and develop the common understanding of what quality performance is and how it is being achieved to promote continuous improvement (McDaniel, 2006).

Continuous improvement requires hospitality and tourism management program administrators to gather, analyze and use information about programs and make better decisions about changes and how to institutionalize changes. The data must be used to facilitate a clear understanding of deficiencies that address the following topics:

- Identify the root causes of weaknesses, so that they are solved.
- Provide information to eliminate ineffective practices.
- Ensure the efficient use of allocated dollars.
- Demonstrate that program goals and objectives are being implemented.
- Continuously improve all aspects of the learning organization.
- Predict and ensure successes with clear answers to the following questions: What do faculties expect students to know and be able to do (goals, outcomes, direct measures of the program) with the knowledge and skills they acquire by the time they leave school (Banta, 2005)?

In a study conducted by Boucher (1999), academic administrators of all 148 accredited and 42 developing physical therapist education programs identified which of 11 criteria related to the accreditation standards they currently used to assess program goals. Academic administrators were asked to identify the frequency and type of assessments performed on items representing 11 criteria. Information regarding frequency

was used to determine whether an assessment was performed. The criteria included the extent and type of assessment activities, documentation procedures (formal--in accordance with a policy and procedure or written guidelines, or informal--conducted more casually, such as faculty meetings or discussions), how academic administrators perceive the 11 criteria to be in contributing to the effectiveness of the program, admission criteria, clinical experiences and faculty. The respondents rated the survey questions as important or not important or based on ratings, ranging from one to four (Boucher, 1999). The results of this study indicated that programs were being assessed based on the accreditation criteria.

Methodology

This research was developed as an exploratory project, since little research has been conducted for hospitality programs. The authors of this research developed a survey to solicit methods of assessments used for hospitality and tourism management programs at four-year institutions. There were questions related to the demographics of the schools and the respondents. The data gathered were used to identify if program assessments were conducted and to determine strategies currently used to assess program goals.

The survey was conducted during January 2006 to determine if and what outcome assessment strategies are used to evaluate hospitality and tourism management program goals. The survey was sent using Zommerang, an internet survey company, to directors/program managers of hospitality and tourism management programs as listed on the CHRIE data base as of December 2005.

The survey instrument was reviewed for content validity by a panel of five hospitality educators, who were selected for their expertise in program development and accreditation processes. Based on the panel's assessment, changes were made to clarify instructions and define response options.

Of all of the members listed on the CHRIE data base, 157 were identified as directors or program managers of hospitality and tourism management programs in the United States. Eleven questions on the survey were designed to elicit responses related to if and what strategies were currently used to measure program objectives and five questions related to demographics. The questions used to solicit responses are reported in Table 2. They were: Are hospitality and tourism management students assessed based on program goals? If the answer is yes, what are the methods used, with choices of course embedded, external/examinations/standardized tests. Is the program assessed using teacher made tests? If tests are used, what is the passing score. If assessment is done, is a capstone course used? List other methods of assessment that are used to assess program goals. The five demographic questions included were: Was the institution public or private? What year was the program started? Is there a published mission statement? Is the hospitality program accredited? What are the program enrollment and the rank of the person completing the survey?

The statements were redesigned to include eleven questions. SPSS statistical package version 13.01.01 was used to analyze responses. Descriptive statistics were computed using frequency

distributions and cross tabulations. The questionnaire was sent and re-sent during February 2006. Of the 157 questionnaires sent, 48 were submitted and 37 were usable, with a response rate of 24%. The surveys were resent to 12 directors' who partially completed it initially in 2006. Ten surveys were returned, giving a return number of 47, with a response rate of 30 %.

RESULTS

Demographics

The respondents included 58% males and 42% females. Forty or 85 % of the participants worked for public institutions, while seven or 15 % worked for private universities. Of the respondents, 38% were full time professors; 52 % were associate professors and 10% were lecturers.

Reported in Table I are the frequencies of responses to assessments of hospitality and tourism management programs. Based on the results, 68 percent of the respondents are mandated by their university to conduct outcomes' assessment of program goals. Eighty-three percent indicated that of the assessment techniques conducted by the program faculty, mostly are course embedded. Only 59 percent of the respondents think that the assessments measure program goals, while, 41 percent indicated that the assessments do not measure program goals. Fifty-nine percent of the respondents indicated that students learned what was planned, but there was no indication that the assessments used supported their belief.

Reported in Table 2, are the strategies used to assess program courses. The strategies included examinations--both externally and internally developed.

Statement	Response	Frequency	Percent
Is program or outcomes assessment mandated by your university?	Yes	32	68 %
	No	15	32 %
If NO, are program objectives assessed by the department/school?	Yes	5	33 %
	No	10	66 %
If YES, do you think that the assessment methods measure program competencies?	Yes	19	59 %
	No	13	41 %
Do you think that the assessment methods used determine if students have learned what was planned?	Yes	19	59 %
	No	24	24 %

Hospitality students are assessed to assure that program goals and objectives have been met using the following: Course Imbedded	Yes	26	83 %
	No	8	17 %
External Examinations/Standardized Examinations	Never	28	88 %
	Limited	3	9 %
	Always	1	1 %
Passing Score? 70		4	13 %
Competency program examination developed by faculty members	Never	11	34 %
	Limited	10	37 %
	Always	11	34 %
Passing Score? 70			
Is a capstone course used	Yes	20	63 %
	No	12	37 %
Is the institution public or private	Public	40	85 %
	Private	7	15 %
Is there a published mission statement for the program	Yes	27	57 %
	No	20	43 %
Is the hospitality program accredited by	ACPHA	8	17 %
	Other	4	9 %
	None	27	74 %

Only four of the 32 respondents that assess program goals used standardized external tests, with an average passing score of 70. Sixty-five percent of the respondents indicated that examinations are developed by the program faculty. Sixty-three percent of the respondents used a capstone course as the major assessment strategy to measure program objectives. Capstone courses used were cost control and strategic management. Internship presentations, interviews of previous graduates and their supervisors are also used. All of the private school program administrators indicated that they were mandated to conduct outcomes assessments by university administrators. This compared with 78% of public universities. ACPHA, the hospitality and tourism accrediting commission requires that all accredited schools have program assessment. Of the six ACPHA schools, one administrator indicated that assessment was not mandated by their university, but incorporated because of accreditation. Twelve school administrators reported that they were accredited by specialized accrediting bodies. Eight or seventeen percent of the respondents' programs were accredited by ACPHA, while 74% had no specialized accreditation: ACPHA nor AACSB (Association of Advance Collegiate Schools of Business).

LIMITATIONS

Respondents in this study were administrators of hospitality and tourism management programs. One-hundred and fifty-seven surveys were sent, 49 persons responded and 47 were included in the results. Some questions required subjective responses, such as yes or no. As an exploratory pilot study, more

participants are needed. The results however cannot be generalized to all hospitality and tourism management programs and two limitations should be acknowledged when discussing the results of the study.

First the response rate for the study was fair, but acceptable. The fair response rate is not a representative sample of the population. Other possible respondent bias may have occurred when preferred responses were given that may not be the actual practice.

Second, misinterpretation of the survey questions was a possibility. Respondents were asked to indicate whether they assessed program goals and some may have interpreted it to mean course goals and objectives.

Conclusions

The purposes of this research project were to determine if hospitality and tourism management programs assess program goals and if so, the strategies currently employed. Based on the responses, 88% were mandated to have program or outcome assessments. Methods used to measure outcomes included internal and external competency examinations, capstone courses, internship presentations, interviews with alumni and their supervisors. Using the conceptual framework suggested by Zhu and McFarland (2005), there needs to be a systematic process for developing mission, objectives and learning goals expectations. These goals and expectations will foster program learning goals that will determine curriculum design and will direct the learning process. The process will be evaluated by predetermined outcomes. The measurement of outcomes will determine changes to curriculum design.

With the increased emphasis on accreditation, the authors suggest there is a great need for a systematic model for measuring program outcomes that are based upon the needs of all stakeholders. This is an indication that program administrators are focusing on assessment of courses and not the program. The methods used to assess course objectives are not the same as assessing program objectives. The methods used to assess objectives may not meet the requirement of assessing program objectives. Respondents indicated that standardized teacher-made tests and capstone courses are the major techniques used. These are direct measures that will assist in measuring course goals.

Recommendations

Assessment of program goals and outcomes has become a necessity for hospitality and tourism management administrators to receive funding and to maintain competitiveness in providing relevant education and essential requisite skills for graduates. Assessments begin with the program's mission, goals and objectives and outcomes, which are translated into curriculum design that directs the learning process. Incorporating the Bloom's Taxonomy in developing critical thinking skills, course goals and outcomes would be an efficient way to develop courses progressively. The goals must be designed to include freshmen and sophomore courses that focus on knowledge and comprehension; junior and senior courses would be designed to focus on application, analysis and evaluation (McDaniel, Thomas. (2006).

The assessment process is measured and used to make continuous improvements. This also serves as a benchmark for growth and curriculum

revisions. Directors are encouraged to analyze current program mission, goals and objectives and the curriculum, design cumulative techniques (internal and external examinations, practical assessments and capstone courses), conducted yearly. A cutoff score for the examinations should be established, rubrics should be developed to evaluate practical assessments and the capstone course. Based on the outcomes of assessments, improvements must filter back into the curriculum redevelopment.

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STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF PRE-CHAPTER QUIZZES IN ACCOUNTING CLASSES

Bridget Anakwe

This research examined students' perceptions of pre-chapter quizzes, and the impact of studying on students' quiz performance. In this study, students who were enrolled in several accounting classes were given short "pre-chapter" quizzes on every new chapter prior to in-class discussion of the material contained in the chapter. Importantly the students revealed that the quizzes encouraged them to study the chapters ahead of them being discussed in class. Students also indicated that studying the chapters affected their quiz performance. They performed better on the quizzes when they had studied the chapters, than when they had not studied. The results suggest that reading ahead also increases students' comprehension of the chapters when they are eventually discussed in class. The findings also suggest a correlation between the number of minutes students studied and their quiz scores.

Keywords: Accounting classes, students' perceptions, quizzes, teaching learning

INTRODUCTION

Students' failure to read assigned materials prior to class is a strong predictor of non-participation in class (Karp and Yoels, 1976). Several prior studies have indicated that many students do not read assigned materials and thus are not well prepared for class. Motivating student preparedness for each class is seen as one of teaching's

greatest challenges. Burchfield and Sappington (2000) reported that their study of 910 students enrolled in psychology courses revealed a trend of non-compliance with reading assignments over a 16-year period (1981-1997). Their study revealed that during that interval, it became less and less probable that students would complete (or start) their assigned readings. On average, only about a third of the students had completed their text assignments on any given day. Similarly, Connor-Greene (2000) showed that 72% of the students in her sample reported that they never read their assignments by the due date.

