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Competing Values in the Culinary Arts and Hospitality Industry: Leadership Roles and Managerial Competencies

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Competing values in the culinary arts and hospitality industry

Leadership roles and managerial competencies

Michael W. Riggs and Aaron W. Hughey

Abstract: It is important that education and training programmes align with the needs of the professions they are designed to support. The culinary arts and hospitality industry is a vocational area that needs to be examined more closely to ensure that the skills and competencies taught are those that will actually be needed when students matriculate from career preparation programmes. This study compared the self-assessed leadership roles and managerial competencies of hospitality students and hospitality management professionals in employment. Using the Competing Values Framework (CVF) as a theoretical framework, eight leadership roles and 24 managerial competencies were examined in an effort to identify similarities and differences between the two groups. The authors found limited significant differences between the perceptions of the two groups; overall, the ranking of leadership roles and managerial competencies by the two populations were very similar. Implications for academic culinary arts and hospitality programmes are also presented, together with recommendations for future inquiry.

Keywords: leadership and managerial competencies; competing values; culinary arts; hospitality industry

The management skills and leadership characteristics demanded by today’s employers in the hospitality and culinary arts sectors are very different from those of the past (Shivpuri and Kim, 2004; Umbreit, 1993). Hospitality and culinary arts educators are preparing students for what some regard as one of the most demanding professions in the world (Barren and Maxwell, 1993). Research suggests a gap may exist between the leadership skills and managerial competencies of college students studying hospitality management and culinary arts and the managerial competencies and leadership skills needed to be
successful in the industry (Hertzman and Stefanelli, 2005; Sim, 1994). In order for hospitality management and culinary arts programmes to be successful in preparing the future leaders and managers of this industry, it is important to examine this potential gap further and, if found to exist, for it to be closed. While researching management proficiency in the United Kingdom, Johnson and Winterton (1999) concluded that theories, concepts, and tacit knowledge gained from performing tasks must be merged together as part of the academic experience. Emenheiser et al (1998) commented that it is crucial for entry-level graduates to be educated in the areas of management and leadership: ‘Identifying these skills and characteristics is critical for the success of the managers and the business’ (p 54).

What is at stake is significant. Colleges and universities may be failing to prepare graduates adequately for the demands and expectations of industry (Robinson, 2006). Atkins (1999) stated that ‘Over the last decade there has been a steady stream of reports and papers urging the higher education sector to take key, core transferable and employability skills into the heart of students’ learning experiences’ (as cited in Robinson, 2006, p 3). There is a feeling among some industry employers that educators are neither adequately nor successfully developing graduates who possess the employability skills needed to compete in today’s complex hospitality industry (Hertzman, 2006). Students may lack the basic skills needed to be effective and are not ready for the demands that will be placed on them in the workforce (Peddle, 2000). Equally, educators sometimes find themselves in a philosophical battle over the fundamental mission of higher education and its relation to the needs of industry (Chung-Herrera et al, 2003). Critical to this debate is achieving consensus with regard to the skills and competencies students need in order to succeed in the industry (Okeiyi et al, 1994; Tetreault, 1997).

A global perspective

Ricci (2010) observed that the curricular requirements in hospitality programmes in the United States were particularly inconsistent, a finding which has implications with regard to aligning educational programmes with career needs. Nolan et al (2010) examined employer and graduate views on the competencies necessary for success in the hospitality industry in Ireland and found that both groups regarded interpersonal and professional-knowledge skills as being important, although gaps were identified with respect to how well the education experience prepared graduates for careers. Agut et al (2003) studied the competency requirements identified by hotel and restaurant managers in the Spanish hospitality industry and found that perceived needs do not necessarily lead to a call for greater training and education. Zopiatis (2010) looked specifically at the perceptions of chefs in Greece and found that technical (culinary-specific) competencies were considered more important than leadership-management competencies. Diplari and Dimou (2010) examined the tourism industry – which is closely related to the culinary arts and hospitality industry – in Greece and found a perceived need for more practice-oriented elements in the curriculum.

