AN EXPLORATORY STUDY OF THE HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT AND TREND ANALYSIS OF RESTAURANT CUISINE

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CUISINE

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this work:

To: my parents Donato Camillo and Carolina Alfieri who did not live long enough to celebrate the achievement of my ultimate academic career goal, and who have encouraged me to strive not to be good but the best I can be, always.

To: my wife Maggie for her love, understanding and support in reaching my dream and for her perseverance and power of conviction in convincing me that I should never abandon what I set out to accomplish

To: my sister Francesca who has always been there for me and for playing the role of mother during my childhood

To: my daughter Isabell who has always been proud of me and my achievements

To: my elementary school teacher, Enrico Fioretti who guided me for five years through the first steps of my educational career which was the building block of my achievement today

To: Reverend Don Peppe Di Stefano, my pastoral guide. Without him I would have not embarked in the hospitality career and traveled the world. He guided me and taught me to have faith and never to be afraid.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Since the beginning of civilization, the search for food [(1)] played a major role in the bio-cultural evolution of man and eating culture has been at the center of his evolution. Societies have established harmony with specific preferences among their own members, their natural environment, their economies and the universe that surrounds them. They have also established a choice of foods and drinks and developed a system to produce them, prepare them, and adapt them to their own taste. These series of events have created food cultures, rituals, and symbolism among societies and nations. With the birth of the restaurant in the Palais Royal in 1783 (Blake & Crewe, 1978), patrons became accustomed to generating demand; chefs in turn responded to it or anticipated such a demand by creating new dishes, new menus and by staying ahead of it. In an evolving global environment, the cuisine of the world is produced locally almost anywhere, much to the credit and efficiency of the food supply chain.

The food industry has adapted to the industry - wide trends and cuisine has been subject to change just the same as the world economy. Since the early nineteen hundreds, societies have lived through the era of industrialization, mechanization, automation, and robotics. The restaurant industry benefited from the industrial revolution and from the first commercial kitchen equipment invented by the Count Rumford, (1753–1814), (born Benjamin Thompson) (Brown, 1981). Clearly such trends have significantly impacted the

world economies, people's well being, and their living standards, eating habits, demands, expectations, and future trends. This paper will analyze the historical development of Italian cuisine in Italy and in America, and endeavor to develop a conceptual model to forecast future trends of restaurant cuisine applicable to all cuisines.

Assumptions

It was assumed that historical trends reflect factual events and establish the basis for future trends. Forecasting techniques included the thorough investigation of historical "PEST" (political, economic, social and technological) facts, which may be key determinants for future trends. Also it was assumed that the restaurant segment is replete with historical data to obtain the necessary information as building blocks for future research and for the development of a trend forecasting model to help predict how restaurant cuisines may develop in the future. Also, it was assumed that the restaurant segment is replete with historical data that provide the necessary information to conduct this study.

Purpose of This Study

The purpose of this study was to explore the historical development and analyze trends of restaurant cuisine, using Italian Cuisine in America as an example.

Problem Statement

Analyzing the historical development and future trends of restaurant cuisine will be an integral part of future research studies for the development a model for forecasting future cuisine trends. Forecasting future trends in restaurant cuisine will be of vital importance to

professionals responsible for multiple tasks such as investment, creating new markets, increasing company market shares, and bringing innovation and investing into new ventures, thus responding to consumer demands in a global environment. Accurate and timely information about what is likely to happen to the economy and society in the future has always been of value to business decision-makers.

There are reports throughout history of unusual forecasting techniques - often shrouded in mysticism (Namvar, 2000). While current economic forecasts may still seem to some to be mystically derived, today's economic forecasters tend to rely more on data, computer models, and economic theories rather than divine inspiration, although, given the accuracy of their forecasts, one might question the change in tactics. However, forecasting has become an important part of planning for any other business; sales forecasts impact the inventory of finished goods and raw materials, the need for personnel, space requirements, and financing, among other things. Macroeconomic forecasts may influence whether and where a business decides to expand, and the type and amount of financing that is used.

The development of modern economic theories such as the business cycle theory, the creation of various indexes including the indexes of leading and lagging economic indicators, and sophisticated computer programs, have given rise to new forecasting techniques. One of the key assumptions for most forecasters is that the past serves as the most important guide to the future. That does not mean that the future is a re-run of the past such as the fashion industry, or that data about the past should be the only basis for a forecast.

Obviously, socioeconomic conditions and global economies do not remain constant over time. Nevertheless, data about past trends and activities, when applied to a theoretical framework; provide some of the best information available. The results of this study will

greatly contribute to the hospitality industry and related industries. It will guide investors, restaurateurs, managers, food and beverage producers, marketers, and consumers, among many others. The results of this study can be an integral part of future research and support the future development of a model for forecasting future cuisine trends.

Significance of the study

Numerous articles about food trends published in trade magazines attempt to predict future food trends about restaurant cuisine, specifically the Mediterranean diet and in particular the Italian diet, which appears to sustain their popularity gained over the past five decades (Cinotto, 2000). Nevertheless, predictions are rather more confirmatory about present restaurant features, than what future trends may become. Also such articles do not take into consideration restaurant operations that fail and may not necessarily sustain the "intended – predicted trends". Authors share the same broad vision: ethnic foods have become an increasingly popular food trend in America (NASFT, 2004; Booth, 1998). Noticeably, at the micro level, the present vision is different as restaurants are promoting more regional, local-emotional and nostalgic cuisine. However, academic journal articles on these topics are segmented and deal more with the effect of food trends on the food industry as a whole and the effect on specific related industries. Historical data about food trends tells what has occurred, yet in order to make sense of the data and use it for any valuable purpose; it must be measurable and operationalizable. The results of this exploratory study can support the development of an operationalizable model that can measure past culinary trends and allow forecasting future of cuisine trends that could be used by key industry people enabling present operators and new entrants to predict what future culinary trends will be. In order to

narrow the broad perspective of historical development of cuisines and future cuisine trends, the study concentrated on the historical development and future trends of Italian cuisine both, in Italy and in America.

Research questions

1. What are influencing factors for the historical analysis of menu trends in Italian American Cuisine?

2. What are the factors that will influence Italian Cuisine in America in the future?

3. What types of restaurants, other than ethnic Italian, feature Italian cuisine?

4. What is the perception of any differences between Italian cuisine in America vs. Italian cuisine in Italy?

Definition of Terms

A number in parenthesis next to a term refers to a term in the text which will be defined in this section. All definitions of terms have been extracted from various on line dictionaries: Merriam – Webster, Oxford Dictionary, The Columbia University Press, Wikipedia and The American Heritage Dictionary.

1. Food: material usually of plant or animal origin, that contains or consists of essential body nutrients, such as carbohydrates, fats, proteins, vitamins, or minerals, and is ingested and assimilated by an organism to produce energy, stimulate growth, and maintain life [See (1) page 1] (Merriam – Webster, 2003). Food is a general term for all edible materials humans consumes to sustain life.

2. Cuisine: (from French *cuisine*, meaning "cooking; culinary art; kitchen"; itself from Latin *coquina*, meaning the same; itself from the Latin verb *coquere*, meaning "to cook") is a specific set of cooking traditions and practices, often associated with a place of origin. Religious food laws can also exercise a strong influence on cuisine. A cuisine is primarily influenced by the ingredients that are available locally or through trade. (For example, the "Italian" dish cioppino clearly reflected the adaptation of Italian immigrant cooking styles to the different ingredients available in North America.) “Cioppino” is a fish stew derived from the various regional fish soups and stews of Italian cuisine. It was developed by the fishermen who settled in the North Beach section of San Francisco. Originally it was made on the boats while out at sea and later became a staple as Italian restaurants proliferated in San Francisco. The name comes from ciuppin, a word in the Ligurian language of the port city of Genoa, which described the local fish stew. “Italian cuisine” is characterized by its flexibility, its range of ingredients and its many regional variations. It is an important element of the Italian lifestyle, and mainly reflects the rural culture and history of the many peoples of the country. Italian cuisine is regarded as a prime example of a Mediterranean diet, (the term *“cuisine”* appears throughout the text.), (The Columbia Electronic Encyclopedia, 2003).
3. Restaurant: a commercial establishment where meals can be bought and eaten (The Columbia Electronic Encyclopedia, 2003). The term *restaurant* (from the French *restaurer*, to restore) first appeared in the 16th century, meaning "a food which restores", and referred specifically to a rich, highly flavoured soup. The modern sense of the word was born around 1765 when a Parisian soup-seller named Boulanger

opened his establishment. The first restaurant in the form that became standard (customers sitting down with individual portions at individual tables, selecting food from menus, during fixed opening hours) was the *Grand Taverne de Londres*, founded in 1782 by a man named Beauvilliers. The term *"cuisine"* appears throughout the text.

4. B.C.E.: is a TLA (Three Letter Acronym) that stands for Before the Common Era, Before the Christian Era, or Before the Current Era. Date notation equivalent to BC (Before Christ). The Common Era (CE), also known as the Christian Era and sometimes the Current Era, is the period beginning with the year 1 onwards. The term is used for a system of reckoning years that is chronologically equivalent to the *anno Domini* (AD) (Latin for "in the year of [our] Lord") system, but with less overt religious implications. Although *Common Era* was a term first used by some Christians in an age when Christianity was the common religion of the West, it is now a term preferred by some as a religiously neutral alternative [See (4) page 14] (The Columbia Electronic Encyclopedia, 2003).
5. Food complexes : To feed himself man has to eat food products that contain nutrients (feeding elements). These nutrients are sugars (carbohydrates), proteins (nitrogen components), and lipids (fats), as well as micro-nutriments (minerals, vitamins), and fibers [See (5) page 10] (Agropolis-Museum, 2005).
6. Lupins: Lupins, often spelled lupine in the US, is the common name for members of the genus *Lupinus* in the family Fabaceae (The American Heritage Dictionary, 2003). The Family Fabaceae *sensu latu* (also as Family Leguminosae) is a grouping of plants in the Order Fabales, and one of the largest families of flowering plants with

650 genera and over 18,000 species. These plants are commonly called legumes or pulses and the family contains some of our most valuable food crops, such as beans, peas, peanuts, soybeans, and lentils. They are native to the northern hemisphere [See (6) page 20] (The American Heritage Dictionary, 2003).