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Failure to do homework, coming to class unprepared and declining to participate in classroom discussions, 'destructive resistance', are some factors that have been shown to adversely affect students' learning and achievement (Burroughs, Kearney, and Flax, 1989). The unprepared student is more likely to adopt the role of silent, uninvolved observer than the prepared student (Karp and Yoels, 1976). Some have recommended overcoming the problem of reading non-compliance by giving surprise quizzes (Burchfield and Sappington, 2000), and having students compose summaries of assigned articles (Carlenord, 1994).

This study examines students' perceptions of pre-chapter quizzes. It also examines the possible impact of pre-chapter quizzes on accounting students' decisions to read the chapter material prior to its discussion in class and the impact of studying on students' performance in class and on tests/examinations.

LITERATURE REVIEW

There is extensive research on strategies to motivate students to study assigned material prior to coming to class. Many of these studies have looked at the use of both announced and unannounced quizzes as motivators. Some researchers have recommended giving announced/unannounced quizzes before the material is covered in class, while others prefer the use of quizzes after the material has been covered in class.

Several studies have indicated that quizzes lead to better student preparedness and class attendance. Wilder and Flood (2001), indicated that random extra credit quizzes were

associated with better student class attendance and preparation and course reading between examinations. Hovell, Williams and Semb (2001), Lloyd, et al. (1975) and Williams (1975) all showed that there was high class attendance when grade related contingencies, such as quizzes, were in effect. Data showed student attendance during optional lectures were lower than attendance for quiz meetings. Thorne (2000) indicates that unannounced extra credit exercises encouraged both student class attendance and pre-class preparation. Marchant (2002), suggested that scheduled quizzes are a valid tool for improving studying and learning among psychology students. Kouyoumdjian (2004), indicated that unannounced quizzes influenced self reported motivation by students to attend class and study regularly. Sporer (2001), observed that extra credit quizzes led to regular studying, and student attendance on quiz days were observed to be high. Connor-Greene (2000), noted that daily essay quizzes resulted in an increase in the proportion of students in psychology classes who read before class. Solomon (1979), postulated that quizzes encouraged students to read the material prior to the lectures, so that comprehension of the lecture material was enhanced.

Results in Mawhinney, et al. (1971), suggested that more frequent testing is associated with more consistent study patterns by students than longer intervals testing schedules. It was also observed in Anderson (1984), that students reported studying more during the weeks that they were being quizzed regularly than during the weeks that they were not quizzed. Ruscio (2001), showed that frequently administered random quizzes that

accounted for 15% of the course grade increased students' reading compliance. Students' reading compliance was determined by the percentage of students that passed the quizzes. Marcell (2005), found that even when the testing was administered online, the quizzes were associated with increases in both the level of student participation and the number of students who reported that they came to class having read the assigned material. The level of student participation, measured by the number of student questions and comments, also increased.

Scheduled quizzes are also associated with reduced student procrastination in a personalized instruction course, Wesp (1986). Tuckman (1998), used unannounced "spot quizzes" as instructional intervention to motivate procrastinators to study continually over an entire class. At the time of the spot quiz, no instruction had been given on the chapter covered by the quiz.

Many other studies have inferred that more frequent quizzing leads to better student performance. Fitch, Drucker, Norton (1951), found that students who had weekly quizzes were more likely to attend voluntary discussion groups and earn higher grades in the class. Townsend and Wheatley (1975), found that students who took short daily quizzes had higher course grades than students who took longer or less frequent quizzes. Maki and Maki (2001), observed that scheduled quizzes led to higher performance on exams. It was also indicated in Sporer (2001), that extra credit quizzes, administered after the discussion of chapter material, appeared to improve students' test scores.

Students also felt that they got better grades on the examinations because of the quizzes. Most students thought the use of unannounced quizzes was a good idea. In Azorlosa and Renner (2006), students reported that quizzes caused them to study more and that they felt better prepared for examinations. Graham (1999), reported that students believed that quizzes helped motivate them to study more.

The previous studies discussed above have primarily studied the use of quizzes to motivate students registered in psychology or other introductory science courses. This study differs from prior work in that it examines the use of announced pre-chapter quizzes to motivate students registered in accounting classes to read assigned chapter materials before they are discussed in class. It also examines students' perceptions of pre-chapter tests and the possible impact of studying on their performance on the quizzes. It also examines the use of pre-chapter test scores as predictors of students' test scores.

METHODOLOGY

Sample

Four accounting classes at a small north-eastern university were utilized in this study. The participants were 54 of the 56 students who had enrolled in and completed any of four specific undergraduate accounting classes at the university in the fall of 2006. The total student respondents were 56% male and 44% female. Thirty-nine percent of the participants were sophomores, 33% juniors and 28% seniors. There were no freshmen registered in any of the classes. The students in this study were primarily

from the college of business. Twenty-nine of the respondents identified themselves as accounting majors. Of the remaining 25 non-accounting majors, only four students were from outside the college of business.

The first course, Accounting I, an introductory accounting class is required of all the students in the college of business and the two sections in the study had a total of 27 respondents. The second course, Accounting II is a continuation of Accounting I and is required of accounting majors/minors only and it had 10 student respondents. The third course, Intermediate Accounting I, is also required of all accounting majors/minors and there were 17 respondents. One of the three courses used in this study (Accounting I) had two sections, hence there were a total of four classes. The same professor taught all the classes used in the study.

RESEARCH DESIGN

Each class met for one hour and fifteen minutes each Tuesday and Thursday for fifteen weeks. On the first day of class, students were informed that there would be a quiz prior to the beginning of every chapter, 'pre-chapter quiz'. These quizzes counted as extra credit and were only for students in attendance; therefore there were no make-ups for any missed quizzes. This policy was also clearly stated in the course syllabi as such, "*The nature of the course content is such that study before each class meeting is essential. There will be short in-class quiz on every new chapter, prior to the introduction of the material in that chapter. Students are expected to have read the chapter before it is discussed in class. In-class quizzes are for students in attendance only, and*

there will be no make-up for any quiz you missed. All quiz scores will count as extra credit points."

Students in three classes, Accounting II and the two sections of Accounting I covered nine chapters, and so, they were given nine pre-chapter quizzes. Ten pre-chapter quizzes were administered to the Intermediate Accounting I students. While the dates for the pre-chapter quizzes were not announced explicitly, students were always informed whenever a chapter was finished. Thus, the students knew that there would be a pre-chapter quiz given at the beginning of the next class. All the pre-chapter quizzes were administered at the beginning of class the day a new chapter was introduced and prior to the discussion of the material in that chapter. Each quiz covered accounting concepts, terms and definitions from that chapter and comprised 10 multiple-choice and/or true/false questions selected from the publishers' textbooks. The pre-chapter quiz questions did not require any calculations to be performed; each question was worth one point, and students were allowed 10 minutes to answer all the questions. The quizzes were graded and returned to the students during the next class period. A test was administered after every two chapters, and a total of four tests were given in each of the classes during the semester.

At the end of the semester a 16-item questionnaire was administered to students, who were instructed to complete the questionnaire anonymously. They were further instructed to respond honestly, and were assured that their answers would have no impact on their final grade in the course. The students in the study voluntarily rated statements about their perceptions

of the pre-chapter quizzes, the influences that the quizzes had on their study behavior, how often they studied chapter material prior to and after its introduction in class, and the perceived impact of studying on their quiz scores.

The respondents were asked to identify their current grade in the class. Nineteen percent of the students identified themselves as ‘A’ students, another 19 percent said they were ‘B’ students, 33 percent were ‘C’ students, 20 percent identified themselves as ‘D’ students and 4 percent were ‘F’ students.

The remaining 5 percent of the students did not reveal their current grade in the class.

RESULTS

The majority of the students (54%) reported that they took at least 7 of the (9 to 10) extra credit pre-chapter quizzes that were administered during the semester, *Table 1*. All the students took at least one quiz.

Table 1: Number of Quizzes Taken

Quizzes Taken	Respondents	
	Number	Percentage
None	0	0%
1-3	4	7%
4-6	21	39%
7-10	29	54%

Many of the students reported average quiz scores of between 6-8 points out of a possible 10 points, *Table 2*. Fifty-five percent of accounting majors reported average scores of more than five points (out of a possible 10

points) on the extra credit quizzes, while 68 percent of non-accounting majors reported scores of more than five points. However, these results were not shown to be significant with a Pearson chi square value of 0.128.

Table 2: Average Quiz Score (by Majors)

Average Score	Respondents	
	Accounting Major	Non- Accounting Major
0-2	0%	0%
3-5	45%	32%
6-8	55%	68%
9-10	0%	0%

Table 3, shows that the results were vastly different for the test scores, where 73 percent of the accounting majors reported test grades of 31 or

above (out of a possible 50 points), while only 48 percent of the non-accounting majors reported scoring in that same range.

Table 3: Average Test Score (by Majors)

Average Score	Respondents	
	Accounting Major	Non- Accounting Major
0-10	0%	0%
11-20	3%	4%
21-30	24%	48%
31-40	63%	44%
41-50	10%	4%

Table 4 below, reveals that many students believed that the quizzes encouraged them to study the chapters in advance and that studying ahead of in-class discussion, increased their comprehension of the chapters when they were eventually discussed in class.

Many students believed that they got higher scores on the quizzes when they had studied, and lower scores when they had not. Students also stated that the quizzes were somewhat helpful in tests preparation.

Table 4: Opinions of Students on Extra Credit Quizzes

	Never	Sometimes	Often	Always
Quizzes Encouraged Studying	4%	52%	30%	15%
Studying Increased Comprehension	4%	43%	33%	20%
Studying Affected Performance	4%	37%	37%	22%
Higher Scores on Quizzes With Studying	4%	33%	33%	30%
Lower Scores on Quizzes With no Studying	7%	59%	13%	21%
Quizzes Helpful in Tests Preparation	4%	43%	33%	20%

The results in **Table 5** indicate that 72% of the students spent 30 minutes or less on their study of the chapter before it was discussed in class. However, only

57% of the students indicated that they studied 30 minutes or less after the chapter was discussed in class.