Yup Chung (2000) examined how the required skills and competencies that were identified could be used in a plan for reforming the hotel management curriculum of Korean universities. Walo (2000), in her research on the Australian hospitality industry, stated that ‘to meet the future demands for appropriately skilled managers and workers, ongoing collaboration and consultation with industry is required to ensure the goals of all the primary stakeholders – students, educators and industry employers – are met’ (p 3). Jauhari (2006), in his study of the competencies needed for a career in the Indian hospitality industry, commented on the need for curricula that have a heavy focus on leadership and competency development to meet industry expectations and needs: ‘The role of academic institutions is inevitable in shaping competencies of future managers. The curriculum of the programmes determines the nature of competence in an industry’ (p 5).

The importance of alignment

In their research on graduate level hospitality education, Enz et al (1993) concluded that faculty instructors in hospitality education do not have the same perspectives as industry leaders with regard to what skills are the most important to teach. This difference in perspectives may affect students’ career prospects and success. Technical competencies, leadership, problem identification and solving and a ‘get things done’ attitude were identified as important issues to be addressed in the culinary arts and hospitality education experience (Enz, 2004; Reynolds, 2000; Tas et al, 1996; Umbriet, 1992). Mayo and Thomas-Haysbert (2005) examined the critical performance measures used to assess hospitality and tourism management graduates and concluded that educators have an obligation to ‘develop curricula and assessment tools, around the soft skills...’ and they further noted that ‘six basic components of the hospitality and tourism management curriculum should be based on: communication, leadership, interpersonal skills, revenue and financial analysis, marketing and operations skill’ (p 15). Their findings mirrored those of Umbriet (1993) who
recognized leadership, human resource management, marketing, financial analysis, total quality management, and communication skills as essential for success in the industry, although faculty staff have traditionally focused more on areas of analytical processes such as literature knowledge and conceptual thinking. ‘The challenge in curriculum design is to blend the vision of faculty with that of the students and of industry...’ (p 95).

As the culinary arts and hospitality industry continues to become increasingly complex, global and specialized, it is vital that graduates of college and university hospitality, tourism, restaurant management and culinary arts programmes are able to function effectively as management trainees (Baum, 1990). The industry needs graduates of post-secondary hospitality management and culinary arts programmes who are prepared to assume leadership roles. ‘Providing society-ready graduates that are able to conduct business affairs and resolve management issues in the industry must be of vital interest to the hospitality educators as well as the industry leaders’ (Ogbeide, 2006, p 34). Extensive research demonstrates the desirability of college graduates being in possession of specific management competencies in the hospitality industry (Mayo and Thomas-Haysbert, 2005; Perdue et al, 2000; Tas et al, 1996; Wilson et al, 2000). Chung-Herrera et al (2003), for example, found that competency models can be useful tools for identifying and grooming future leaders in the hospitality industry and they compiled a list of almost 100 competencies that are considered essential; self-management was ranked as the most critical.

Research questions

The purpose of the current study was to compare the self-assessed managerial competencies and leadership roles of culinary arts and hospitality management students and industry management professionals. The similarities and the differences between these two groups have implications for the development of academic curricula in hospitality (Garavan and Morley, 1997; Kelley-Patterson and George, 2001). More needs to be done to align educators with the hospitality industry, specifically regarding the managerial competencies and leadership roles industry management professionals indicate are needed. In particular, two research questions were addressed:

(1) which leadership roles and management competencies are perceived as most important among culinary arts and hospitality management professionals? and

(2) which leadership roles and management competencies are perceived as most important among culinary arts and hospitality management students?

Inherent in the answers to these questions was a determination of whether culinary arts and hospitality management professionals perceive leadership roles and management competencies differently.