7. Prandium: Latin for Pranzo in contemporary Italian, which means the second breakfast preceding the dinner [See (7) page 20] (Wikipedia, 2005).
8. Cena: dinner. Aftert the *Prandium t*he Cena would begin around 3 o'clock. This meal could last until late in the night, especially if guests were invited, and would often be followed by a *comissatio* (a round of drinks). The *cena* essentially consisted of a kind of porridge, the *puls*. The simplest kind would be made from spelt, water, salt and fat. The more sophisticated kind was made with olive oil, with an accompaniment of assorted vegetables whenever possible. The richer classes ate their *puls* with eggs, cheese and honey, and (only occasionally) meat or fish. Over the course of the Republican period, the *cena* developed into two courses, a main course and a dessert with fruit and seafood (e.g. molluscs, shrimp). By the end of the Republic, it was usual for the meal to be served in three parts: first course, main course, and dessert [See (8) page 20] (Wikipedia, 2005).
9. Iantaculum: Originally flat, round loaves made of spelt (a cereal grain closely related to wheat) with a bit of salt were eaten; in the higher classes also eggs, cheese and honey, along with milk and fruit. In the imperial period, around the beginning of the Common Era, bread made of wheat was introduced and with time more and more baked products began to replace this spelt bread. [See (9) page 21] (Wikipedia, 2005).

10. Dulcis in fundo: Sweet is served at the end. Apparently the Romans understood that carbohydrates from fructose facilitated their digestion [See [10] page 21] (Wikipedia, 2005).
11. Slow Food: Slow Food is a movement was coined in response to "fast food" and claims to preserve the cultural cuisine and the associated food plants and seeds, domestic animals, and farming within an ecoregion. It was begun by Carlo Petrini in Italy as a resistance movement to fast food but has since expanded globally to 100 countries and now has 83,000 members. It now describes itself (humorously) as an "eco-gastronomy faction" within the ecology movement, and some refer to the movement as the "culinary wing" of the anti-globalization movement. It announced the opening of a new University of Gastronomic Sciences at Pollenzo, in Piedmont, Italy in 2004. Carlo Petrini and Massimo Montanari are the leading figures in the creation of the University, whose goal is to promote awareness of good food and nutrition [See [11] pages 39, 110, 130, 132] (Slow Food, 2005). Slow food has been catalyst to many trends and changes around the world. An example of a trend is the increasing production of organic food products which began in the early 1970's in the U.S. when Alice Waters (San Francisco Chronicle, 2004) opened the restaurant Chez Panisse in Berkley California.
12. Ethnic cuisine: An ethnic cuisine is one that is represented according to the ethnicity of the country from which it originated. Ethnicity id represented by a group and such a group is a culture or subculture whose members are readily distinguishable by outsiders based on traits originating from a common racial, national, linguistic, or religious source. Members of an ethnic group are often presumed to be culturally or

genetically similar, although this is not in fact necessarily the case. An ethnic cuisine is a common tradition, symbolism, culture shared among the ethnic group members. Ethnic groups share a common origin and exhibit continuity in time, that is, a history and a future as a people. This is achieved through the intergenerational transmission of common language, institutions, values and traditions such as cuisine [See [12] pages 17, 18, 39, 40, 57, 62, 73, 88, 102, 106, 107] (Wikipedia, 2005).

13. Molecular gastronomy is the application of science to cooking methods. The term was invented by the Hungarian physicist Nicholas Kurti in a 1969 presentation to the Royal Institution of Great Britain called "The Physicist in the kitchen", and popularized by his collaborator the French scientist Hervé This in his 1988 thesis. The fundamental objectives were defined by This in his PhD thesis as:

    - Investigating culinary and gastronomical proverbs, sayings, old wives tales
    - Exploring the recipes
    - Introducing in kitchens new tools, ingredients and methods
    - Inventing new dishes
    - Using molecular gastronomy to help the general public understand the contribution of science to society [See [13] page 40, 110] (This- Beckhard, 1997).

14. Agri-tourism: Agri-agritourism and Agri - entertainment refer to consumer-focused forms of agriculture, in which farms supplement (or replace) their traditional income from the sale of crops to wholesale markets by offering a variety of "entertainment farming" options. These agri-entertainment options include: pick-your-own operations, pumpkin patches, corn mazes, farm stores, agricultural festivals, and educational activities.

There are three aspects to agri-tourism. The farms have:

- Something for visitors to see.
- Something for them to do.
- Something for them to buy.

Usually, the farms are themed, such as Halloween-related activities (pumpkin patches and corn mazes) or historic recreations (a working farm or mill from the 1800's). Things to see and do are often offered free, but farms still derive a substantial profit by selling food, beverages, and souvenirs to visitors [See (14) page 40] (UC, 2005).

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Background

The core of the literature review was to investigate what factors have influenced the popularity of Italian cuisine in America. The investigation has concentrated more on the availability rather than the balancing of supply and demand. Specifically the review focused on trend drivers and key players. Using the literature review, this paper analyzed the historical developments of cuisines to support future research and consider whether the findings of this study could be used in the development a cuisine trend forecasting model. According to experts, forecasting means: predicting the future. It is critical to success in today's competitive economy. From manufacturing and inventory, to pricing and finance, an entire organization will be better prepared for the future if it has a better understanding today of what tomorrow will bring. Forecasting helps companies reduce costs, increase market share, increase revenues, and helps improve the efficiency and productivity of the marketing investment dollars to drive volume and profits. Forecasting is also used to understand the effects of today's activities on future results. For example, to predict the effects of promotions, capital investments or economic shifts, organizations adhere to a variety of forecasting philosophies: top-down, bottom-up, straight-line, accelerated, and many other different methods. While there is no universal rule to developing an accurate forecasting method, it is important to understand the forecasting options available (Cohen, 2004).

According to the literature (American Heritage Dictionary, 2003), the word “Trend” means: a general development or change in a situation or in the way that people are behaving; the general direction in which something tends to move; a general tendency or

inclination. A model, among other definitions, means something that is copied or used as the basis for a related idea, process, or system, and a simplified version of something complex used, for example, to analyze and solve problems or make predictions. After its development and implementation, a model is an interpretation of a theory arrived at by assigning referents in such a way as to make the theory true. Based on the aforementioned literature readings, dictionary definitions, and the following literature review, the author attempted to collect useful data to support the development of a cuisine trend forecasting model.

The literature review served as a basis for a content analysis explained in chapter 3 and presented in chapter 4. The author reviewed scholarly journals and related material as follows:

1. Existing global literature on food history, evolution and time line, with the main emphasis on the influence of Italian cuisine in America;
2. Existing socio-economic literature on past trends, secondary data, and published future trends predictions;
3. Scientific literature about consumers' sensory evaluation, perceived flavor, and functional food benefits, nutritional and other health related issues;
4. Global demographic, technological and environmental changes;
5. Governmental and political changes

Human evolution and development of eating culture

Since the beginning of civilization, the search for food has played a major role in the bio-cultural evolution of man, and eating culture has been at the center of his evolution. Hunting big game contributed to shaping mankind's social organization; cooking brought