Table 5: Minutes Spent Studying Before and After Introduction of Chapter

	Minutes Studied			
	None	1-30	31-60	Over 60
Before Class	5%	67%	24%	4%
After Class	7%	50%	33%	10%

Five percent of the students indicated that they did not study at all before the class, while seven percent indicated that they did no studying after the materials were discussed in class. A further analysis revealed that there was only one student who reported not studying the chapters at all, both before and after the materials were discussed in class. Nine students reported that they spent less time studying the chapters after they were discussed in class than before they were discussed. The remaining students either spent the same amount of study time both before and after the chapter was discussed, or spent more study time after the chapters had been reviewed in class than before they were discussed. There was no significant difference in the pre-chapter

and post-chapter study minutes as indicated by the p value of 0.198

The Accounting II class was the only class where students reported spending less time studying after the materials had been presented than before the chapter materials were discussed. Forty percent of this class studied more than 30 minutes prior to the introduction and discussion of the chapter materials versus only 30 percent who studied the same amount of time afterwards. Students reported studying the most (both before and after) in the Intermediate Accounting I class.

Table 6 below, reveals that the majority of accounting majors reported that they studied longer than non-accounting majors both before and after the chapter was discussed in class.

Table 6: Minutes Spent Studying Before and After Introduction of Chapter (by Majors)

	30 Minutes or Less	More Than 30 Minutes
Minutes Studied Before Class		
Accounting Majors	72%	28%
Non-Accounting Majors	76%	24%
Minutes Studied After Class		
Accounting Majors	45%	55%
Non-Accounting Majors	76%	24%

Twenty-eight percent of accounting majors stated that they studied for more than 30 minutes before

the chapters were discussed, versus 24 percent of non-accounting majors. This difference was not significant with a p

value of 0.154. However, there was a significant difference between accounting and non-accounting majors for self-reported amount of time spent studying after the chapters had been discussed in class, p value of 0.08. Fifty-five percent of accounting majors, versus only 24 percent of non-accounting majors reported that they

studied the chapters for more than 30 minutes after the class discussions of the chapter materials.

A further analysis reveals that students who reported studying for more than 30 minutes before the chapter was discussed, also reported higher scores on quizzes, *Table 7*.

Table 7: Relationship Between Quiz Scores and Pre-Chapter Study

	Average Quiz Scores	
	5 Points or Less	6 Points or More
Minutes Studied		
30 Minutes or Less	43%	57%
More Than 30 Minutes	29%	71%

Table 8, reveals that those students who reported studying more than 30 minutes

after the topics were discussed in class also reported higher test scores.

Table 8: Relationship Between Test Scores and Post-Chapter Study

	Average Test Scores	
	30 Points or Less	31 Points or More
Minutes Studied		
30 Minutes or Less	48%	52%
More Than 30 Minutes	27%	73%

Seventy-three percent of the students who reported studying for more than 30 minutes scored 31 points or above out of a possible 50 points on the tests. However, only 52% of the students who studied for 30 minutes or less reported scores above 31 points on the tests. All but one of the 54 student respondents said that the extra credit quizzes should remain in the course.

Further analysis revealed that there was no relationship between gender and the following: students' performance on quizzes and tests,

students' perceptions of pre-chapter quizzes, and the amount of time students spent studying both before and after the chapters have been discussed in class. There was also no relationship identified between a student's class and their performance on the quizzes and tests, their perceptions of pre-chapter quizzes, and the amount of time they spent on pre-chapter and post-chapter studying. Pre-chapter quiz scores were not observed to be a predictor of test score with a p value of 0.242.

DISCUSSION

The results of this research suggest that pre-chapter quizzing encourages students to study ahead and that reading ahead increases students' comprehension of the chapters when they are eventually discussed in class by the instructor. Students also indicated that studying the chapters affected their quiz performance. They performed better on the quizzes when they had studied the chapters, than when they had not studied. The findings also suggest a correlation between the number of minutes students studied and their quiz scores.

The accounting students in this study revealed that the extra credit pre-chapter quizzes encouraged them to study the chapter materials prior to its discussion in class. Ninety-six percent of the students indicated that the quizzes encouraged studying. This is consistent with Anderson (1984); Sporer (2001); Connor-Greene (2000); Graham (1999); and Solomon (1979), which all suggested that regular quizzes resulted in an increase in the number of psychology students who read before class. Connor-Greene (2000), also noted that daily essay quizzes in lieu of regularly scheduled examinations resulted in an increase in the proportion of students who read before class from 16 percent to 92 percent.

Similar to observations in Solomon (1979), the students in this study admitted that studying ahead increased their comprehension of the materials when they were eventually discussed in class. Students also reported that studying ahead affected their performance on the pre-chapter quizzes. They obtained higher grades on the quizzes when they had studied ahead than when they had not.

Students stated that the quizzes were helpful in tests preparation, because it encouraged them to study frequently. These views are consistent with Fitch, Drucker and Norton (1951); Maki and Maki (2001); Wilder and Flood (2001); and Azorlosa and Renner (2006), where students reported that quizzes caused them to study more and in turn, made them feel better prepared for examinations.

This study also revealed that there was no significant difference in the pre-chapter study times of accounting majors versus non-accounting majors. However, the accounting majors reported that they studied significantly longer than non-accounting majors after the chapters had being discussed in class. A desire to perform well in courses in their major may be a reason why accounting majors studied longer than non-accounting majors. The accounting majors did self-report higher test scores than the non-accounting majors.

However, the analysis of the student self-reported scores showed that pre-chapter quiz scores were not a predictor of test scores, with a p value of 0.242.. These results are contrary to Padilla-Walker (2006); Graham (1999); Geiger and Bostow (1976); and Azorlosa and Renner (2006). One possible explanation for the results obtained in this study is that the quiz and test scores were self-reported by students. Another possible explanation may be the frequency of the quizzes given in this study. They were administered at the beginning of each chapter, rather than daily at the beginning of each class.

Almost half of the students (46%) reported taking 50% or less of the available pre chapter quizzes. It is surprising that more students did not

utilize the opportunity to take the pre chapter quizzes, especially since the students were aware of when the quizzes would be administered. The quizzes were always given at the start of a new chapter. Also, the quizzes were structured as extra credit, thus not taking a quiz or doing poorly on a quiz did not negatively impact students' grades. Maybe different results will be obtained if the pre chapter quizzes do not count as extra credit, but are part of the course's base points. Another possible explanation for number of students who took quizzes may be because the quizzes were administered in class, and so the students had to be in attendance to take the quizzes. There was no make-up for any missed quiz.

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A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE PERTAINING TO THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADERSHIP PRACTICES AND EMPLOYEE TURNOVER

Evelyn Lim

A review of the literature points out the lack of specific answers to the immense amount of turnover witnessed by the foodservice industry. Studies in this review point to the criticality of finding ways in which to reduce the vast amount of turnover. The literature shows the need for the implementation of an intervening strategy in order to increase retention and job satisfaction of foodservice employees that are in a highly competitive growth industry. A more in-depth study is necessary to explore the extent to which the leadership practices have been implemented in foodservice operations and to determine the overall impact of leadership practices on turnover rates in foodservice operations.

Keyword: Leadership practices, turnover, retention, foodservice industry

INTRODUCTION

To properly investigate the relationship between leadership practices and employee turnover/retention in foodservice operations a literature review including the empirical research in the areas of leadership, retention, training, motivation, turnover, job satisfaction, organizational culture, and foodservice operations in general had to be evaluated. The literature reviewed for this study began with an investigation of research pertinent to the value of leadership training as a competitive strategy in foodservice operations. The literature explores managerial leadership

practices in foodservice operations which might influence turnover and retention. Literature reviewed for this study also focused on the factors that influence retention and turnover in foodservice operations. The influence of managerial leadership within these operations was the main focus of interest. As observed by Cullen (1999), to successfully solve a turnover/retention problem, the entire organization must work together.

Keywords used to locate relevant studies were leadership, training, motivation, employees, turnover, retention, job satisfaction, organizational culture, competitive advantage, management development, front line managers, foodservice, dining service, restaurant, fast food, retail, low wage. Date parameters set were from 1995 to 2007. However, pertinent books and

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articles pertaining to relevant theory and important variables were included in the literature review irrespective of date.

The search engines and databases used in the search for relevant literature were Google, EBSCO-host (Academic Search Premier, Business Source Elite, PsycARTICLES, ERIC, MasterFILE Premier databases), FirstSearch (ArticleFirst), and Expanded Academic ASAP. The services provided by the library were used extensively, along with interlibrary loans and the public library. The reference lists at the end of articles and dissertations were also scoured to locate previous studies on the topic. Additionally, industry related websites such as the National Restaurant Association and the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics were used for statistical data concerning turnover and foodservice industry trends.

The search for relevant literature revealed a lack of empirical research that specifically addressed owner/manager leadership practices as they relate to the turnover of hourly employees in the foodservice industry. The majority of research pertains to the turnover of managerial personnel and does not focus hourly employees or those individuals that are at the lower end of the pay scale (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Murphy & Williams, 2004; Terborg & Lee, 1984). Therefore, leadership practices and turnover in other organizations also had to be reviewed to provide a more in-depth review of how leadership practices may influence employee retention and turnover. The three main areas of concentration of the literature review were foodservice, turnover rate, and leadership practices.