The Competing Values Framework

The Competing Values Framework (CVF) is a model for presenting the four dominant management models of organizational effectiveness developed during the 20th century (Quinn et al, 2007). The relationships between the models are presented using two axes (see Figure 1): the vertical axis represents the range from ‘flexibility’ to ‘control’ and the horizontal axis represents the range from ‘internal organizational focus’ to ‘external organizational focus’ (Quinn et al, 2007). The internal emphasis focuses on the well-being of the individual: the external emphasis focuses on the well-being of the organization and reflects a contrast between the management concepts of stability and control and flexibility and change. In addition to the four management theories presented in the CVF, eight leadership roles fall within the four defined quadrants, with two leadership roles associated with each of the four management theories. Each of the eight leadership roles compliments the roles located next to it in the model and contrasts with the roles opposite it; and three managerial competencies are associated with each role, resulting in a total of 24 competencies (Quinn et al, 2007).
Research design and implementation

An independent measures, intra-subjects design was used to compare two separate and independent samples using self-assessment tools (Gravetter and Wallnau, 2004). Culinary arts and hospitality management students and industry management professionals in employment were compared using the 24 management competencies and eight leadership roles associated with the CVF model. Descriptive statistics were used to analyze the demographic data gathered on both populations. Composite mean scores for the sample population for each of the 24 management competencies, the eight leadership behaviours and the demographic profiles of the CVF gathered using the SAMS and CVMPS instruments were generated. Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used to evaluate the mean differences between the groups on the 32 factors of the CVF and the demographic profiles in order to draw conclusions about the two populations (Krosnick, 1999).

Participants

The estimated population for students enrolled in culinary arts and hospitality management programmes in the Commonwealth of Kentucky at the time of this study was N=700. The number of industry management professionals who matched the research guidelines as working professionals and were listed as members of the two professional associations used in this project was N=811. All students who participated in this study were enrolled in post-secondary culinary arts programmes in technical and community college associate undergraduate degree programmes and hospitality, tourism, and restaurant management bachelor’s (undergraduate) degree programmes located in the Commonwealth of Kentucky. Industry management professionals were defined as those individuals who had been working full-time in a management or supervisory role for a minimum of 3 years in the hospitality or culinary industry, specifically in food and beverage operations. The benchmark of 3 years was selected on the basis of the criteria of three of the prominent industry associations in the USA that grant professional certifications in the hospitality industry: the American Culinary Federation, The National Restaurant Association Education Foundation and the American Hotel and Lodging Education Institute.

Instruments

The Self-Assessment of Managerial Skills (SAMS) and the Competing Values Managerial Practices Survey (CVMPS) were used to gather data from both populations on the 32 factors of the CVF in order to compare self-assessed leadership roles and managerial competencies between hospitality education students and working industry management professionals (DiPadova-Stocks and St Clair, 2007). The SAMS instrument consists of 120 competency statements that describe a variety of skills associated with the 24 managerial competencies. The CVMPS contains 36 statements related to managerial practices within the eight leadership roles of the CVF. Quinn (1988) established validity and reliability for the extended version of the Competing Value Instrument: Managerial Leadership Survey after using the instrument in an analysis of subordinates in the utilities industry. Lawrence et al (2009) validated the CVF in their recent research concerned with testing the psychometric properties of a new instrument to measure behaviour repertoire and reported that ‘. . .we designed an elaborated, multi-dimensional instrument based on the Competing Values Framework (CVF). . .our data largely support the theoretical structure and stringent demands of the CVF model as applied to this instrument’ (p 1). Other, previous studies using these instruments (Blackwell, 2004; DiPadova and Faerman, 1993; Faerman et al, 1987; Hooijberg and Choi, 2000; Quinn, 1988; Vilkinas and Cartan, 1997; Walo, 2000) have also found them to be valid and reliable.