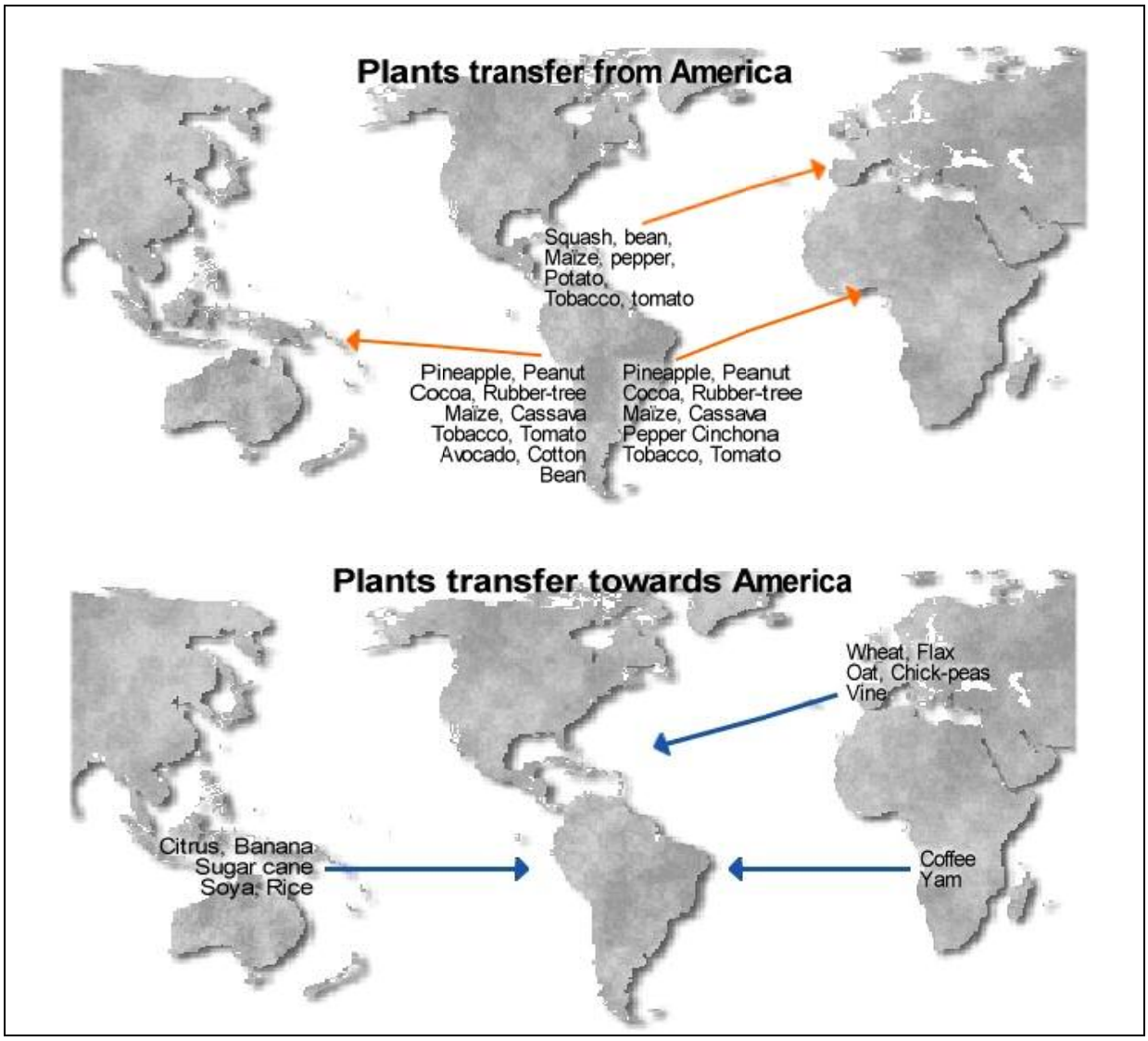
together people around the fire and thus food consumption became a community feature. According to the biological classification of modern humans (The New Dictionary of Cultural Literacy, 2005) Homo Sapiens, our direct ancestor, lived 40,000 B.C.E. [(4)] (Before Current Era). All these humans lived on wild food plants taken from their natural environment. They prospected for food plant species and set up the first food complexes [(5)] (Agropolis-Museum, 2005). The human body, although subject to physiognomic change over time, has had the same anatomy and function. Conversely our eating habits have changed and continue to change. Societies in every nation have evolved constantly and have established harmony with specific preferences within their own members, their natural environment, their economy and the universe that surrounds them. The very same people of each society established a choice of foods and drinks and developed a system to produce them, prepare them and adapt them to their own taste. These series of events have created food cultures, rituals and symbolism among nations.

History of Culinary Evolution in America

Food is much more than a mere means of subsistence. It is filled with cultural, political, psychological, emotional, and even religious significance. It defines shared identities and embodies religious and group traditions. In Europe in the 17th and 18th centuries, food served as a class marker. A distinctive court tradition of haute cuisine and elaborate table manners arose, distinguishing the social elite from others. During the 19th centuries, food became a defining symbol of national identity (Mintz, 2005).

The European discovery of the New World represented a significant turning point in the history of food. Foods previously unknown in Europe and Africa, such as tomatoes, potatoes, corn, yams, cassava, manioc, and a vast variety of beans, migrated eastward, while other sources of food, unknown in the Americas, including pigs, sheep, and cattle, moved westward. Sugar, coffee, and chocolate grown in the New World became the basis for the world's first, truly multinational, consumer-oriented industries.

Figure I Anthropology of food



Source: Agropolis-Museum, (2005)

Until the late 19th century, the history of food in America was a story of fairly distinct regional traditions that stemmed largely from England. The country's earliest English, Scottish, and Irish Protestant migrants tended to preserve older food traditions. Yet the presence of new ingredients, and especially contact among diverse ethnic groups, would eventually encourage experimentation and innovation. Nevertheless, for more than two centuries, English food traditions dominated American cuisine; this is still evident in many regions of America (Mintz, Moores R. & Moores 2005). Before the Civil War, there were four major food traditions in the United States, each with English roots. These included a New England tradition that associated plain cooking with religious piety.

A Southern tradition, with its high seasonings and emphasis on frying and simmering, was an amalgam of African, English, French, Spanish, and Indian foods. In the middle Atlantic areas influenced by Quakerism, the diet tended to be plain and simple and emphasized boiling, including boiled puddings and dumplings. In frontier areas of the backcountry, the diet included many ingredients that some of the English used as animal feed, including potatoes, corn, and various greens. The backcountry diet stressed griddle cakes, grits, greens, and pork (Mintz et al 2005). One unique feature of the American diet from an early period was the abundance of meat and distilled liquor. Abundant and fertile lands allowed settlers to raise corn and feed it to livestock as fodder, and to convert much of the rest into whiskey.

One of the first major forces for dietary change came from German immigrants, whose distinctive emphasis on beer, marinated meats, sour flavors, würsts (generalization for sausages of any kind), and pastries, was gradually assimilated into the mainstream American diet in the form of barbeque, coleslaw, hot dogs, donuts, and hamburger (Reicheman, 2000).

The American industrial revolution caused major changes across industries (Schwartz – Cowan 1997). Changes were also caused to the food service industry and consequently the American diet changed as well. Beginning in the late nineteenth century, food began to be mass-produced, mass-marketed, and standardized. Factories processed, preserved, canned, and packaged a wide variety of foods. Processed cereals, which were originally promoted as one of the first health foods, quickly became a defining feature of the American breakfast.

During the 1920s, a new industrial revolution emerged: freezing. This invention allowed the increase in production, longer shelf life and the process of nationally distributed foods began to dominate the nation's diet. Nevertheless, distinct regional and ethnic cuisines [(12)] persisted. The food industry quickly adapted to the trends of mass production and mass packaging. Food culture changes as the world economy changes.

During the last century people have lived not only through the evolution of industrialization, but also through mechanization, automation, and robotics. The restaurant industry benefited from all technological innovations but specifically from the first commercial kitchen equipment invented by Count Rumford (born Benjamin Thompson) (Brown, 1981). Clearly such trends have had an impact on the world economies, on people's well being, their living standards, eating habits, demands and expectations and future trends.

During the early twentieth century, food became the center of attraction of a multicultural society, the melting pot food revolution. The influx of large numbers of immigrants from the "Southern and Eastern Europe Progressive Era" brought new foods to the United States (Mintz et al 2005). Settlement house workers, food nutritionists, and domestic scientists tried to "Americanize" immigrant diets and teach immigrant wives and mothers "American" ways of cooking and shopping. Meanwhile, curious journalists and

reformers raised questions about the health, purity, and wholesomeness of food, leading to the passage of the first federal laws banning unsafe food additives and mandating meat inspection. During the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, change in American foods took place slowly, despite a steady influx of immigrants.

Since World War II, and especially since the 1970's, shifts in eating patterns have greatly accelerated. World War II played a key role in making the American diet more cosmopolitan. Overseas service introduced soldiers to a variety of foreign cuisines, while population movements at home were exposed to a wider variety of American foods.

The post-war expansion of international trade also made American diets more diverse, making fresh fruits and vegetables available year round (Mintz at al, 2005). Today, food appears to play a less distinctive role in defining ethnic or religious identity, (Mintz, at al, 2005.) Americans, regardless of religion or origin, eat bagels, curry, egg rolls, and salsa and preserve the tradition of a Thanksgiving turkey dinner. Although most classes of people can afford to experience any foods available on the market, there is a distinction among the segments of the population. Wealthier societies dine in gourmet restaurants that offer fine wines and artistically prepared foods made up of expensive ingredients, while others tend to dine more in less expensive but trendy restaurants that offer both, traditional American cuisine and ethnic cuisines [(12)] .

Food also has assumed a heightened political significance. The decision to adopt a vegetarian diet or to eat only natural foods has become a conscious way to express resistance to corporate foods. At the same time, the decision to eat particular foods has become a conscious way to assert one's ethnic identity. Activists' movements have become organized and represent a large part of the society (Public Citizens, 2004). Public Citizens for example

is a national, non-profit consumer advocacy organization founded in 1971, to represent consumers' interests in the Congress. They fight for clean, safe and sustainable energy sources; for health, safety, environmental protections; and for safe and effective prescription drugs. They are not alone; they have strong fraternization and support from other advocacy groups. Among them are the Center for Food Safety, Community Food Security Coalition, Consumer Report, Food Routes, and the Sierra Club.

History and Evolution of Italian Cuisine in Italy

When researching the culinary history of a country there are many factors to be considered. The research is not limited to identifying traditional foods in current or historical cookbooks, but also what people actually eat or were compelled to eat throughout the evolution of mankind. Some factors are:

- Food availability: indigenous animals & plants
- Technology: cooking methods and scientific process and progress
- Geography: location of food production
- Seasons & climate: menus prepared according to ingredient availability; droughts, other acts of mother nature and famines
- Communication and transportation systems: logistics, central distribution
- Religion: customs, rituals, and taboos
- Socio-economic class: royalties, nobles, merchants, laborers, peasants, slaves
- Politics: foreign influence, internal and external conflicts such as war, immigration and emigration patterns, regulations and rationing

The history and evolution of Italian cuisine has been subject of all above mentioned factors and at times when Italy went to war or was invaded by foreigners, the eating culture played the most important role in terms of sustaining life, fighting diseases and prospering after conflicts took place. The researcher has summarized and delineated in short narrative form, over 2 millennia of Italian cooking history.