The Foodservice Context

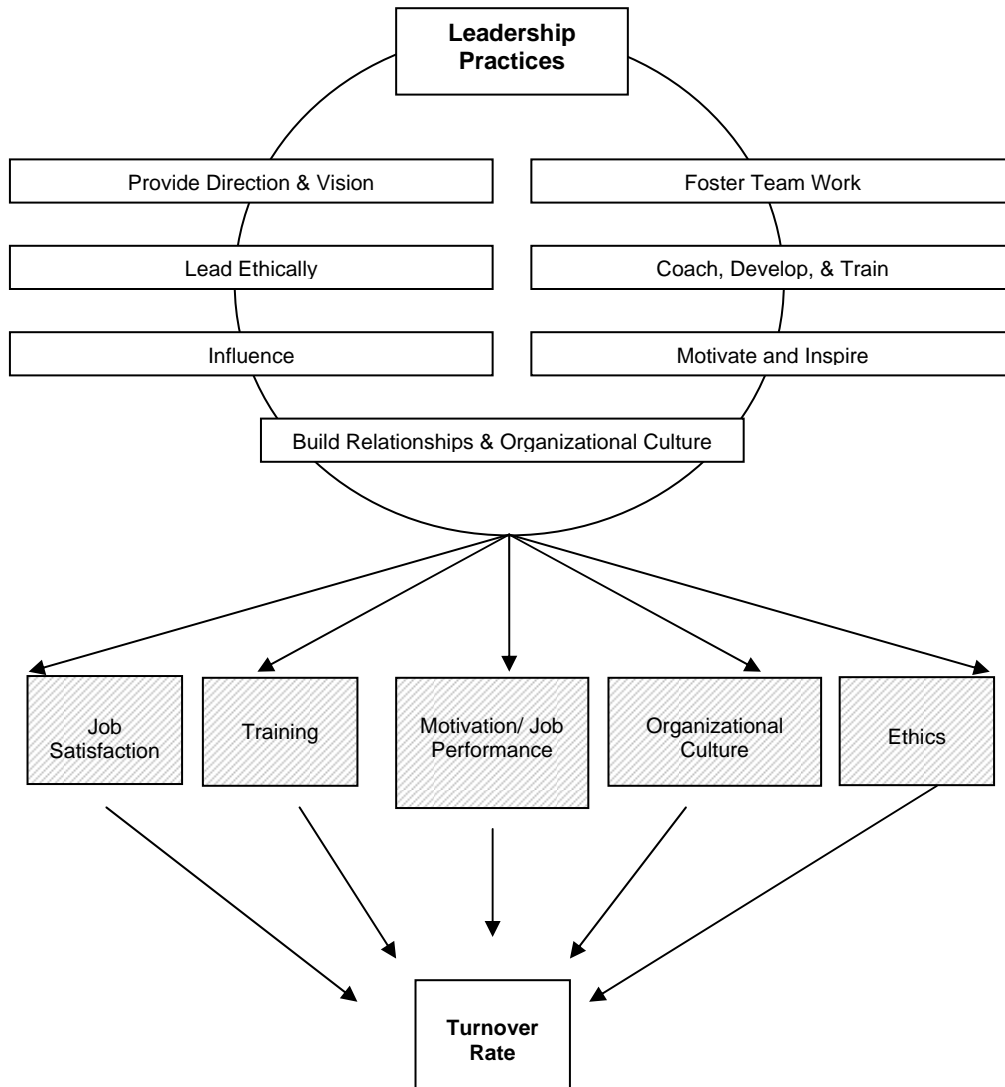
According to the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (2004) the foodservice industry employs the largest percentage (37.9%) of part-time workers in the nation. Foodservice operations are also characterized by among the highest turnover rates in the service industries and are often confronted with business failure as a result of the drain on the financial profits of an operation caused by high employee turnover (White, 1995). The amount of annual turnover in a vast number of foodservice operations actually exceeds 100% (Kotschevar & Escoffier, 1994). Some managers even take the attitude that a certain amount of turnover is anticipated and therefore, they do not try to avoid turnover (Siegel, 1992). The BLS website indicated that more replacement openings generally occur in industries with high concentrations of service, laborer, and other types of jobs that require little formal education that are at the lower end of the pay scale, as workers in these jobs are more likely to leave their occupations.

It is extremely important to find a means of reducing turnover in the foodservice industry, as the BLS indicated, between 2002 through 2012, growth in overall employment will result primarily from growth in service-providing industries. Some of the sectors that will witness the greatest amount of growth will be health services, educational services, employment services, local government, and foodservices and drinking places. Combined together, the service sectors will account for almost half of all new wage and salary jobs within the United States. In fact, the Bureau also reports that the foodservices and drinking places industry is expected to add more than 1.3 million new jobs during this period.

Figure 1 presents a concept map that provides a visual summary of this literature review, the concepts of the

inquiry, and the variables being investigated.

Figure 1
Concept Map Summarizing Literature Review



Turnover/retention.

Managerial leadership training and practices may be able to help decrease the amount of turnover in foodservice operations. Some empirical

studies have demonstrated that turnover can be decreased by managerial style and practices. In a study of hotel employee turnover, Hinkin and Tracey (2000) found that the turnover rates vary

widely from hotel to hotel, even within the same geographic region and that even similar hotels experienced dissimilar rates of turnover, internal and external customer satisfaction, and profitability. They found that such situations occurred not by chance, but instead resulted primarily from the differences in managerial practices. Additionally, they stated that those managers who understood the value of employee retention, and structured their organizations' compensation systems and management practices to reinforce retention, could outperform their competitors.

Non-quantifiable costs.

A study by Waldman, Kelly, Arora, and Smith (2004) found that in addition to the not readily quantifiable financial costs of turnover, there were other non-quantifiable disadvantages of employee turnover. They identified some of these non-quantifiables as multiple opportunity costs, such as repetitive training obligations of remaining employees, defensive behaviors related to terminations, and lack of motivation. The authors also asserted that turnover saps the morale of remaining employees, adds administrative time, and is disruptive to both organizational culture and structure. When you consider that some foodservice operations survive because of quick service activities, the non-quantifiable turnover costs such as those mentioned can be very disruptive to food preparation operations and customer service. Therefore, it remains essential for owners/managers to develop the leadership skills that foster satisfied employees and retention.

Motivation and job performance.

All employees play a vital role in the success of an organization. Foodservice employees, in particular, are even more important contributors to the success of the foodservice operation since they are constantly interacting with customers to ensure that customers are satisfied and continue to patronize the establishment. Additionally, in an environment filled with stress, where part-time help is a commonality and the work is not considered glamorous, employee motivation becomes a major challenge (Babin & Boles, 1996). Owners/managers must encourage positive attitudes and motivate their employees to deliver high quality customer service in a manner that will ensure customer satisfaction.

In the study conducted by Babin and Boles (1996) involving 261 front-line restaurant service providers, they found that employee perception of co-worker involvement and supervisory support contributed significantly to overall job performance and satisfaction. They found that employees' job performance is negatively affected when they perceive a lack of commitment from co-workers and a lack of support and concern from supervisors. Babin and Boles's study also found that these perceptions also affect the level of employee stress because they experience conflict and ambiguity in their roles. In their conceptual model, Babin and Boles discussed four dimensions that affect employee perceptions of their work environment and employee well-being: "(a) intrinsic motivation exhibited by employees, (b) leadership facilitation and support, (c) workgroup friendliness and warmth, and (d) role stress" (p. 58). These four dimensions are interrelated but not necessarily linear. They each contribute simultaneously to employee

motivation and performance. The study suggested that management should adopt supportive supervisory strategies for they would reduce the ambiguity of employee roles, especially during times of role conflict when employees are forced to deal with complaints and special situations. Babin and Boles stated that contrary to previous research, they found that role conflict seemed to influence performance positively because when leaders provide the support, equipment, resources and flexibility, employees tend to feel a sense of pride and empowerment in having the ability to handle difficult situations. Likewise, Hackman & Oldham (as cited in Houkes, Janssen, deJonge, & Bakker, 2003) also indicated that employees who are granted autonomy and given performance evaluations are much happier in their jobs and their intrinsic motivation is to continue to perform well. Tapping into the intrinsic values and motivation within employees could lead to a reduction in stress levels experienced on the job that usually stems from role ambiguity where employees are limited in what they can or cannot do in tough situations, which leaves them uncertain and unsure in their job abilities and lowers job performance.

Compensation.

Compensation also has an effect on employee motivation and job satisfaction. Yet, in any discussion of compensation, there is always a question as to whether money can act as a motivator and managers are constantly trying to compensate employees to see if they can be encouraged to remain. In a study by Mitra, Gupta, and Jenkins (1995), it was found that while managers may assume that any pay raise can be

motivational, very small and very large merit raises may actually obstruct an organization's motivational efforts. This study led to the following five conclusions:

1. Unless a merit raise is at least six to seven percent of base pay, it will not produce the desired effects on employee attitudes and behavior.
2. Beyond a certain point, increases in merit-raise size are not apt to improve motivation and performance.
3. When merit raises are too small, employee motivation and morale will suffer.
4. Cost-of-living adjustments, seniority, and other non-merit components of a raise should be clearly separated from the merit component.
5. Smaller percentage raises given to employees at the higher end of base pay ranges are de-motivating.

In their study, Mitra et al. developed a temporary organization that was created especially for the study and paid student employees real money. Their experience indicated that the students reacted to the pay program as workers normally would. They found in the duplicated work setting a perceived threshold of about seven percent of base pay, which emerged consistently across base-pay levels and across attitudinal and behavioral dimensions, and provided credibility to their results.

Mitra et al. suggested that when funds for raises are limited the organization should look for other methods of motivating employees because small merit raises are unlikely to make employees work harder or better. Limited resources for employee raises is

a condition that often confronts the foodservice operations. Mitra et al. also found that if raises are large enough to be seen as raises, any additional money will have little if any motivational effect, even though the raise may enhance satisfaction and morale. These findings also make it evident that other practices or strategies must be present for retention to be increased. They found small raises to be a waste and that it would erode employee motivation and satisfaction and this may exacerbate the problem for lower paid employees such as those working in the foodservice industry.

Dotzour, Lengnick-Hall, and Lengnick-Hall (1992) found that the capability to retain employees was normally a function of compensation, job satisfaction, and managerial personality. If foodservice operations cannot afford to increase compensation, then it leaves job satisfaction and managerial personality as areas to explore as avenues to employee retention. Offering additional compensation and benefits may be a problem for most small foodservice operations.

Noncompetitive compensation was the most frequently cited cause of difficulty in recruiting and the second most commonly cited cause of difficulty in retention (Lommel, 2004). Using compensation to reduce turnover, even on college campuses where there is often a built-in labor force, is also confronted with resistance. The *Food Service Director* reported that college foodservice programs that are self-operated witnessed a rise in labor costs in 1999, a seven and one-half percent increase from \$409.2 million to \$438 million, and that this increase was reflective of incentives designed to retain workers as well as attract new

ones (“Labor: Costs Up”, 2000). If we accept this, then most foodservice operations have no choice but to find other methods of recruiting and retaining employees that are more financially feasible.

In one of the rare studies pertaining to hourly employees and turnover in the service industry, Milman (2003) examined hourly employee retention in small and medium amusement attractions. The objective of this study was to explore the reasons why there were so many turnovers in hourly employees in the amusement park and attractions industry. Data were collected from 172 hourly employees working at these facilities. The results of this study found that hourly employees’ retention was predicted by self-fulfillment and working conditions rather than monetary rewards. It was found that employees who had positive experiences with regard to consistent working hours, a sense of fulfillment within their jobs, positive feedback from performance reviews, longer tenure with their current employer, a higher level of job satisfaction with the job, and previous work experience were more likely to stay with their current employers.

While there are some similarities between hourly employees in the amusement industry and those in the foodservice industry, there are also some distinct differences. Very few foodservice employees have consistent work hours. And the stigma that is often associated with foodservice employment, “You can always get a job flipping burgers!” does not lend itself to a sense of fulfillment, and very few employees have a long tenure with their employers (Wildes, 2005).

Business failure.