Methodology

Surveys were distributed to hospitality education students through their instructors, direct mailed to industry management professionals and hand-delivered to personal professional contacts (Jaeger, 1984). A demographic questionnaire was included in the survey material to collect data on respondents such as age, gender, race, current position held, level of educational qualifications, professional certifications, type of industry experience, and so on. Surveys for post-secondary hospitality education students were distributed by faculty staff of the programmes participating in the project to collect the student sample population data. A letter of introduction and a brief synopsis of the research project were forwarded to faculty members at the participating institutions via e-mail before the study was initiated. Programme instructors distributed the recruiting flyer to students enrolled in the various programmes who were potential study participants. The flyer described the purpose and method of the research. Student survey packs containing a demographic questionnaire, the SAMS and the CVMPS instruments and a letter of introduction explaining the project, with the informed-consent preamble included, were mailed to the instructors with instructions and distribution and collection guidelines. The faculty instructors of the programmes at each
participating institution were given a timeframe for student survey packs to be distributed, collected from the participants and then returned to the researcher via mail.

Industry management professionals were recruited in two stages. The first mailing included a pre-notification letter with an introduction to the research and recruitment flyer which provided a brief overview of the project. The second mailing contained the SAMS and the CVMPS instruments, the informed-consent letter, the demographic questionnaire and a postage-paid, return-addressed envelope. Industry packs were also provided to individuals with whom an established professional contact was in place, together with their management teams.

Survey packs were distributed to \(N=260\) hospitality education students, \(N=217\) industry management professionals who were members of the two industry related professional associations used in this project and \(N=48\) industry professionals with whom the first author had established professional contact in order to gather quantitative data. These samples were taken from larger populations of industry professionals and hospitality management students in the Commonwealth of Kentucky.

### Results

#### Response rate and demographics

Of the 265 survey packs distributed to industry professionals, 68 were returned and 67 (25.3%) were considered appropriate for data analysis. Of the 260 survey packs distributed to culinary arts and hospitality management students, 172 were returned and 169 (66.1%) were considered appropriate for data analysis. Demographic data were collected in both samples to create a profile of the participants: industry respondents were 89% Caucasian, the mean age was 39 years and 61% were male. Mean work experience was 12 years in the industry, with 43% having 15 years or more experience. Post-secondary education attainment was 70% with an associate degree or higher.

Student participant demographics were separated into two groups, hospitality management students and culinary arts students, in order to present an expanded profile of this population. Culinary arts students were 75% Caucasian, the largest group, 65%, fell within the age range of 17–23 years and 54% were female. Of those enrolled in culinary arts programmes, 15% had already gained an associate degree or higher. The largest group, 93%, had at least 1–5 years of industry work experience. Hospitality management students were 78% Caucasian, the largest group, 82%, fell within the age range of 18–24 years and 55% were female. Of those enrolled in hospitality management programmes, 17% had already gained an associate degree or higher. The largest group, 62%, had industry work experience of at least 1–5 years. The analysis of the demographic data presents the similarities between the two student groups and provides additional support for the decision to merge the two groups in the research design.

#### SAMS and CVMPS

Limited differences were found between the two populations (see Table 1 and Figure 2). Both populations ranked the mentor, coordinator, monitor, and producer roles of the CVF in the top half of the rank order and director, innovator, facilitator and broker roles in the bottom half. This suggests a commonality in the perceived importance of the leadership role between the two groups, related to the four management philosophies of the CVF (Lamond, 2003). Two of the top four factors, coordinator and monitor, are the leadership roles associated with the Internal Process management model which is characterized by productivity and being driven by bottom-line profit, clear directions and goals, rational analysis, action taking and competitive management. Two of the bottom four factors, innovator and broker, are the leadership roles of the Open Systems management model whose

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Industry</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std deviation</th>
<th>Student</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mentor</td>
<td>5.62</td>
<td>1.097</td>
<td>Coordinator</td>
<td>5.670</td>
<td>0.837</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coordinator</td>
<td>5.59</td>
<td>0.838</td>
<td>Producer</td>
<td>5.631</td>
<td>0.987</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monitor</td>
<td>5.50</td>
<td>1.004</td>
<td>Mentor</td>
<td>5.630</td>
<td>1.150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Producer</td>
<td>5.43</td>
<td>0.807</td>
<td>Monitor</td>
<td>5.606</td>
<td>1.051</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Director</td>
<td>5.40</td>
<td>1.015</td>
<td>Director</td>
<td>5.602</td>
<td>1.060</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Innovator</td>
<td>5.35</td>
<td>0.888</td>
<td>Innovator</td>
<td>5.370</td>
<td>1.045</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facilitator</td>
<td>4.90</td>
<td>1.105</td>
<td>Broker</td>
<td>5.240</td>
<td>1.166</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Broker</td>
<td>4.82</td>
<td>1.159</td>
<td>Facilitator</td>
<td>5.230</td>
<td>1.105</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
characteristics are creativity, innovation, adaptability and flexibility: this management style uses creative problem solving, adapts to political change and is able to acquire and maintain external resources and support.