Chronology of Italian Cuisine

Magna Grecia and the Etruscans

The history of Italian cooking begins with Magna Grecia, where the culture of the Greek colonies popularized the art of cooking. According to Floria Parmiani, a native of Florence, Italy whose ancestors were the Etruscans, "the daily fare was simple and sober (pork, fish, chickpeas, lentils, lupins [(6)], olive pickles and dried figs) but at banquets the food was more varied and plentiful (soups, game in vinegar and honey sauces, sweets with almonds and walnuts) and also took on ritual and symbolic meanings. The Etruscans too had a simple diet based on the cereals favored by the fertile region. The richest Etruscans were particularly fond of excellence and the pleasures of the table: The ancient Romans tell of sumptuous feasts" (Parmiani, 2001, The Origin of Italian Cuisine, Magna Grecia and the Etruscans, ¶ 2 - 4).

Roman Cuisine in the Republican Era

"Romans of the Republican Era were a sober people of frugal dietary habits: they usually had two meals a day, prandium [(7)] and cena [(8)] supper. The custom of a breakfast comprised of cereal, honey, dried fruit, and cheese, was gradually introduced. For a long time

the most widely consumed foods were boiled - mashed cereals, legumes such as fava beans, lentils, chickpeas and lupins, vegetables of various types, bread and cake. The diet also included fish, game from the hunt, cheese and fruit" (Parmiani, 2001, The Origin of Italian Cuisine, Roman Cuisine in the Republican Era, ¶ 2 - 4).

Roman Cuisine in the Imperial Age

"The Romans had two main daily meals, but they often added a breakfast Iantaculum [(9)] of bread soaked in wine, grapes, olives, milk and eggs (Pantke, 1993). The midday meal was a light fare of cold dishes. Dinner was the main meal: a feast of hors d'oeuvres such as mixed seafood, followed by game, pork, veal, goat, fowl, and fish. Sweets with a honey base, fresh and dried fruit were always served at the end: "Dulcis in fundo" [(10)]. These courses were accompanied by sweet - scented wines. Cuisine had thus become a refined pleasure and, for some, an indication of wealth and originality, as in the famous banquets of Lucullus and Trimalchio" (Parmiani, 2001, The Origin of Italian Cuisine, Roman Cuisine in the Republican Era, ¶ 1- 4).

Cuisine in the Middle Age

"The cuisine of the Barbarians, who invaded Italy from the 5th century A.D., was considerably different from that of the Romans, and was based on plentiful roast meats, stuffed pastries and oven-baked pies. However, for the Italian population reduced to poverty and servitude, food was rather poor and consisted of cereals, milk, cheese, and vegetables. Gradually around 1000 A.D, culinary art in Italy began a revival in the agricultural centers around the monasteries where the famished and terrorized population had taken refuge. The general tendency was to make food healthier, more appetizing and digestible, eliminating

elaborate preparation and introducing more fresh fruit and vegetables" (Parmiani, 2001, The Origin of Italian Cuisine, Cuisine in the Middle Age, ¶ 1- 4).

Gastronomical Revival in the Feudal Courts

"Around 1200 A.D., life in the courts became less difficult; commerce and social life resumed, and the feudal lords frequently organized celebrations, feasts and tournaments. At the most important meals there was an endless array of roast meats seasoned with a garlic sauce. The meal was finished with cheese and fruit. There was little change from Roman cuisine, but the spices of the East were beginning to arrive in greater quantity and their exotic aromas were starting to influence the evolving, refined cuisine" (Parmiani, 2001, The Origin of Italian Cuisine, Gastronomical Revival in the Feudal Courts, ¶ 1 - 2).

The Spice Trade

"There was already a spice trade in the Early Middle Ages, but this really intensified after the Crusades and demand was as much for cooking as for medicine. Alongside the fascination for rarity and high price, spices had other practical and important qualities: the preserving of meat and fish for longer periods and the flavoring of otherwise bland foods. There was also an obligatory route for spices fixed, as with other highly prized merchandise, by customs and taxes. For many years the last lap of the journey was the monopoly of the great Venetian merchants and bankers" (Parmiani, 2001, The Origin of Italian Cuisine, The Spice Trade, ¶ 1 - 2).

The Culinary Discoveries of the Great Explorers

In his book *The Columbian Exchange: Biological and Cultural Consequences of 1492,* Alfred W. Crosby points out that the most important changes brought on by the

voyages of Columbus were not social or political, but biological in nature (Crosby, 2001, Old World Plants section, p. 64). "Among the many goods brought to Europe and Italy by the explorers, there were some foods whose importance was understood only in time. First, there was maize widespread in North Italy, which at the time of the great famines of the 17th century, became the base for the most common dishes, such as polenta. Then there were potatoes, tomatoes, and beans. Rice from Asia was an instant success and joined pasta as the nation's first course during lunch or dinner. Venetian merchants also imported sugar from the Orient and this initially was very expensive. It was widely used in medicine and only later in cooking. Later there was coffee which--after a lost battle--the Turkish left behind in Vienna, and eventually its culture spread all over Europe" (Parmiani, 2001, The Origin of Italian Cuisine, The Culinary Discoveries of the Great Explorers, ¶ 1 - 4).

Cuisine in The Renaissance

"The 15th and 16th centuries were particularly fortunate times for the evolution of Italian cuisine. There was a greater variety and richness in the preparation of foods than during earlier centuries: soups, grilled meat and fish, roast and boiled meats, meat stuffed pastries, vegetables, salads, almond-based sweets, pine-nuts, and candied fruits. Eventually cane sugar, although relatively expensive, began to replace honey. Renaissance court banquets were famous for their enormity and refinement, while the food of the common people remained rather simple: beans, lentils, chickpeas, buckwheat, eggs, cheese, and mutton meat" (Parmiani, 2001, The Origin of Italian Cuisine, Cuisine in The Renaissance , ¶ 1 - 3).

Culinary Art and Etiquette in the Renaissance

"Italian cuisine reigned supreme from the end of the Middle Ages to the 17th century and had a notable influence abroad (Knoblauch, 2001)." "In particular, Catherine de` Medici popularized Italian recipes in France upon her marriage to the future King Henry II. It was also in this period that the first menus and rules for courses were printed and table manners were improving." Etiquette was first introduced by the Italians and strongly enforced by Catherine de` Medici." The Italians were the educators of Europe and the famous *Galateo,* The Book of Good Manners, by Monsignor Della Casa (1558), was quickly translated and distributed abroad. The principal innovation was the use of individual cutlery" (Parmiani, 2001, The Origin of Italian Cuisine, Culinary Art and Etiquette in the Renaissance, ¶ 1 - 3).

Cuisine in the 17th, 18th and 19th Centuries

The upper classes of the 17th, 18th and 19th centuries enjoyed a refined cuisine. Every official event became the pretext for sumptuous feasts where the courses were abundant and the servings enormous. During these events, specials dishes were introduced: from charcuterie hors d`oeuvres and delicate French-style soups, to numerous meat and fish dishes, as well as vegetable purees, intricate sweets and fruit. They were impressively presented and prepared with the utmost care. However, the food of the common people remained frugal and monotonous" (Parmiani, 2001, The Origin of Italian Cuisine, Cuisine in the 17th, 18th and 19th Centuries, ¶ 1, 2).

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Foreign Influences and the Spread of New Foods

From the 17th to the 19th century, especially with the birth of the restaurant, many new dishes arrived from France: consommés, crepes, purees, jellies, gravies, and delicate,

tasty sauces, such as mayonnaise and béchamel. The presentation of the food was very important and was executed with great refinement. Even English cooking found its typical dishes becoming widespread abroad: roast beef, pudding, and, above all, tea, which for a long time remained less popular than coffee or the chocolate imported from America. The first coffee houses had emerged in England between 1670 and 1675 (Colby, 1920). However, Portuguese Catherine of Braganza (1638–1705), queen consort to King Charles II of England, is credited with bringing tea drinking to England. When she first arrived in Portsmouth in 1662 after being married, she brought her own tea chest with her and asked for a cup of tea. She introduced and made tea drinking fashionable to the British court by serving them afternoon tea. Her influence made tea more popular among the wealthier classes of society and eventually everyone else wanted to follow suit. Soon tea was appreciated as much as coffee and its popularity spread across England and Europe. Tea became the beverage of choice in English and Russian high society, replacing ale as the national drink. (Houghton Mifflin 2000, *The American Heritage® Dictionary of the English Language,* alphabetical section "t", ¶ 21).

20th Century Cuisine

In the last few decades Italian cuisine has undergone significant changes as a result of rapid and profound changes in lifestyle. The involvement of industry in the food sector and the subsequent improvements in preparation, conservation and distribution, have led to modifications of the old food system and improved food production standards. Italian cooking, with its adaptability in preparation, has remained one of the most popular cuisines

in the world, therefore Italy remains a country with a noble culinary tradition second to none. (Parmiani, 2001, The Origin of Italian Cuisine, 20th Century Cuisine, ¶ 1 - 4).

Historical Development and Influence of Italian Cuisine on American Eating Culture; Adoption of Traditional Cuisine by Americans and Adaptation to American Eating Culture

In order to understand future trends, one must investigate the historical trends and how Italian cuisine has evolved in America, how Americans have adopted the ethnic Italian cuisine and how Italian cuisine has adapted itself to the American eating culture. Italian cuisine has undoubtedly become an icon of Italian ethnicity and an integral part of American eating culture. According to literature, no ethnic group has had as much influence on American eating as the Italians who began arriving in mass in the early nineteenth century. Southern Italian food was the first to affect the cooking and eating habits of Americans. This is explained by the fact that people from the poorer south emigrated earliest and in greatest numbers. About 20 percent of North Italians
immigrated into the U.S. at the same time; this explains why Italian cuisine influence in America in the early 1900s was merely from the Southern Regions of Italy (Civitello 2004).