A major problem for small businesses and especially foodservice operations is the high rate of business failure. As previously stated, easy entry into these businesses because they can be started with a small amount of working capital can attract numerous individuals that do not have any entrepreneurial experience or managerial skills. Coleman Management Services Inc. (n.d.) researched the most common reasons for small business failure. Their research illustrated that poor management of financial activities accounted for 32.1%. A lack of management competence or experience accounted for 14.6%. Inflation and economic conditions accounted for 12.4%. Poor bookkeeping and records accounted for 12.3%. Sales and marketing problems accounted for 10.7%. Staffing problems accounted for 9%. Union problems accounted for 6.2%. Failure to use external advice accounted for 2.7%. It was stated that when the 12.4% for economic conditions and the 6.2% for union problems are eliminated, 81.4% of the activities which may cause business failure are within the realm of managerial responsibilities. Incompetent managers and staffing problems account for almost 24% of small business failure. The researchers observed further that most business owners and managers unfortunately place “staff” in a negative column, suggesting owners and managers often view employees as problems rather than assets. It would appear that competent managers, who understand the importance of staffing, maybe able to reduce some of the business failure (Coleman, n. d.).

Leadership and Leadership Theories

The study of leadership is central to many disciplines and thus very complex. Russell (2003) stated that the area of leadership is not always easy to study because the literature available “is multidisciplinary and presents a confusion of types” (p. 145) depending on the context of the study.

One of the tasks at hand is identifying those managerial leadership skills that may be required or beneficial in employment circumstances where there isn’t much opportunity to use compensation or benefits as inducements to employee loyalty and productivity. While the type of required leadership skills will often depend upon the situation at hand, the common skills that frequently appear in leadership literature include communication, negotiation, strategic planning, understanding team dynamics, time management, employee motivation, and people management skills. The most important tasks of leaders appear to be providing a vision/direction, setting objectives and goals, developing strategies and initiatives to achieve the goals and objectives. Bennis and Nanus (1985) asserted that what sets leaders apart from their followers is their capacity to develop and elevate their skill levels at all times.

Situational leadership theory.

In addition to the numerous definitions, the literature informs us that there are also numerous theories of leadership. For example, over the years different theorists have contributed different attributes, values, ethics, practices, and styles to describe the effective and successful leader. Hersey and Blanchard’s situational leadership theory indicates that there are times

when a leader may have to be more task oriented because of the lack of time and the urgency of the situation (Hersey, Blanchard, & Johnson, 2000). This could apply to foodservice operations which deal with generating a profit through volume and timely delivery of services. At times, managers may have to be very directive and a situation may lend itself to prescriptive one-way communication, based on the age and experience of employees and a situation that requires expedient action. And at another time, a leader may be able to ask for input from the followers and even discuss possible plans for action. With the rapid pace of the foodservice industry, situational leadership may be what's called for. Under the situational leadership theory, leaders are effective because they are versatile in being able to adapt their leadership practices to the situation and in the process it may resolve a problem rather than creating a problem or expanding the problem of the present situation. Because of fluctuating demand, this leadership style may be very effective in the foodservice industry. Additionally, Hersey and Blanchard's situational leadership theory also suggests that younger and inexperienced employees may need more direction than those with more experience. Given that foodservice operations employ many young, part-time workers, it may be that Hersey and Blanchard's theory would predict that these kinds of employees would need more structure, more direction, and more motivation.

Empowerment leadership theory.

In contrast, other leadership theorists such as Belasco and Stayer (1994) believe empowering employees to come up with their own means of

solving problems is the most appropriate approach to leadership in today's world. They argue management should just step back and support the employees' efforts. The proponents of Total Quality Management (TQM), as explained by Robbins and Coulter (1999), strongly believe in empowerment as a means of building teams, providing quality service, and in identifying problems. This concept is widely used by hospitality operations and the empowerment of employees can be very beneficial in these operations (Robbins & DeCenzo, 2005; Stutts, 2005). However, managers may have to be very selective when empowering lower level unskilled employees. For example, with foodservice operations functioning on such low profit margins, managers need to be careful when empowering employees to give out free meals and coupons because granting this authority to the wrong employee may lead to financial losses and employee theft.

Servant leadership theory.

Robert Greenleaf (1970) proposed the servant leadership model, where leaders focus on meeting the needs of those they lead which in turn brings out the best from their followers (employees, teams) through the encouragement of self-expression, facilitation of personal growth, and in listening and building a sense of community may not be feasible at all for this level of employees. The potential benefit of this theory is that in helping your people to do their best they are able to maximize their potential in performance, but in foodservice, where managers are trying to control a small margin of profit, this theory may not be practical.

Expectancy theory.

Isaac, Zerbe, and Pitt (2001) provided a practical model for individuals wishing to assume leadership roles. Their model is based upon the expectancy theory and suggests that individuals, acting through self-interest, adopt courses of action perceived as maximizing the probability of desirable outcomes that may affect them. They found that in order for a business to remain competitive, employees must stop thinking in their minds that the functions of leadership belong only with upper management of the business and employees must come to view the leadership role as part of every employee's job, at all levels of the operation. This indeed supports the thesis that unit managers as well as upper level managers must be trained and practice solid leadership techniques. Additionally, the authors report that leadership means stepping forward and taking the time to motivate each employee on a personal basis, according to the principles of the model of expectancy theory. Therefore, the model of expectancy theory may be useful to managers in motivating foodservice employees.

Leadership Influence on Personnel and Business Strategy

Due to the life cycle curve of business operations, organizations are constantly seeking a strategy that will provide them with a competitive advantage. While some operations can establish this advantage through product differentiation, in the service industry, this strategic advantage is often found through employees providing a service. Because of this factor, the importance of hiring managers and providing them with leadership training to maintain

effective communication in order to sustain employee job satisfaction and a positive organizational culture can be essential in developing strategies to establish a competitive advantage.

Hiring.

Hiring managers with some leadership training and/or training managers in leadership can be an important emphasis for the human resources efforts of foodservice operations. Using original data collected from manufacturing and service-sector companies, Michie (2005) found a positive relationship between human resources policies and practices and performance. This could be of interest to large foodservice operations and franchises since they would also have human resources departments to take care of the hiring process. It was also found that the relationship between human resources and performance is dependent upon business strategy, and that companies pursuing an integrated approach to human resources coupled with an innovator/quality-enhancer focus within their business strategy perform best. By adding leadership training to the human resource commitment, the foodservice operation may derive a competitive business strategy. Because of the immense cost of employee turnover and the labor intensiveness of the foodservice industry, any cost saving in the area of human resources could generate a competitive advantage. Human capital and human resource systems can act as a strategic asset and become a source of sustainable competitive advantage for a company (González, 2002).

The utility of a leadership development focus in foodservice operations.

While a significant body of conceptual and empirical research indicates that the leadership practices focused on in this study are core competencies, Zaccaro (2004) reported that a large number of human resource professionals still dispute the utility of these skills in foodservice operations. In his article, Zaccaro discussed three gaps between leadership research and practice. The first referred to the value of organization visions. The second referred to the importance of change management skills and the third of these centered on the utility of training and development programs that target visioning and change management skills. Zaccaro suggested the use of developmental work assignments as a leader development strategy. This research stresses the importance of the utilization of training to improve management skills.

Hiring and training managers with solid leadership skills that can be developed further may assist in reducing turnover and in preventing business failure. Organizational survival is a main objective of owners and managers. Most organizational theories regard survival as the 'correct' outcome for business operations whose managers successfully navigate across a hostile competitive landscape. Many theories about performance, competitive advantage, legitimacy, and leadership rest upon a core assumption that businesses, at least some of them, have long, perhaps limitless, life-spans. In fact, long-term survival is not seen as merely a random outcome or an unattainable goal (Stubbart, 2006).

Training might assist foodservice managers in developing leadership skills as leadership practices can enhance motivation and job satisfaction. A study

was completed pertaining to the educational background or field of study of foodservice managers. Questionnaires were mailed to the entire population of 256 foodservice managers employed in college and university dining facilities of a regional division of a major foodservice company in the northeastern United States. In this study, 44% of the 192 respondents had an educational background in foodservice. While it appeared that those trained in foodservice had lower overall job satisfaction than those that were not trained specifically in foodservice operations, both groups were satisfied with the supervision component of the job and relationship with coworkers (Kuntz, Borja, & Loftus, 1990). These findings suggest there may be value in adding further leadership training in this area to make this aspect of the job even more satisfying and as a means of improving the relationship between supervisors and those being supervised (Day, 2000; McCall, 1998).

Training enhances leadership.

In a study by Corrigan, Lickey, Campion, and Rashid (2000) pertaining to leadership training for vocational rehabilitation trainers and case workers, it was found that even a short training course in leadership could make a significant difference. Twenty-seven leaders of rehabilitation teams were solicited to participate in the daylong leadership skills training program and corresponding program evaluation. Participants were team leaders rather than agency administrators. They included managers of local Department of Vocational Rehabilitation offices, coordinators of case management teams, and leaders of supported employment groups. One of the important findings of

the study was that approaches towards leadership and the participant's perceptions of ideal leadership could be improved after a short course in appropriate leadership skills. These were findings after a two-day course. This again, could signal an importance of such a strategic intervention for foodservice organizations.

Fleishman, Harris, and Burt (1955) conducted an empirical study focused on the leadership abilities of first-line supervisors. Leadership was measured by the Supervisory Behavior Description, filled out by subordinates giving their evaluations of the foreman's behavior. The Foreman's Leadership Opinion Questionnaire was used for the foreman, indicating how the foreman thought he/she should operate with his/her work group. The characteristic factors of leadership proved to be their ability to show consideration and initiate structure. A human relations training program was administered to the foremen and the before and after training attitudes, both immediate and long term, were obtained as well as subordinates' attitudes. The study also related the different types of leadership to employee morale, departmental efficiency, absenteeism, grievances, and turnover. The results showed that human relations training conducted in isolation from the practical situation falls short of its objective and that it is necessary to involve the social situation in which a person is going to operate. This project illustrated the concern for implementation of training, especially a form of leadership training as an intervening intervention strategy to increase retention. While the human relations training in isolation may have fallen short, training involving the social

situation targeted to a specific work context could be effective.

According to Cini (1998), the American Society for Training and Development distributed the Human Performance Practice Survey to 540 randomly selected firms with 50 or more employees. These findings pointed to a strong correlation between the performance of leading-edge companies and the commitment of these organizations to employee training. Nine industry segments were examined, including customer service, which includes foodservice. The report showed that customer service ranked last in total training expenditures per employee, \$162 in the customer service industry versus \$504 on average with a \$1,659 average for leading-edge companies. Cini further reported that there is also a smaller percentage of training provided to employees, for example, 62% versus 69% on average as opposed to 86% for leading edge companies. The research also suggests that there must be a commitment to training at all levels of the organization to optimize the benefits of training to the organization's bottom line.

Leadership development as competitive advantage.