These two management models represent competing philosophies of the four theories of the CVF (Lamond, 2003). The mentor role falls within the Human Relations management model and the producer role falls within the Rational Goal model; and these two management models are also competing management philosophies of the CVF. The director role falls within the Rational Goal model and the facilitator role falls within the Human Relations model. While these four leadership roles do not directly align with the CVF format, they do fall within competing management philosophies of the four theories of the CVF (Quinn et al, 2007). Student mean scores were higher than industry professionals on all factors of the CVMPS.

Statistically significant differences were found between the two groups in the broker role \( F(1, 234) = 5.97, p<0.05, (0.01) \) and the facilitator role \( F(1, 234) = 4.128, p<0.05, (0.04) \) of the CVMPS. Competencies associated with the broker role are growth, expansion, and resource acquisition. The facilitator role has a focus on ‘people skills’, building cohesion, and employee morale, as previously cited in this text. Students had higher mean scores than industry professionals for the two leadership roles with statistical significance. While not in the same rank order, with the exception of building and maintaining a power base (ranked fourth by both populations) and using participative decision making (ranked in the top ten by only the student population), and developing and communicating a vision (ranked in the top ten by only the industry professionals), both populations ranked the same nine of ten managerial skills in the top 10 of the 24 managerial skills accessed by the SAMS survey.

Industry results showed higher mean scores from students for six of the top ten managerial skills: three of the top ten had higher mean scores from students and one mean score was the same for both groups. The managerial skills ranked by both populations in the top ten in addition to those already mentioned were understanding self and others, working productively, building and maintaining a power base, living with change, building teams, developing employees, communicating effectively, fostering a productive work environment and setting goals and objectives. Within the CVF, the managerial skills of understanding self and others, communicating effectively and developing employees are the three associated with the mentor role. Characteristics of this management style are active participation and collaboration, conflict resolution, consensus building, commitment, cohesion, morale and being team oriented. Building teams is associated with the facilitator role, living with change is associated with the innovator role, building and maintaining a power base is associated with the broker role, and working productively and fostering a productive work environment are associated with the producer role. The participants also ranked the final six managerial skills the same, with the exception of designing and organizing and managing change, which were reversed.

The managerial skills included presenting ideas, managing core processes, managing across functions, and managing projects. Post hoc analysis was also conducted to determine if significant differences existed within groups: the analysis compared results from hospitality and culinary arts students. Statistically significant differences did exist in the self-assessment of managerial skills instrument in the areas of managing projects \( F(1, 167) = 4.81, p<0.05, (0.03) \), managing across functions \( F(1, 167) = 3.98, p<0.05, (0.04) \), thinking creatively \( F(1, 167) = 3.81, p<0.05, (0.05) \) and, while not statistically significant, managing time and stress creatively \( F(1, 167) = 2.95, p<0.05, (0.08) \) showed some differences. The outcomes for the SAMS instrument showed that culinary arts students had higher mean scores than hospitality management students for each of the significant areas presented.

Discussion

The data acquired through the current study, which show both similarities as well as significant differences between the perceptions of the two populations, can be used to improve curricula in academia and training for industry. Moreover, areas in which there was a lack of agreement between the populations can be viewed as an affirmation that students currently enrolled in hospitality management and culinary arts post-secondary
programmes have the same views regarding which leadership and management skills are important (Nolan et al, 2010). Academic and industry professionals should focus on the development of curriculum and training materials that link directly to developing the leadership roles and managerial competencies needed to be successful in the industry (Hogan, 1989; Lefever and Withiam, 1998). In those areas where differences were discovered, the same implications can be drawn although further inquiry will be needed to understand more explicitly why these differences exist.