Italian emigration has been defined by the illustrious French historian, Fernand Braudel, as the greatest migration in modern times: approximately 26 million Italians left their country over a 100 year period. This phenomenon came to an end in the early seventies; from 1973 to the 2000, the net Italian migratory balance was negative. Nevertheless, sporadic emigration continued in the early nineteen eighties and between 1986 and 1997, when some 528,700 Italians (57 percent of them from Southern Italy) left the

country, 66 percent of them went to northern Europe, and 22 percent to North America (Tirabassi 2002). According to the 1990 - 2000 U.S. census, the Population Division of the U.S. Census Bureau reports there were nearly 15 million people who have identified themselves as Italian American the Census Bureau estimates, however, that 1 out of 10 Americans has some Italian blood, bringing the total number of Americans of Italian descent to 26 million. In 1990 Italian Americans were the fifth largest ethnic group in the United States and followed the four larger groups which are the Germans, Irish, English and African Americans. Italian Americans either make up 15 percent of the population or number more than 1 million in the following states: California 1,500,000; Connecticut 650,000; Massachusetts 845,000; New Jersey 1,500,000; New York 2,900,000; Pennsylvania 1,400,000; Rhode Island 200,000. Italian Americans are also found in significant numbers in 15 other states, including Florida 800,000; Illinois 730,000, Ohio 640,000; Michigan 412,000; Texas 314,000 and Maryland 253,000 (N.I.A.F. 2005). Some historians maintain that the most visible Italian cultural model is Italian food traditions. However Italian food in America did undergo a significant transformation (McLean & Janni, 2002). Paulo Janni and George F. McLean, in chapter III, part II of their book, *The Essence of Italian Culture and the Challenge of a Global Age,* they quote: **"**Italian foods are transformed. Yet while remaining distinctively Italian, they become the favorite choice of the ultimately diversified population of America. What emerges is not a replication of the old country, but a new culture clearly impressed by the old and shared by all peoples."

The eating culture of the early Italian immigrants who had influence on Americans was very diverse and scarce of resources. The Italian farmers' diet at the end of the century in Italy was very poor. When working in the fields, men ate three times a day and took their

meals of bread and vegetables in the fields; there was usually a vegetable soup at dinner, and wine was sometimes part of the diet. For farm workers these meals were considered part of the day's labor pay.

In Calabria for example, the farmers' diet consisted of bread, olive oil, and vegetables at noon, polenta or beans or potatoes at dinner. Meat was eaten only at great festivities; for the very poor, bread was made out of lentil flour and wild weeds, without oil, when the harvest was bad. Coffee was substituted with chicory or roasted grape seeds.

In Puglia the diet was made up of cereals and bread plus olive oil, beans, carobs, and maize. Carobs are still used as a feed for horses and their flour is used in the ice cream industry as a binding and emulsifying agent. Salt was very expensive, boiled sea water was used to season foods.

Salt was first discovered in China around the 6000 B.C. and was called white gold. It was first used to preserve food by the Egyptians in 2000 B.C. The Greeks brought it to Italy around 600 B.C. and the Romans used it in food preservation, the Romans also paid workers with salt so they could preserve foods; hence the term "salary," from the Latin "Sal" which means salt (Cibo & Storia 2004).

Sophonisba Breckinridge's 1921 classic study, *New Homes for Old*, cites the diets of different ethnic groups (Tirabassi, 2002, p.8). Among Italians who had been in America for almost over two decades, the author analyzed the anatomy and diet of a Sicilian family from Palermo and described it as follows: "The family has four children ranging from ten months to seven years; they have been in America for over twenty years, but their diet had not changed much. First of all they had breakfast every day: coffee or chocolate, toast, Italian cookies; meat, salad, bread and fruit for lunch; spaghetti, stuffed peppers. Bread and fruit for

dinner is the Monday summer menu. The diet changes every day and it always includes meat or fish and fruits, plus various vegetables. On Sundays it was richer: homemade macaroni with tomato sauce, veal pot roast, corn, eggplant, bread, fruit salad (Tirabassi, 2002, p.8)." Catholic Italians living in cities such as Boston and New York where seafood was available ate fish on Fridays because meat was not recommended according to catholic traditions. Americans commented that Italians' diet, even if considered healthy, was too expensive. In order to maintain their traditional habits, Italian immigrants had to spend a lot on imported ingredients such as olive oil and cheese, among other food items. In terms of eating, they did not change their habits in America, but they were able to realize their ideals: "In America everyday is festa (Tirabassi, 2002, p.8)." "In America everyday is holiday." There was no shortage of food.

At the end of the nineteenth century Americans were skeptical about the consumption of Italian foods. There were concerns regarding certain ingredients Italians used and their way of preparing food: oxalic acid present in tomatoes was considered carcinogenic, pork was decried by hygienists, spicy foods were connected with alcohol consumption, garlic was regarded "with particular horror," and in general mixing many ingredients in cooking was considered bad for digestion (Tirabassi, 1990). By the early 1900s, attempting to teach immigrants to cook in the American way was becoming a profession. However Italians never accepted cooking and consuming food the American way (Eula 2000). Italian immigrant women did take courses in American Home Economics; however they were not keen on taking cooking courses in American cuisine (Tirabassi, 1990). Eventually Italian immigrants were able to influence the eating habits of Americans, and around 1920 there was a complete change in American attitudes toward Italian food customs; Americans began to appreciate the

healthiness of the Italian diet. Because Italian food items were not readily available in the U.S., imports were expensive and eventually substitution of Italian ingredients with American ones began to take place but with limited success. It was around this time that "Southern" Italian cuisine was becoming fashionable among Americans (Garbaccia, 1998).

The Italian food culture continued to influence, at fast pace, every American household until the beginning of World War II. During this time selected Italian dishes had become very familiar to Americans. "The first to enter the U.S. lexicon was spaghetti with tomato sauce followed soon by meat balls, meat Parmigiana style, beef Braciole, fried dough, among an array of pasta dishes prepared with home-made pasta. It is worthwhile mentioning that Italian cuisine in America today is a sort of regional melting pot, a construction like the Italian identity" (Tirabassi, 2002, p.13).

The origin of the restaurant

Restaurants and taverns have been known since ancient times, from the Roman era to the Chinese Dynasty, public eating places have always existed. The restaurant as it is known today, took a different form than public eating places in ancient times. According to the literature available, the French invention of the restaurant did not take place until the late eighteenth hundreds (Crewe, 1978).

Until then the only public eating places in Paris were inns and the shops of traiteurs (caterers). At the inns, guests ate a set meal around the host's table, hence *table d'hôte* for a set menu. The *traiteurs* sold mainly cooked meats, *ragouts* and *pâtisseries*. In 1796 they sued a soup vendor, one Boulanger (a baker), to prevent him from selling sheep's feet in white sauce. Boulanger won the case and called his soups *restaurants* or *restoratives*. From his

rudimentary establishment, the word came to mean a place to eat, to restore oneself. The owners of these places were called restaurateurs, first defined by the *Dictionnaire de Trévoux* in 1771 (*Dictionnaire de L'Académie Française, Restaurateur,* 1762, p. 620). The restaurateurs were defined as "those who know the art of making the consommés called *restaurants* or *bouillons de prince*, and they have the right to sell all sorts of creams, soups with rice and vermicelli, fresh eggs, macaroni, chickens au gros sel (coarse salt), jams, compotes and other healthy and delicate dishes. Restaurants and taverns differed in that taverns featured a set menu served at a set hour for a set price, while in a restaurant one could chose dishes from a carte (menu), at anytime of the day individually, and pay individually. For the first time one could dine à la carte. This was a major evolution in restaurant menu and service style (Kiefer, 2002). The original restaurants evolved around the 1783. M. Beauvilliers, once chef to the Comte de Provence (who later became Louis XVIII), opened the first establishment in the Palais Royale hotel. The operation was similar that of a restaurant today, however without technology. In 1793 the French Revolution forced him to close and like many other chefs, he was forced to go in exile to England. In England, chefs - such as Beauvilliers and Carême both cooked for the Prince of Wales - had established a pattern of emigration. This influenced Alexis Soyer, head chef of the kitchen brigade at the Reform Club, to make England his home when the Bourbon monarchy ended in the 1830. Many chefs who stayed in Paris as well as those who returned after the enforced absence, ventured into the restaurant business. They capitalized on the talents they had acquired by preparing food for the nobility and bourgeoisie. It became a golden age for restaurants whose number increased significantly, from about one hundred in 1789 to approximately six hundred in 1804. On his return to Paris, Beauvilliers opened the *Grande Taverne de Londres*

in rue Richelieu (Blake & Crewe, 1987). The so-called menu was a printed sheet of double folio, the size of a newspaper, and it required about half an hour to read It offered many dishes including 13 different soups, 22 hors-d'oeuvres, 11 beef dishes, 22 veal dishes, 11 specialties of fish, flesh and fowls stuffed in pastry, mutton prepared in 13 different styles, and 23 varieties of fish. In addition, it offered 30 roast meats, including game, and poultry. A total of 41 Side-dishes and 39 desserts were also presented. The wine section included styles such as dry and sweet, and listed 52 denominations. It also offered ale and porter beer, and 12 species of liqueurs paired with coffee (Kiefer, 2002). Guests welcomed the idea that each item on the menu was priced, could be ordered separately, and that the price was very moderate. À la carte dining became indeed the great evolution in public dining (Blake & Crewe, 1978). The dishes served in these new establishments were determined by the cooking equipment available, which was usually an open fire. Primitive cooking ranges had been around for much of the eighteenth century with little technological improvement. The first commercially available "modern" kitchen ranges began to appear about 1800, they were the invention of Count Rumford - Benjamin Thompson, an American who made several useful inventions "*Larousse Gastronomique*, pg. 1005, 2004). Besides the kitchen range, he also invented the double boiler, baking oven, pressure-cooker and drip coffee maker, among others. Rumford's invention revolutionized the restaurant kitchen and the dishes it produced. The number of dishes on the menu was eventually reduced and their cooking styles altered so that consistent quality could be achieved. Thus large roasts virtually vanished from restaurant menus and a range of dishes that could be prepared à la minute evolved. It was then that pan-frying became the norm of modern French cooking.