Leading foodservice companies understand the importance of employee training for gaining and sustaining a competitive advantage and how rigorous and continuous training can create outstanding service and outstanding employee performance levels wherein the benefits ultimately go to the bottom line (Grinberg, 1997). In 1999, the International Council on Hotel, Restaurant and Institutional Education (CHRIE), brought together industry executives and hospitality business

educators from around the globe to learn and discuss ways to further help prepare hospitality students who will be entering the industry in the new millennium. The panel discussion titled "What do employees wish educators would teach?" found that leadership skills, the benefit of internships, management skills, and diversity training were among the answers industry executives gave as the most important in preparing future managers (Strauss, 1999).

A review of the literature illustrated that businesses that practice leadership activities may be able to gain a competitive advantage through the retention of employees. The result of a study by Forsberg, Axelsson, and Arnetz (2004) indicates that although contextual factors of the working environment were of substantial importance there is scope for leaders to act, and their actions can make a considerable difference, in both work processes and outcomes resulting in a better work environment for all employees. All foodservice operations are trying to find some type of competitive advantage that would help retain valued employees and improve the bottom line. Improving the leadership skills of those in charge may help. By encouraging owners/managers to accept the importance of leadership training as a key factor in reducing turnover, small and tenuous foodservice operations may be able to improve their financial stability over time through better leadership and lower turnover rates.

Researching the implications of turnover led to different perceptions of the benefits of reducing turnover. Huselid's 1995 study about worker turnover supported academics' and practitioners' prevalent beliefs that individual employee performance has implications for firm-level outcomes. He

further posited that an organization's employees also might provide a unique source of competitive advantage that is difficult for competitors to replicate. This study demonstrated the importance of reducing turnover and trying to motivate employees to assist in providing a competitive edge. Because the foodservice industry is one of the most competitive industries, any type of competitive edge can be helpful.

Business survival is very difficult in the foodservice industry as the industry is very competitive. As indicated by Ireland and Hitt (2005), competition in the 21st century's global economy will be complex, challenging, and filled with competitive opportunities and threats. Effective strategic leadership practices can help businesses enhance performance while competing in turbulent and unpredictable environments. Their study indicated that with specific leadership components a business's strategic leadership practices can become a source of competitive advantage. As pointed out by Scarborough and Zimmerer (1987), every business has a set of controllable variables that determine relative success or failure and that by identifying and manipulating these variables, a business can gain a competitive advantage.

Communication.

Communication is an essential element for owners/managers of the foodservice industry, especially when dealing with employees and customers. To further illustrate the role of leadership in employee job satisfaction, a study of the effects of communication direction on job performance and satisfaction was conducted using the data results of 302 employees. This study found that managers might indeed

influence employees' performance and satisfaction with communication. It was also found that downward communication sometimes affects job performance more than job satisfaction (Goris, Vaught, & Pettit, 2000). This study used a statistical moderated regression analysis technique in examining the moderating effects of communication direction on individual-job congruence and work outcomes (performance/satisfaction). A study by Sharbrough et al. pertaining to the utilization of motivating language when addressing employees indicated a clear and easily identifiable link between motivational type language and subordinate's satisfaction with leaders' communication. They suggested as a result of their study that motivational language could be used to improve management training, resulting in increased leader effectiveness. Their final analysis showed that motivational language is a communication strategy that can be used by leadership to build commitment to an organization. They further stated that the increase use of motivational language should have a positive impact on organizational effectiveness, resulting in reduced costs related to employees' performance, turnover, and absenteeism. Based upon the results of these studies, one might find that managerial communication with employees is important to job performance and satisfaction.

Employee job satisfaction.

Several studies have investigated employee job satisfaction and its affect on turnover. In a recent study pertaining to job satisfaction, Baker (2004) examined the key antecedents and two important consequences of job satisfaction in a comprehensive

framework by utilizing integrated methodologies. The study involved combining meta-analytic techniques with structural equation modeling. The antecedents represented the theoretical perspectives of workplace influences such as (1) task characteristics, (2) social information processing, and (3) dispositional perspectives while the consequences were the withdrawal behaviors of absenteeism and turnover. The results indicated that all three perspectives were supported to varying degrees with multiple antecedents impacting job satisfaction. While job design and leadership behavior had an impact on job satisfaction, it appeared that job satisfaction had little impact on the progression of withdrawal behaviors. The results of this study suggest the impact that leadership has on job satisfaction that should be of concern to owners/managers.

Employee satisfaction is important, especially in foodservice operations where hourly employees are the people interfacing with customers and poor service can result in customers not returning to the facility. However, the foodservice industry is characterized by erratic hours, weekend hours, and low wages which make it difficult to create the conditions where job satisfaction is likely to occur. Although the research on employee satisfaction and retention in the foodservice industry is limited, several studies conducted in service organizations have found job satisfaction to be related to retention. In a study relating job satisfaction/dissatisfaction to employee intention to quit, Firth et al. (2004) found that a high level of job satisfaction among department store salespeople lowers their intention to quit and increases their commitment to the organization. This study had three aims,

(1) to investigate the effect of job stressors, (2) to investigate whether people's dispositional factors were mediators of intention to quit, and (3) to provide a comprehensive model of intentions to quit that could be extrapolated to inform quitting behaviors. Firth, et al. further stated that supervisors can mediate the stress factors that may lead to job dissatisfaction. Kim et al. (2005) study of restaurant employees also found a positive relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment and a negative relationship between job satisfaction and the intent to leave. Based upon these studies one might conclude there is some evidence that job satisfaction plays an important role in retention of hourly employees in service sector operations.

Job satisfaction is seen as a prerequisite to motivation, as dissatisfied employees may be difficult to motivate. In one study, Bills (1999) found foodservice employers are often passive or reactive about recruitment, distrust standard sources of information, and reject the use of educational credentials and work experience as hiring criteria. Bills stated that to help secure a sufficiently motivated work force, managers avoid standard measures of potential productive capacity or skills and adopt instead other indicators such as the degree of employee motivation. Heatley of *Nations's Restaurant News* (2004) wrote that foodservice operators who make staff satisfaction a top priority will receive results on the bottom line. He argued that staff satisfaction and morale are elements of a restaurant's business that affect the bottom line every day, and for staffing systems in the restaurant business to be truly beneficial, managers need to create a plan that

considers the unique needs of each individual.

Leadership becomes important in creating an environment for job satisfaction, as satisfied employees are more apt to be committed to the organization. Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin, and Jackson (1989) asserted that employees who are committed to an organization are found to be less likely to leave the organization, which will help in reducing turnover. Based upon their research they further commented that commitment to the organization from employees at the lower end of the pay scale would most likely come through leadership since consistent lines of activity such as vacation time, personal and sick leave are not always rewarded to them.

Organizational culture.

Organizational culture, often shaped by leaders, can have a vast amount of influence on employees' perceptions within an organization. In a study by Kratina (1990) 274 employees in the health care service-sector were surveyed to investigate the relationships among the leadership of supervisors, the type of organizational culture, job satisfaction, and turnover of employees. An anonymous survey instrument was used with 13 research questions being posed to determine the relationship among the variables of interest. Data analysis included correlation, analysis of variance, and descriptive statistics. The results illustrated that a general relationship was demonstrated between the type of organizational culture and employee turnover and job satisfaction. The results suggested that the culture concept can be applied in investigating and addressing employee job satisfaction and turnover, while supervisory

leadership is influential in the type of unit culture and that additional variables, possibly at the organizational level, are operative in unit culture, job satisfaction, and turnover (Kratina, 1990).

In foodservice operations, where employees may be at the lower end of the pay scale, organizational culture and climate can have an influence on job satisfaction and turnover. Organizational culture is defined by Glisson and James (2002), as the organizational norms and expectations regarding how people behave and how things are done in an organization. Pritchard and Karasick (1973) described organizational climate as representing a global impression of one's organization and personal impact of the work environment, which influences the individual's work behaviors and job-related attitudes. The findings of a study by Aarons and Sawitzky (2006) of mental health facilities supported the contention that both culture and climate impact work attitudes and subsequent staff turnover. Brown's earlier study (1989) evaluated the importance of organizational climate and job satisfaction on reducing turnover in the healthcare industry. The focus of the study concerned social psychological processes as determinants of job satisfaction. The study aimed to determine the relative contributions of organizational climate, supervisory leadership, and peer leadership/group process to in predicting job performance, job satisfaction, and job retention/turnover. A cross-sectional mail survey methodology was used to collect questionnaire data from 70% of the organization's 272 employees. Organizational climate was found to be a significant contributor to job satisfaction. Supervisory leadership was also found to be a significant contributor

to job satisfaction and job performance. It appeared that organizational climate, supervisory leadership, and job performance accounted for 48% of the variance in job satisfaction. If managers in the foodservice industry received additional training in leadership skills they might have a better understanding of the importance of their position as it applies to creating a positive work climate, as well as supporting employee job performance and job satisfaction which may in turn increase retention.

Gilbert and Sneed (1992) investigated the relationships among organizational commitment and behavioral outcomes such as turnover, absenteeism, and productivity in hospital foodservice departments. The study sampled 423 foodservice employees from nine hospitals. They used two research instruments for collecting data. A historical data instrument was completed by the department director to obtain data to calculate productivity, turnover, and absenteeism rates. And a four-part employee instrument, which included: (a) a 24 item index pertaining organizational culture, (b) a 15 item questionnaire pertaining organizational commitment, (c) a section of five questions to determine perceptions of job satisfaction, and (d) a section of demographic items. They used multiple linear regression analysis to test relationships among variables. Their findings showed that supportive and innovative cultures had positive relationships with both job satisfaction and organizational commitment and that employees rated satisfaction with co-workers highest and satisfaction with pay lowest. This study with these foodservice employees illustrated the importance of organizational culture and its influence on job satisfaction.