Mean score rankings for the leadership roles had a smaller range for the students (5.6–5.2) than for the industry professionals (5.6–4.8). The students’ limited range on the eight leadership roles may be a reflection of the academic focus on management theories that students are exposed to in human resource, managerial and supervisory courses in post-secondary curricula (Baum, 1990). Students lack practical experience in applying these theories in actual leadership situations (Berta, 2006) and so all of the leadership roles appear to them to be important. Industry professionals had a larger range of mean scores. This group, which does have the ‘real-world’ experience in operations management that comes from using different leadership styles in industry settings, is more likely to consider ranking the roles more objectively, resulting in this larger range (Breiter and Clements, 1996). Students had higher mean scores than industry professionals for both the broker role, which is focused on growth, expansion and resource acquisition, and the facilitator role, which has a focus on ‘people skills’ such as building cohesion and employee morale; both were statistically significant differences. While both areas are important to a successful hospitality operation, they may be perceived as more important by students than by industry professionals (Billington, 2005). Students may associate their understanding of management theory and leadership roles as being critical to their ultimate success in the industry, whereas the manager of a day-to-day food and beverage operation may be more concerned about the bottom line (that is, profit) than the acquisition of resources, expansion, or team building as a way to enhance morale (Faerman et al, 1987).

The similarities between the two groups when ranking the managerial skills were evident. The consistency between the rankings of the top 10 managerial skills by both groups indicates that current students are learning (or already possess) a mind-set that is conducive to working in this industry and in line with those of current industry professionals. The similarities in the ranking of the final six managerial competencies demonstrate that both students and industry professionals have some specific managerial skills or competencies that need to be developed in both academia and industry training programmes (Enz, et al, 1993). The data also indicated that within the managerial skills self-assessment, culinary students showed higher mean score differences for each of the managerial skills presented as having significant differences. In the skill area of managing projects, chefs perform this competency on a constant basis; thinking creatively is the cornerstone of the culinary arts profession, and managing time and stress are fundamental skills needed to be a successful chef in today’s fast-paced and high-stress food and beverage industry (Zopiatis, 2010).

Further analysis revealed differences between hospitality management and culinary arts students. Culinary arts students again showed higher mean scores for each of the leadership roles presented as having significant differences, these being in the leadership roles of producer, broker and facilitator. These roles are indicative and reflective of the work ethic of successful chefs (Zopiatis, 2010) who are productive, focused and hard working professionals who expect the same work ethic from others. Moreover, they tend to be oriented toward career and facility growth, expansion of kitchen operations and responsibilities and the acquisition of more resources (Chung-Herrera et al, 2003). Chefs also understand the need for cohesion and team work in a kitchen (Emenheiser et al, 1998).

Culinary students are exposed to hands-on applications of these managerial skills and leadership roles as part of their education process in laboratories, classrooms and culinary kitchens (Agut et al, 2003; Cichy et al, 1992). Culinary education is naturally skills-based, with kinesthetic learning formats supported by traditional academic and theory-based curricula: in contrast, bachelor degree curricula are primarily theory-based (Assante, 2005; Astin, 1999). This difference in the academic structure may help explain the outcomes of the intra-groups data analysis. While limited, these outcomes do show that there are differences between these two groups and supports the need for further research.

Limitations
As with any inquiry in the social sciences, the current study is not without inherent limitations (Ferber, 1977). First, the data collected were limited to those individuals within the sample populations who responded to the direct mail packs, participated in the classroom surveying process, or were given the survey packs by the first author (Gravetter and Wallnau, 2004; Heberlein and Baumgartner, 1978). Second, the study was also limited to those students enrolled in hospitality education programmes within the Commonwealth of
Kentucky who participated in the project. As such, the results may not be applicable to students enrolled in hospitality and related education programmes in other geographic regions (Agut et al, 2003; Diplari and Dimou, 2010). Third, the study does not represent all sectors of the hospitality and culinary arts industry, nor does it represent all industry management professionals within the hospitality and culinary arts profession (Nolan et al, 2010; Ricci, 2010). The implications of these findings to other populations of both students and professionals will have to be investigated through additional studies.