Historic timeline of restaurant, past, present and future food trends

- The following is a chronological history of the evolution of food and the restaurant industry,
- 960 to 1279 AD. Sung Dynasty, China. In the Sung dynasty cities, Kaifeng and Hangchow, a fully developed restaurant culture (Kwang-chih, 1997)
- 1368 to 1644. Ming Dynasty, China (Kwang-chih, 1997). Tourism became a popular pastime. People traveled for curiosity and enjoyment, and restaurants were in demand. They also offered take-out food and were frequently called upon to cater events at wealthy patrons' homes.
- 1652. London England: the first coffeehouse opened (Civitello, 2004). The first known reference to Edward Lloyd's coffeehouse on Tower Street appeared in a London paper. During this period, gathering in public for business and pleasure became very common in London. Although in the mid-17th century coffee, tea, and chocolate were almost unheard of in England, by 1698 there were 2,000 coffeehouses doing business in London (Cuisinenet, 2005).
- 1762. New York: Tavern Kitchen in 18th Century New York. Samuel Fraunces opened a public house in a building at the corner of Queen and Canal Streets. It was a time when catering services were uncommon, but Fraunces Tavern expanded its business by regularly sending meals over to George Washington's quarters nearby (Cuisinenet, 2005).
- 1783. Paris: the original restaurant, similar to what it is known today, evolved around that year. M. Beauvilliers, once chef to the Comte de Provence (who later became

Louis XVIII), opened the first establishment in the Palais Royale hotel in Paris (Blake & Crewe, 1978).

- 1784-1833. France: the first star chef of the western world. Antonin Carême became known as the "Cook of Kings and the King of Cooks." In spite of the fact that he came of age during the French Revolution and worked his way up from great poverty, he was not a man of the common people; he traveled far and wide to serve in the noblest kitchens in Europe. He cooked for Talleyrand in France, the Prince Regent of England (later King George IV), and Czar Alexander of Russia. He wrote extensively on gastronomy and designed dishes and confections that were eye-catching in the extreme. He is often credited with being the founder of classic French cuisine (Montagné, 1961).
- 1789. Paris: the French Revolution is often given credit for bringing restaurants to the masses. Highly trained chefs, unable to continue working for the wealthy patrons, who became the victims of the uprising, had to find a way to live in the new democratic society. Many turned entrepreneur and served the food once reserved for the nobility to anyone who was able to afford it (Cuisinenet, 2005).
- 1704. New York: the coffeehouse and commerce. The Tontine Coffee House opened at the corner of Wall and Water streets. Within a few years it became the favorite hang-out of the group of speculative investors who later established the New York Stock Exchange (Cuisinenet, 2005).
- Early 19th century. Europe: the restaurant became a way of life. By the mid -19th century, restaurants were fully incorporated into the comfortable lifestyle of the middle and upper classes. In 1825, in France, Jean Anthelme Brillat-Savarin had

defined the restaurant as a convenience in the modern lifestyle. At restaurants, he pointed out, diners could choose from a greater variety of dishes than could be made available in their home (*Larousse Gastronomique*, 2004, p. 167).

- 1825. Philadelphia: the birth of the soda fountain. Elias Durand, a pharmacist, began offering his customers seltzer water remedies that were intended to be taken at his drugstore. Restaurants could immediately benefit from this innovation (Cuisinenet, 2005).
- 1827. New York: America was introduced to fine dining. John and Peter Delmonico decided to open a restaurant, offering businessmen an elegant, hot meal at lunchtime. For almost an entire century, Delmonico's restaurants set the standard for upscale dining in America (Cuisinenet, 2005).
- 1868 Chicago: luxury on the railroads. Having met with overwhelming success with his luxurious sleeper cars for trains, George Pullman introduced the Pullman dining car. These cars provided mobile restaurant for railroad travelers who could afford it, and food was prepared and served by formally trained chefs and waiters. They featured menus according to the fresh local produce that was available along the route (Cuisinenet, 2005).
- 1876. Topeka, Kansas: respectable and affordable dining for travelers. Fred Harvey opened his first restaurant at the Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fe Railroad Depot in Topeka (Cuisinenet, 2005).
- 1890. New York: Louis Sherry, a confectioner, opened a restaurant and hotel. Eight years later, he moved his business to Fifth and 44th Street, where he managed some of the most lavish dining events ever staged. Sherry's was the location for the New

York Horseback Riding Club's famous horseback dinner in 1903, the tab for which was $50,000 (Cuisinenet, 2005).

- 1893. New York: the cult of the maître d' hôtel arrived in America. The newly built Waldorf-Astoria hotel opened its lavish mirrored dining room, which was then managed by Oscar Tschirky, who is credited with being the original high-profile maître d'hôtel, known for coddling famous favorite patrons and snubbing the less-than-glamorous (Cuisinenet, 2005).
- 1893. Chicago: birth of the American cafeteria. At the World's Columbian Exposition in Chicago, John Kruger opened a self-service restaurant based on the idea of the Swedish smorgasbord. He decided to call it a cafeteria (Spanish translation for coffee shop) (Cuisinenet, 2005).
- 1898. New York: the cafeteria tray invention. William and Samuel Childs introduced the tray to make it easier for the customers in their self-service restaurants to carry their meals to the tables (Cuisinenet, 2005).
- 1902. Philadelphia: high technology enters the cafeteria. The Horn and Hardart Company opened the first of what will be a chain of "automats." At these self-service restaurants, the food was obtained from coin-operated, food-dispensing machines imported from Germany. The appeal of such a technology in this era of fascination with cleanliness and emerging technology was that the food seems never to have been touched by human hands (Cuisinenet, 2005).
- 1912. Providence, Rhode Island: the diner takes its place at the side of the road Lunch wagons become so numerous that they blocked the city's streets. Consequently a law was passed requiring them to be out of traffic by 10:00 a.m. In

order to keep serving throughout the day, many wagon owners parked their vehicles permanently in abandoned lots, and workers came to them (Cuisinenet, 2005).

- 1916. Wichita, Kansas: from diner to chain hamburger-joint. Walter Anderson opened a diner with a menu featuring hamburgers. By 1921, he was in search of a business partner to help him finance a fourth diner and joined forces with Edgar "Billy" Ingram. They named their enterprise White Castle (Cuisinenet, 2005).
- 1919. United States: the 18th amendment was passed; the prohibition took place. The act was passed by Congress on January 16 and went into effect the following year. Many of the great restaurants did not survive. Eventually the prohibition was repealed in 1933 (Olver, 1999).
- 1925. Massachusetts: birth of the first great restaurant franchise. Howard Johnson, who owned a small soda shop and newsstand in the town of Wollaston, was asked to open a second shop in Cape Cod; however he couldn't because he was undercapitalized. He managed to persuade a friend to open a restaurant using his specifications and serving his products. The idea worked so well that he continued to expand his business in this way. By 1941, Johnson had an empire of 150 franchises in the eastern United States from New England down to Florida (Cuisinenet, 2005).
- 1926. Los Angeles: road restaurant gimmicks. The Brown Derby, a restaurant that was actually shaped like a hat, opens in Hollywood. The famous Cobb salad was invented for the Brown Derby menu (Cuisinenet, 2005).
- 1929. New York: from speakeasy to supper club. Club '21' opened. This was the fourth enterprise for Jack Kriendler and Charlie Berns, who started with two so-called "tea rooms" in Greenwich Village (Cuisinenet, 2005).

- 1934. New York: "continental cuisine" arrived to America. The Rainbow Room opened at the top of the RCA Building at Rockefeller Center. At this deluxe supper club, the menu featured dishes with a European flair, and the dance floor was illuminated with flashing colored lights that were activated by the notes played on the organ that was the centerpiece of the orchestra (Cuisinenet, 2005).
- 1936. Oakland, California: the rise of the theme restaurant. Victor Bergeron, converted his beer parlor called Hinky Dinks, to a Polynesian-theme supper club and changed the name to Trader Vic's. The concept turned out to be so popular that the Trader Vic's restaurants chain was created. Bergeron is also credited with having invented the Mai Tai cocktail (Cuisinenet, 2005).
- 1938. Chicago: Ernest Lessing Byfield opend the Pump Room at the Ambassador Hotel. The concept, modeled after the Pump Room spa in Bath, England was to create a lavish atmosphere where all levels of society would come together (Cuisinenet, 2005).
- 1939. New York: haute cuisine arrived in America. The 1939 World's Fair opened in Flushing, Queens, featuring exhibits sponsored by 60 different countries. Many of the countries included restaurants serving local dishes in their exhibit pavilions. The most popular restaurant was the one at the French Pavilion, where the waiting list for a reservation was several weeks long. This was America's first real exposure to traditional French chef system. This event was the catalyst for the opening of Le Pavillion in 1941, by the culinary icons, Henri Soulé and Pierre Franey (Cuisinenet, 2005).