SUMMARY

The review of the literature has led to focusing on six areas: (1) retention/turnover, (2) leadership, (3) training, (4) motivation/job satisfaction, (5) organizational culture, and (6) foodservice operations. It appears from this review that for foodservice operations to gain a competitive advantage through reducing turnover they must pursue the utilization of certain leadership practices. While the literature review brings forth several different possible independent variables that may be used as a means of reducing turnover through leadership practices, those that would be under the immediate control of owners/managers are as follows:

1. *Provide direction.* To provide and inspire a common vision with employees that is clear, attractive, and attainable; define priorities, and clarify employees' roles/responsibilities (Bennis & Goldsmith, 2003; Millman, 2003; Morrow et al., 2005).
2. *Lead ethically.* To stand up for your values, confront issues/concerns promptly, make tough choices, and instill trust in others. (Bennis & Goldsmith, 2003; Davis, Schoorman, Mayer & Tan, 2000; Jones & Skarlicki, 2003; Morrow et al., 2005).
3. *Influence others and communicate effectively.* To win support from others, provide constructive feedback, and instill trust (Firth et al., 2004; Goris, Vaught, & Pettit, 2000; Morrow et al., 2005; Sharbrough et al., 2006).
4. *Foster teamwork.* To build team spirit, encourage employee interactions, celebrate accomplishments and provide recognition, and foster an environment of support/collaboration (Kim et al., 2004; Maxwell, 1985; Morrow et al., 2005).
5. *Coach, develop and train others.* To identify and groom talent, offer developmental challenges when appropriate, and to be an example for others to follow (Bennis & Goldsmith, 2003; Berta, 2004).
6. *Motivate and empower job performance.* To empower employees, establish high performance standards and hold high expectations, trust in others' competence, and inspire people to excel. (Bennis & Goldsmith, 2003; Ravichandran, 2005; Robbins & DeCenzo, 2005).
7. *Build relationships and organizational culture.* To build a positive workplace culture, embrace diversity, and manage conflict/complaints fairly and promptly (Aarons & Sawitzky, 2006; Bennis & Goldsmith, 2003; Kratina, 1990; Paswan, Pelton, & True, 2005).

The overall importance of management leadership practices and training as variables related to employee turnover and retention will have to be further identified through a wider examination of the literature. Since so much emphasis pertaining to leadership has been given to big business and large organizations, there is insufficient information to determine how valuable strategic leadership training can be in

influencing even small foodservice operations. Furthermore, since the cost of turnover has such a negative impact on profit and the survival of a foodservice establishment, being able to reduce turnover through motivational procedures would provide foodservice operations with a competitive advantage.

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THE FRENCH WINE INDUSTRY

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The wine industry has witness a vast amount of growth over the past few years. Even though the industry is not dominating the world markets when it comes to menu selections when dining out, it is still gaining in market share and helps a lot of full service restaurants to survive during a time of down turn in discretionary spending. Focusing on the French wine market provides an idea of the complexity of the overall market in that some of the most expensive wines come from France. Knowing the history of the regions wherein fine wine making is indigenous provides a broad knowledge of French wines and the specificities of wines and their locales. Knowing about French wines, it areas of origin, and the pairing of wines with food products might in turn assist owner/operators in developing a vision for enhancing wine sales in the future.

Keywords: French wine, wine industry, wine market

INTRODUCTION

The smell, the taste, the body and the color are primary attributes which define a wine. Wine has been around for centuries and has held a firm position in today's society. Who would have thought that some grapes from a vine could create a juice that is highly favored by many and that the product could have such a vast range in price? According to Marples (2004), in ancient times, there was no such thing as good drinking water. And, since people wanted something to drink with their meals, wine was a wonderful alternative.

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There are some indications that wine was being produced as far back as 6000 B.C. in Mesopotamia. Ancient markings on stone tablets and the walls of tombs appear to show evidence that the Mesopotamians had some idea of how to make wine from grapes. The wine was probably very crude compared to what we drink today, but it was better than the water available for drinking during that era. Therefore, to compensate for the lack of good drinking water the Mesopotamians were actually one of the first pioneers to manufacture wine. The Mesopotamians, like others, drank wine as a form of beverage for dinner and for different special occasions.

This trend of drinking and manufacturing wine has grown to all ends of the world and the procedures for production have increased over time.

Wikipedia states that during the Middle Ages, monks maintained vineyards and, more importantly, enhanced the development of wine making knowledge and skills during that turbulent time period in world history. Monasteries had the resources, security, and motivation to produce a steady supply of wine for both celebrating mass and generating income. During this time the best vineyards were owned by the monasteries and their wine was considered to be superior. Over time the nobility acquired extensive vineyards. However, the French Revolution led to the confiscation of many of the vineyards owned by the Church and others. Wines began to be used as a beverage for celebrations and as a means for generating income. These practices have been carried over to today's society and wine is still used during several religious functions.

One of the countries that took the concept of making wine, especially because of its locale, was France. Because of its climate, locale, taste, texture, and detail process, French wine has been highly favored by many cultures. The production of French wine has its origins in the 6th century B.C., with the colonization of Southern Gaul by Greek settlers. Viticulture soon flourished with the founding of the Greek colony of Marseille. Regions in the south were licensed by the Roman Empire to produce wines. St. Martin of Tours was actively engaged in both spreading Christianity and planting vineyards (Clugnet, 1910). However, the French Revolution led to the confiscation of many of the vineyards owned by the Church and others. Despite some exports from Bordeaux, until about 1850 most wines in France were consumed locally. The spread of railroads and the improvement of roads

reduced the cost of transportation and dramatically increased exports. As the French continued to progress in the production of wine they developed a niche in the wine market. Behind Spain, France now has the world's second-largest total vineyard surface and competes with Italy for the position of having the world's largest wine production.

The earliest history of French wine goes back to the 6th century BC, and many of France's regions trace their wine-making history to Roman times (Wikipedia). France continued to excel in many types of wine such as Cabernet Sauvignon, Chardonnay, Pinot Noir, Sauvignon Blanc and Syrah. These wine are very well produced around France and its borders. They also excelled in the different types of wines like red, white, rose, sparkling and several other varieties. A majority of the wines that are produced in France are based on the region they come from. Most varieties are therefore associated with a certain region, such as Cabernet Sauvignon in Bordeaux and Syrah in Rhône, although there are varieties that are commonly found in two or more regions, such as Chardonnay in Bourgogne (including Chablis) and Champagne, and Sauvignon Blanc in Loire and Bordeaux. As an example of the rules, although climatic conditions would seem to allow good examples to be produced, there are no Cabernet Sauvignon wines from Rhône, Riesling wines from Loire, or Chardonnay wines from Bordeaux. Traditionally, many French wines have been blended from several grape varieties rather than varietally pure. Varietal white wines have been, and are still, more common than varietal red wines (Wikipedia). This stated that all types of wines can not be produced in

any region. These grapes have to be special in that region to produce a quality selection of a specific wine.

Over the years the wine industry has grown tremendously. In today's society, wine tends to be more prone to evening events and other similar activities. Several countries have even formulated some sort of a national wine industry. Countries like Italy, Spain, Australia, and the United States have also claimed a position in this industry. Citizens have always contributed to the purchasing of wine from their countries. However, citizens who choose to endeavor in purchasing from other countries are greatly rewarded in return as there are numerous fine wines throughout the world. France has traditionally been the largest consumer of its own wines (Wikipedia). The French have definitely supported the growth of the French wine industry. However, the French wine industry has found that it is difficult to dominant any type of market because of the vast amount of competition. Several competitors, including the United States, have begun to compete with the French wine industry. Gordon Anderson (2004) stated, that a rash amount of competitors from Australia to Spain has shown dramatic gains in quality and quantity. Additionally, the Euro has soared and has made the French bottles of wine extremely pricey on the world market. The expensive costs of these wines are really being felt in the United States, which is the world's largest wine market.

Along with Anderson's perception of the wine market, Wikipedia suggest that wine consumption has been dropping in France for 40 years. During the decade of the 1990s, per capita consumption dropped by nearly 20 percent. Therefore,

French wines producers must rely on increasing their sales in the foreign markets. Consumption has also been dropping in other potential markets such as Italy, Spain, and Portugal. Competition started to affect the development and sales of wine as new markets formed. Therefore with all the rising markets the French impact was slowly but surely slowing down and/or leveling with the other markets. Anderson actually said the French themselves are drinking less and less wine. Domestic consumption dropped by a least 5 percent last year, and the average person in France now drinks only half as much wine as in the 1960s. So even in France less and less wine is being consumed. With the wineries making more wine than they can sell it is affecting their product because the wine is not moving as fast as they would like.

Recently, French wine manufacturers compiled ideas that could help them regain a stronger niche in the market. Because of the increase amount of competition and the declining market, France realizes that they must increase their sales. Recently, more than 300 French wine co-operatives came together for their 33rd annual conference, with a focus on swift and radical restructuring throughout the industry and a new emphasis on selling wines to unknowledgeable foreigners. There was a strong assertion that the industry must do more to seduce new consumers with little wine-drinking experience. This idea has now been embodied in the group CRAV (Comité Régional d'Action Viticole) action plan (Mercer, 2005). The French are trying to regain what they had along with trying new ideas and new markets so that they can help themselves in becoming more competitive again. From a business

standpoint, their plan included short-term measures to relieve pressure on the industry. This included certain tax exemptions for producers, a fixed minimum wine price for six months as provided for by law in times of crisis, and the ability to make distillation semi-obligatory for wine firms in trouble. Over the long-term, the industry heads said they supported some reform of the European Union's common market in relation to wine (Mercer, 2005). Even though Europe is a large continent, the French should increase their market and expand worldwide because global enterprises are much more rewarding and provide for greater growth.

The French Wine Industry has truly made its mark in the world. Much of the French wine is named by the region in which it is indigenous. So by producing special wines the French wine market would be expected to produce more and with a very high quality. Although there have been emerging international markets there has been a slow down in total sales for the French. Not only is there an increase in the number of other producers, but many people are not consuming wines. The French wine co-operatives are not going to allow their market to go under. Therefore, they are preparing their come back in the wine industry market. The future of wine in today's society is unpredictable due to many factors. A lot of wine is used for cooking and just for special events. The average person, especially in America drinks wine on special occasions and not on a regular basis. Although there have been cases stating that red wine is very healthy, on the other side there is a lot of calories in wine and a vast majority of people are watching their weight. However, with the increase in technology wine will

continue to be explored by other markets and will become more accessible which will increase the amount of competition throughout the market. Because of the increase in competition and a decrease in consumption the wine markets will continue to have to be competitive. Even in the midst of growing competition the French will probably continue to own a major share of the fine wines market because of their specialization and historical methods of preparation.

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THE FUTURE OF ECOTOURISM AND CULTURAL TOURISM AND THE EFFECTS ON THE WORLD

Fasia Lawrence

In spite of the surging gas prices, the travel and tourism industry is still the largest industry in the world. This perception paper focuses on ecotourism and cultural tourism and how the tourism industry is expanding around the world. Tourism is important to us because of the vast number of individuals employed by the tourism and travel industry and because environmental issues have become so extremely important in protecting the world for the future. Ecotourism and cultural tourism are focusing on both the environment and the influence that tourism has on the economy.

Keywords: Ecotourism, cultural tourism, sex tourism, space tourism, medical health tourism

INTRODUCTION

This paper focuses on the importance of the future of ecotourism and cultural tourism and what effects it will have on the world. Ecotourism and cultural tourism is explained and how the futures of tourism activities are expected to expand the globe. The American Heritage Dictionary defines ecotourism and cultural tourism as:

“Ecotourism involves travel to areas of natural or ecological interest, typically under the guidance of a naturalist, for the purpose of observing wildlife and learning about the environment”.