Conclusion and recommendations

The information obtained through this study should permit faculty staff to meet industry needs more accurately by preparing graduates to be more effective and successful managers; that is, it should increase awareness of the specific managerial competencies and leadership styles needed for success (Shivpuri and Kim, 2004; Peddle, 2000). It has the potential to assist in the development of better relationships between industry and academia as both work to apply the knowledge gained by improving hospitality management education and industry training formats (Umbreit, 1993). As noted previously, a gap may exist between industry and education (Hertzman and Stefanelli, 2005; Sim, 1994). For example, industry representatives typically do not put as much credence on advisory boards as do educators (Hertzman, 2006). In too many instances, industry seeks candidates for employment from academic institutions when there is a staffing need but do not take an active role in the development of that labour force (Harrington et al, 2005). In the United States, the industry has long provided financial support in the form of scholarships, donations for equipment, supplies, and facilities (Hertzman et al, 2005). What is missing is a commitment to active participation and consistent involvement in the education and training process at the secondary and post-secondary level (Atkins, 1999).

The findings of the current study could also be used to enhance the development of culinary arts and hospitality management curricula at the secondary and post-secondary level (Umbreit, 1992). To maximize efficacy, the curriculum needs to be as relevant and current as possible, while still retaining its fundamental focus (Buergermeister, 1983). Such research will help practitioners and instructors to incorporate better leadership development practices into curricula, to reinforce those leadership areas found to be consistent between the two populations and to address those managerial competencies and leadership roles that students may be lacking and which are ranked highly by hospitality management professionals (Wilson et al, 2000). This change will only take place if the current traditional models of hospitality and culinary education are changed from theory-based lecture to more project-based and hands-on applications (Walo, 2000). Industry professionals should consider taking a more active role by making more of a direct impact in the classroom, including serving on programme advisory boards (VanLandingham, 1994). Academic professionals should also make sure their working knowledge of the latest trends and best practices is current (Yup Chung, 2000). It is not uncommon in academia to find educators whose experience in the industry is limited and whose working knowledge is outdated and therefore no longer relevant to the modern hospitality industry (Peddle, 2000). Academia needs to be more proactive in hiring industry-experienced candidates and providing continuous professional development for educators, to ensure appropriate knowledge and methodology is being taught (Tetreault, 1997).

Although limited differences between the two populations were found using the CVF and its associated survey instruments, it is possible that more measureable differences between these populations might exist (Sim, 1994). The present findings may have implications for a broader population which could be confirmed through further studies using larger sample populations and more specific groups within those populations. A separation of the populations used in the current study, together with a focus on intra-group analysis and a comparative study of each group using the CVF and some of the other survey instruments associated with it, should yield more specific data with higher levels of significance (Jaeger, 1984; Schwarz, 1999).

Finally, additional research with an emphasis on demographic factors such as gender, age and ethnicity may yield data that are more focused and applicable in academia and industry training. The more specific the data, the better the understanding of the issues will become and the greater the potential for its use in education and training (Kalliath et al, 1999). If both academia and industry remain on the current path of reaction instead of action, the hospitality industry will continue to experience critical shortages of prepared managerial and hourly-paid skilled workers (Chung-Herrera, 2003).

Notes

1Advisory Boards in colleges and universities in the USA provide a means for increased communication between the university and local community leaders. They help to improve the learning environment for students and provide a more informed view of
the local community for academic personnel. Board members can also provide access to potential employment opportunities for graduates and to potential research and service opportunities for the academic staff. Boards are typically composed, for the most part, of non-educators who possess experience and knowledge in the vocational areas for which they are appointed.

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