- 1948. San Bernardino, California: the invention of the "Fast Food" concept was created. The brothers Richard and Maurice McDonald opened the first fast food hamburger restaurant. In 1952, in the process of redesigning the building, they added the distinctive "golden arches." In 1954, Ray Kroc bought the restaurant and expanded the concept into a mega-empire, changing the way the world eats today (Cuisinenet, 2005).
- 1960. France: a group of young French chefs: Paul Bocuse, Alain Chapel, Michel Guérard, and the Troigros brothers invented the “Nouvelle Cuisine” disregarding the codification and standardization instituted by Escoffier. The nouvelle cuisine concept was soon adopted by chefs around the world, changing the classic French cuisine for ever (Cuisinenet, 2005).
- 1960-1970. France and Europe: Following the evolution of the nouvelle cuisine, the French introduced the cuisine naturelle. This cuisine featured dishes prepared by using steaming and sautéing cooking methods, while preserving the foods’ natural color, its nutritional value, and without manipulating its natural taste.
- 1972. Ithaca, New York: Restaurateurs with a Social Conscience. A group of friends who used to gather regular for collective meals decided to open the Moosewood Restaurant as a community project. While preserving their political beliefs they made it a true cooperative venture. The food served was vegetarian, with emphasis on serving dishes based on ethnic cuisine [(12)].
- 1971. Berkeley California: Alice Waters opened Chez Panisse. A restaurant based on the use of organic ingredients creating a style of cuisine that later became world famous (Slow Food, 2005).

- 1979. Louisiana: Paul Proudhomme opened K-Paul Louisiana Kitchens introducing Cajun blackened food (Cuisinenet, 2005).
- 1986. Italy: Slow Food [11] Movement emerges. The vision was to preserve the natural food and cultural food heritage of the nation, to protect the natural environment, while enjoying eating and drinking without pressure but relaxation (Slow Food, 2005).
- 1990. California: Pacific Rim cuisine and Fusion Cuisine was introduced. It did not stand the test of time. It did not become an eating culture and eventually became a fad (Cuisinenet, 2005).
- 1995-2000. The world: ethnic cuisine [12] dominated the market. A global revolution and the acceptance of cross-cultural eating habits took place. Italian restaurants continued to open across the globe, as did sushi restaurants. Thai cuisine gained increasing popularity. Chinese cuisine sustained its market shares together with the Mexican cuisine (Technomic, 2004).
- 1996. France: May 28, 1996 Herve' This defended his thesis in Molecular Gastronomy [13] at the Institut National Agronomique Paris – Grignon (Archimeds, 1998). The physicist became the first non-chef in the world to create foods prepared according to scientific norms and discovery. His theory was that science can explain why foods prepared in certain way changes taste, texture, or spoil while being prepared. Herve' This and his colleague chef Bertrand Simon currently teach courses in molecular gastronomy at the Institut National Agronomique Paris – Grignon, France, (Alliage & Science Tribue, 1997). Since 1996 many chefs have taken this new cuisine seriously and restaurants featuring molecular cuisine have emerged in

Spain, and England and Germany. The world's most famous chefs in this new evolution are: Ferran Adria, chef at El Bulli near Barcelona, Spain; Heston Blumenthal, chef at Fat Duck in Bray, UK; Anthony Flinn, chef at Anthony's in Leeds, UK. In April 2005 Heston Blumenthal was awarded the best restaurant in Europe and in the world by the UK Gourmet Magazine in 2005.

- 1996-2000. Europe: Agri-tourism [14] and eco-tourism have opened new frontiers to protect the local food production and food culture. Food processed in agri-touristic restaurant must be purchased between 65% and 75% from local sources, depending on the country's legislation (Assessorato Al Turismo, Molise, Italy, 2004).
- 2000. The world: Globalization of cuisine. Import and export of food was at an all time high. Seasonal foods could now be imported anywhere. From a "seasonal climate" to a "non seasonal" climate, import became really easy due to sophisticated transportability
- 2000. Italy: sentimental, nostalgic and exotic cuisines appear in literature and on the internet (Cucina Italiana, 2004).
- 2000. America: revival of French classic cuisine and classic techniques are now blended with Asian flavors (Technomic, 2004).
- 2002. The world: Dietary cuisine is emerging the world over. Health conscious people are now better educated, have more exposure to ethnic food, travel more and are more demanding. Restaurants strive to accommodate the increased demand by adding healthy and nutritious foods to menus, and by applying special cooking techniques in order to maximize nutrient retention and by tailoring specific foods to specific needs of the customers (ACF Culinary Review, 2004).

- 2002. The“Craze”cuisine. The boom and bust of the Atkins diet, the low-carb craze, have had an impact on the world economy, on restaurateurs, educational institutions and on people (Association for the Study of Food and Society, 2005).
- 2005. America: Scientific cuisine appears in cooking literatures. Food scientists are playing an influential role in the development of new products, sensory evaluation, psychology of taste, and safety and sanitation. Chefs are now highly trained in nutrition and food science as well. Scientific cuisine works hand in hand with nutritional cuisine especially when it is applied by chefs who are trained in such emerging cooking requirements and styles.
- 2005. America: Spatial cuisine is the latest revolution. With the development of space tourism, there are plans on the way to build hotels and restaurants in space. It is still in its infancy stage while legislation, health issues, price, taxes and other constraints are being worked out between the entrepreneurs and the government authorities. This challenge however, may be the final frontier and the beginning of the end of the gastronomic trends on planet earth (Space Tourism Society, 2005).

Historical Development of Italian Restaurants in America

Italian food first conquered the taste of Americans in the “Little Italy” in almost every city where immigration of Italians was prolific. The food culture was created from the strong network of face-to-face relations among Italian immigrant families and communities as food took center stage in Italian American cultural integration. Italians were protective of their food production and developed a kind of monopoly system of production and distribution. Italian immigrant entrepreneurs helped the relocalization of Italian Food in America by

opening restaurants and by developing production of agricultural products, distribution and trade. Among the earliest Americans to discover and appreciate Italian food were people from the arts and politics. It took about two decades for the restaurant evolution to reach the mass media. It wasn't until the 1920's that the middle class Americans were exposed to the Italian food culture. The real breakthrough for the middle class in becoming fully acquainted with Italian food was around the 1930s. There are stories about consumers demanding restaurant staff to act Italian, and even provide the icon Italian cook with black mustache, who was later portrayed in Disney's cartoon *The Lady and the Tramp*, in 1955 (Diner, 2001; Gabaccia, 1998; Cinotto, 2003). Italian entrepreneurs acted aggressively and one of the pioneers to mass- produce the most popular Italian food (spaghetti in tomato sauce) in cans was Ettore Boiardi (1897-1985), who later changed his name to Hector Boyardee because it sounded better and more American.

Ettore Boiardi realized something unprecedented in ethnic food production. He was able to distribute the product to many markets emphasizing quality, low cost, convenience and consistency of product, but not the Italian cultural heritage. This was a turning point in history. When Italian food was still being discovered and appreciated through restaurant production, Boiardi had created the first Italian-American product made in America, canned tomato sauce and canned spaghetti in tomato sauce, and readily available to anyone.

Chronology of oldest Italian restaurants in America

(Partial Listing)

Italian Restaurants have created the strong ethnic identity of the Italian society that immigrated to America. Credit for the proliferation of Italian Restaurants in America ought

to be given to the pioneers of the Italian restaurant evolution and the catalysts for the popularity of Italian cuisine. Every city has its own history and time and includes the oldest restaurants. Some of the oldest Italian restaurants in America are:

1. **Fior D' Italia:** Angelo Del Monte and "Papa" Marianetti opened Ristorante Fior d'Italia, America's oldest Italian restaurant, on May 1, 1886, in the heart of San Francisco's North Beach. Fior d'Italia restaurant has been an important part of San Francisco's grand and glorious history for 118 years. The restaurant has been a leader in building the great tradition of excellent cuisine for which the city is so famous. The restaurant has also been a center of cultural and social events for the city and the Italian community (Fior D'Italia web site: http://www.fior.com/index.html).
2. **Tortorici's Restaurant:** New Orleans French Quarter's oldest Italian restaurant. It was open in 1900 by Louis Tortorici who served authentic Italian cuisine. In recent years Tortorici's became one of the first restaurants in America to infuse traditional Italian cuisine with traditional Creole cuisine. Since its inception, four generations of Tortorici's have managed the interest of the restaurant (Totorici's web site: http://www.tortoricis.com/index.html).
3. **Barbetta Restaurant:** Founded in 1906 by Sebastiano Maioglio, is the oldest restaurant in New York still owned by the family that founded it. Barbetta is also the oldest Italian restaurant in New York's Theatre District. It is an historic landmark among New York restaurants. It has received this recognition by the "Locali Storici d'Italia" a historical society from Italy, which has designated Barbetta a "Locale Storico" (Historic Establishment), the first restaurant in America to have been so named (Barbetta web site: http://www.barbettarestaurant.com/index.html).

4. **Frank Grisanti:** Opened in 1908 is one of America's most traditional and first Italian restaurants to serve northern Italian Cuisine in Memphis. For over 90 years Grisanti's restaurant has never closed down for one day and continues to be owned by the same family (Grisanti's web site: http://www.frankgrisanti-embassy.com/index.htm).
5. **The Italian Village Restaurant:** it is Chicago's oldest Italian restaurant, a Loop landmark since 1927; three restaurants in one location: The Village-traditional Italian represents an "Old World" atmosphere; La Cantina Enoteca features traditional - Italian fresh seafood specialties; Vivere features regional - Italian cuisine. Alfredo Capitanini, the Italian immigrant who never worked in any restaurants before coming to the United States, opened The Italian Village in 1927. His philosophy was uncomplicated: make good, simple food, serve it in ample portions, and offer it with warm Italian courtesy. A menu once read: "Spaghetti with Meatballs: 80 cents" (The Italian village web site: http://www.italianvillage-chicago.com/index.html).
6. **Commelini's Restaurant:** One of the oldest restaurants in Spokane, Washington. The Commelini Family has been serving Italian Food for about 66 years. The tradition began with the Commellini Family in the 1940's (Commelini's web site: http://www.commellinis.com/index.html).
7. **Luigi's Restaurant:** Opened by Luigi Calvi in 1943, Luigi's is one of the oldest Italian restaurants in Washington, D.C. What originally brought Luigi's its fame was pizza that Luigi introduced to Washington. Luigi continues to serve authentic Italian food in an old-fashioned Trattoria-type atmosphere. His slogan is: "Famous Luigi's - Bringing the best of Italy to you" (Luigi's web site: http://www.famousluigis.com/index.htm).