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“Cultural tourism is defined as a subset of tourism concerned with a country or region's culture, especially its arts”.

While ecotourism involves natural or ecological interest, cultural tourism generally focuses on traditional communities who have diverse customs, unique forms of art and distinct social practices, which basically distinguishes it from other types/forms of culture. Cultural tourism includes tourism in urban areas, particularly historic or large cities and their cultural facilities such as museums and theatres.

ECOTOURISM AND CULTURAL TOURISM

Both ecotourism and cultural tourism, as defined, are working definitions because these two subjects are so broad and vast that one single

definition as presented can not pertain to every aspect of them. The lack of attention and interest given to the field of Ecotourism and Cultural tourism is changing with time. There are many possible reasons for this but the most notable reason would be because Ecotourism and Cultural tourism is viewed as a social phenomenon only related to the leisure activities of certain individuals. However, because so many types of tourism are beginning to overlap, many tourism activities are starting to incorporate the niches of Ecotourism and Cultural tourism. Over the last decade travel industry research has confirmed that cultural and heritage tourism is one of the fastest growing segments of the travel industry and tourists today are increasingly seeking new and different experiences (Boyd, 2002).

There are several different types of tourism. For some travelers, cultural and heritage experiences are “value added”, enhancing their enjoyment of a place and increasing the likelihood that they will return. For a growing number of visitors, however, who are tired of the homogenization of places around the world, authentic experiences are an important factors in motivating their travel decisions and expectations. In fact, there are so many different types of tourisms that they tend to overlap each other. Over the years, several tourism activities have begun to over lap each other. Cultural tourism, heritage tourism, sex tourism, space tourism, gay and lesbian tourism, health tourism, wildlife tourism, and several others are beginning to over lap on certain activities.

When we view some of the different types of tourism we can easily see how the sustainability of these

tourisms activities will also impact the world. All of these diverse categories raise issues in the area of public relations. Public relations and marketing have their hands full when it comes to multi-cultural communications, ethics, safety, social responsibility, and globalization. Public relations and marketing have the tasks of promoting, marketing, and constructing images of locations and activities for diverse groups look for diverse types of tourism (lifestyles).

Academics from media sociology and cultural studies have recently become more interested in the field or tourism. Tourism is gaining more attention because of several reasons. Some of these reasons are the cultural tourisms impact and its crisis potential and also the connections to postmodern mega events that are mediated globally. Bringing tourism into the center of public relations study necessarily requires the integration of international and multicultural perspectives. Cultural heritage tourism communities through out the U.S. have developed successful programs linking the arts, humanities, and history to tourism activities. Cultural and heritage organizations such as museums, performing arts organizations, festivals, humanities, and historic preservations groups-have found partnerships with tour operators, state travel offices, convention and visitors bureaus, hotels and air carriers to create initiatives that serve as models for similar efforts across the United States. Eighty one percent of the 146.4 millions U.S. adults who took a trip of 50 miles or more away from home in the past year can be considered cultural and heritage tourists. Over the past year compared to other travelers cultural and heritage tourist spend more.

Sustaining and developing historic and cultural resources which are often within the public domain, depends in part on the need to increase public and private sector investment. For cultural and heritage organizations such investment depends on adopting sound business practices, increasing advocacy of the economic and social benefits of their assets; and diversifying both their product mix and partnerships. Over the last decade, the success of cultural and heritage tourism has prompted many states, regions and cities to undertake a comprehensive look at their cultural and heritage industry as a tool for economic and community development. This holistic policy and investment approach to nurturing the physical and human resources of culture and heritage, both for its profit and non-profit sectors has been labeled the creative economy, which includes but is not limited to the arts, preservation, design film, and music industries.

Comprehensive planning for cultural and heritage development is crucial to assuring positive visitor experiences with minimal adverse impacts on local residents and resources. Tourism planning must be locally driven and focused on the connections between natural, historic and cultural resources and the life of the community itself. Expertise provided by local cultural and heritage organizations and specialists can help the tourism industry satisfy visitor interest in "real places" by providing accurate interpretation of a destination's history and assuring the continued vitality of community life for residents and visitors alike. The tourism planning process should take advantage of technology in coordinating and assisting efforts amongst the different sectors in the cultural and heritage

tourism industry. It should also recognize and encourage the growth of small businesses-both for profit and not for profit services, such as local guided tours, cooperatives selling authentic arts and crafts, galleries, bed and breakfasts, museum shops, and ethnic restaurants, which are all important components that reflect and support the local culture. Capital investments and technical expertise can enhance the cultural and heritage experiences for all audiences through increased programming and giving special attention to the requirements and spirit of the Americans with Disabilities Act. Training and education will assist these institutions and self-employed creative artists to improve their business success, which furthers their sustainability and contribution to the tourism industry.

FORMS OF TOURISM

Space tourism is going to have mass appeal in the 21st century. Tourism offers the possibility of very large – scale space transport activities. This will reduce the cost of getting into orbit. One analyst's study shows that space tourism will provide the strongest economic incentive for developing the space industry and society in the 21st century. Phases of Space tourism like any other business has different phases, once space tourism gets started it will develop progressively. It can be helpful to think of it as going through several phases. Starting with a relatively small-scale and relatively high-priced "pioneering phase", the scale of activity will grow and prices will fall as it matures. Finally it will become a mass-market business, like aviation today.

Sex tourism are trips organized from within the tourism sector, or from

outside this sector but using its structures and networks, with the primary purpose of effecting a commercial sexual relationship by the tourist with residents at the destination. The U.N. opposes sex tourism citing health, social and cultural consequences for both tourist home countries and destination countries, especially in situations exploiting gender, age, social and economic inequalities in sex tourism destinations. National destinations for sex tourists include Thailand, Brazil, Sri Lanka, Dominican Republic, Costa Rica, and Cuba. This sector of tourism only affects Ecotourism and Cultural tourism because the national destination locations for this type of tourism has major appeal within the field of ecotourism and cultural tourism.

Gay and Lesbian tourism is a form of niche tourism marketed to gay people who are open about their sexual orientation who wish to travel to gay travel destinations in order to participate to some extent in the gay life of the destination area. As an industry it has some substantial maturity, and includes such specialists as travel agents, tour companies, cruise lines and travel advertising and promotions companies who market these destinations to the gay community. Travel destinations are often large cities, although not exclusively, and often coincide with the existence of gay neighborhoods. These municipalities and their tourism bureaus often work actively to develop their reputations as places for gays to travel to, commonly by aligning themselves to local gay organizations. The U.S. market is regarded as being the most important source of LGBT tourism practitioners, followed by the European market as the next most important. Gay tourism practitioners spend \$64 billion a year on

gay travel, according to Community Marketing Inc. The adult LGBT community has a total economic spending power of more than \$600 billion per year, according to Wietck Combs. Philadelphia and Community Marketing found that for every one dollar invested in gay tourism marketing, \$153 was returned in direct economic spending in shops, hotels, restaurants and attractions. Major companies in the tourism industry have become aware of the substantial money generated by this marketing niche, and have made it a point to align themselves with the gay community and gay tourism campaign. This important market segment is expected to continue to grow as a result of a change in world-wide attitudes to homosexuality. The gay and lesbian segment is estimated as a \$55 billion annual market (Wikipedia, 2008).

Medical health tourism is a term initially coined by travel agencies and the mass media to describe the rapidly-growing practice of traveling across international borders to obtain health care. Such services typically include elective procedures as well as complex specialized surgeries such as joint replacement (knee/hip), cardiac surgery, dental surgery, and cosmetic surgeries. The provider and customer use informal channels of communication-connection-contract, with less regulatory or legal oversight to assure quality and less formal recourse to reimbursement or redress, if needed. Leisure aspects typically associated with travel and tourism may be included on such medical travel trips. Prospective medical tourism patients need to keep in mind the extra cost of travel and accommodations when deciding on treatment locations. A specialized subset of medical tourism is reproductive

tourism, which is the practice of traveling abroad to undergo in-vitro fertilization and other assisted reproductive technology treatments. A few U.S. employers have started offering incentives in their employee benefit packages such as paying for air travel and waiving out-of-pocket expenses for care outside of the U.S. For example, in January 2008, Hannaford Bros., a supermarket chain based in Maine, began paying the entire medical bill for employees to travel to Singapore for hip and knee replacements, including travel for the patient and companion. Other employers have been less public about their benefit changes. Medical travel packages can integrate with all types of health insurance, including limited benefit plans, preferred provider organizations and high deductible health plans. Insurers are beginning to establish partnerships with overseas health providers to treat their insured.

Most recently an article by T. J. Burgonio Philippine of the *Daily Inquirer* (2008) stated that the House of Representatives has approved on the final reading of two bills declaring some parcels of land on islands, particularly Boracay, as agricultural land open for ecotourism development. Lawmakers voted to approve on third and final reading House Bill No. 453; this would provide that land belonging to the public domain on small islands with a size of 50,000 hectares or less but with great potential for tourism may be converted for ecotourism ventures such as resorts, eco-parks and hotels. The disposition of the agricultural lands will be governed by the Public Land Act. The lawmakers also approved on final reading a related measure, House Bill No. 1109, declaring land on Boracay island as agricultural land open to disposition for agricultural,

residential, commercial, and industrial purposes. Boracay Island off Malay town, Aklan, famous for the white sand, is a popular tourist resort in the country. The two were among a raft of bills that the lawmakers approved on final reading Tuesday night.

SUMMARY

Ever since George Washington Carver discussed the importance of rotating crops, sustainability of business ventures was brought to the fore front. We now understand the importance of maintaining the environment while trying to enhance our economy. Sustainable tourism in its purest sense is an industry committed to making a low impact on the natural environment and local culture, while helping to generate income and employment for local citizens. Global economists forecast continuing international tourism growth, ranging between three and six percent annually, depending on the location. As one of the world's largest and fastest growing industries, this continuous growth will place great stress on remaining biologically diverse habitats and indigenous cultures, which are often used to support mass tourism. Tourists who promote sustainable tourism are sensitive to these dangers and seek to protect tourist destinations, and to protect tourism as an industry. Destinations and tourism operations are endorsing and following "responsible tourism" as a pathway towards sustainable tourism. Responsible tourism and sustainable tourism have an identical goal, that of sustainable development. The pillars of responsible tourism are therefore the same as those of sustainable tourism – environmental integrity, social justice and economic

development. The major difference between the two is that, in responsible tourism, individuals, organizations and businesses are asked to take responsibility for their actions and the impacts of their actions.

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