8. **Miceli's Restaurant**: it was established in 1949, when Carmen and Sylvia Miceli gathered together their meager funds and, joined by sisters Angie and Millie, and brothers Tony and Sammie, opened Miceli's Pizzaria; it was Hollywood's first pizza house. Using family recipes brought from Sicily via Old Chicago, the Miceli's had people lined up and down the block, savoring their opportunity to feast with the Miceli family. Today Miceli's has two locations, in Hollywood and Universal City (Miceli's web site: http://www.micelisrestaurant.com/index.html).

Pizza migrated to America with the Southern Italians in the latter half of the 19th century. Although no exact record exists about when the first pizza was commercially sold, Italians in the city of Chicago claim that pizza was introduced to Chicago by a peddler who walked up and down Taylor Street with a metal washtub of pizzas on his head, crying his wares at two cents a chew. This was the traditional way pizza used to be sold in Naples, in copper cylindrical drums with false bottoms that were packed with charcoal from the oven to keep the pizzas hot. The name of the pizzeria was embossed on the drum (Stradley 2004).

Among the many Southern and North Italian Dishes brought to America, pizza is the only dish that was disaggregated from the full menu and developed into a multibillion dollar industry by entrepreneurs such as Dominos Pizza and Pizza Hut. The Pizzeria business in America has grown faster than any other type of ethnic restaurant business up to the 1980s. However during the late 1980's and 1990's the pizza industry had not succeeded in taking away customers from the hamburger business; consequently it lost market shares. The pizza industry now appears to be recovering; the total number of pizzerias in the U.S. reached 69,844 as of July 2005 compared to 68,694 in July of 2004 (PQM, 2005.)

Chronology of pizza evolution in America

1905 - Gennaro Lombardi claims to have opened the first United States Pizzeria in New York City at 53 1/2 Spring Street. Lombardi is now known as America's "Patriarca della Pizza." It wasn't until the early 1930s that he added tables and chairs and sold spaghetti as well (Stradley, 2004).

1943 - Chicago-style deep-dish pizza (a pizza with a flaky crust that rises an inch or more above the plate and surrounds deep piles of toppings) was created by Ike Sewell at his bar and grill called Pizzeria Uno (Stradley, 2004).

1945 - With the stationing of American soldiers in Italy during World War II (1941-1945) a growing appreciation of pizza arrived in America. When the soldiers returned from war, they brought with them a taste for pizza (Stradley, 2004) .

1948 - The first commercial pizza-pie mix, "Roman Pizza Mix," was produced in Worcester, Massachusetts by Frank A. Fiorello (Stradley, 2004) .

1950s - It wasn't until the 1950s that Americans really started noticing pizza. Celebrities of Italian origin, such as Jerry Colonna, Frank Sinatra, Jimmy Durante, and baseball star Joe DiMaggio all appreciated pizzas. It is also said that the line from the song by famous singer, Dean Martin; *"When the moon hits your eye like a big pizza pie, that's amore"* set America singing and eating pizzas (Stradley, 2004).

1957 - Frozen pizzas were introduced and found in local grocery stores. The first was marketed by the Celentano Brothers. Pizza soon became the most popular of all frozen food (Stradley 2004).

World wide dispersion of Italian and Italian style restaurants

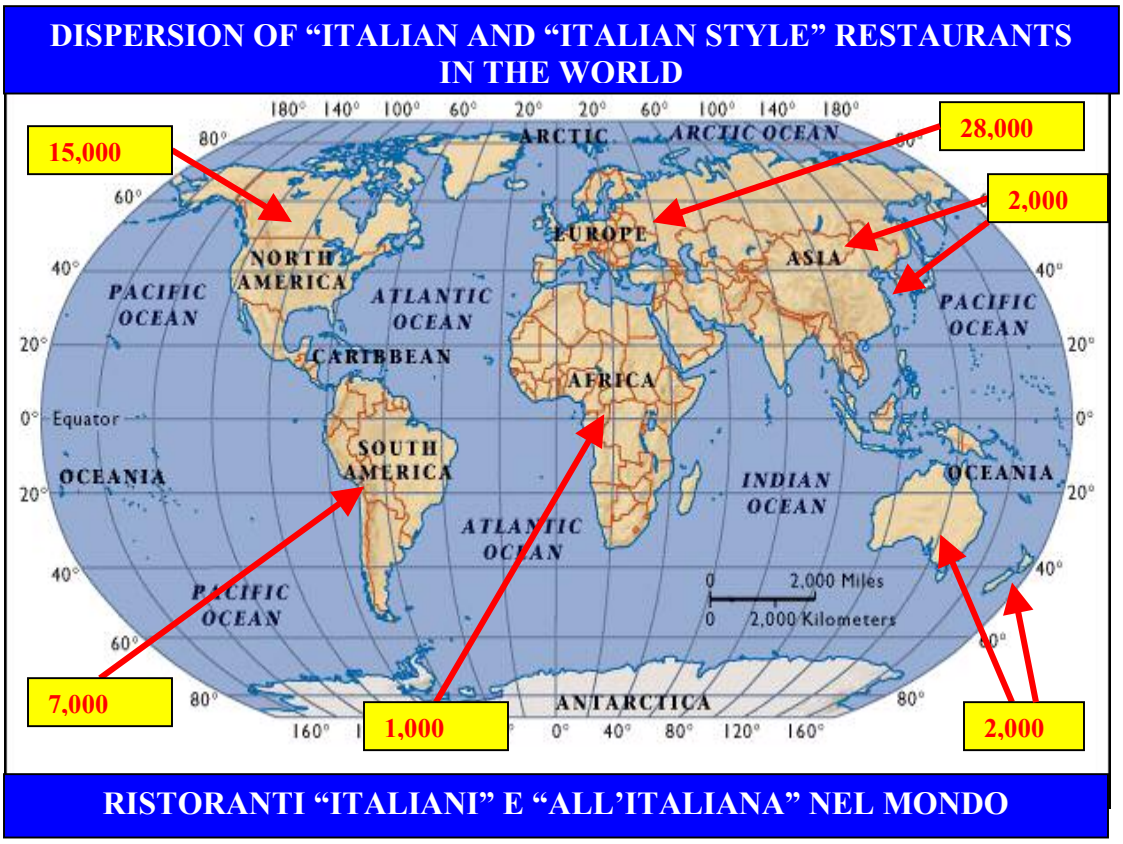
The Italian government branch "Ministero delle Politiche Agricole e Forestali" (Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry Affairs), supports the initiative launched by the national association of Italian restaurants, which is in the process of mapping the development of Italian restaurants around the world. One of the reasons for this undertaking is that Italian restaurateurs believe Italian cuisine abroad has lost its authenticity and is much misrepresented. When foreign visitors traveling to Italy, patronize Italian restaurants, they expect to be served the only Italian cuisine they know from their country. They are concerned that what made Italian cuisine abroad famous, has been lost over the last decades. According to the International Association of Italian Restaurants (Associazione Internazionale Ristoranti d'Italia, 2003), three major factors have contributed to the fame of Italian cuisine abroad:

1. The marriage of taste and simplicity, and a balance of nutrients used in the ingredients being processed;
2. The high quality of products such as pasta, olive oil, prosciutto, cheese, and wine;
3. The Italian image that authentic restaurants have portrayed over the years.

With the support of the Ministry, the association has developed a "certification of authenticity" for participating Italian and quasi Italian restaurants abroad. Since 2003 several restaurants have been certified in Belgium and Germany, but none in America as yet. The certification is not easy to obtain. In order to receive the seal of approval and the right to use the logo "Ristorante Italiano", a set of very strict rules must be followed, including the originality of Italian food products. For example: if an Italian restaurant in America is promoting Italian gelato on their menu, the certification commission will investigate whether the products used for making gelato reflect those of the original recipes in Italy. Furthermore, if gelato is served over an "Italian sponge cake" at least 60% of raw products used in the

sponge cake must be imported from Italy (Politiche Agricole, 2005). This initiative taken by the association and supported by the Ministry, strives to protect the authenticity and originality of Italian products abroad, as well as the originality of the recipes being used. Critics, however, say that this initiative is merely an attempt to export Italian made products and has less to do with protecting Italian food culture heritage. The Associazione Internazionale Ristoranti d'Italia, 2003, (International Association of Italian Restaurants), also a government supported agency, estimates that there are about 15,000 restaurants with "true" and "somewhat true" Italian identity in North America, and there are thousands of non Italian that feature Italian dishes in their menu.

Figure II Dispersion of Italian and "Italian style" restaurants worldwide.



Source: Map (Mapquest, 2005); Data: Sociometrica: Associazione Internazionale Ristoranti d'Italia, 2003) (International Association of Italian Restaurants, 2003).

An essay from a Canadian scholar, Luigi Pennacchio, on "Italian Immigrant Foodways in Post Second World War Toronto" (Tirabassi, 2002) illustrates how generations of immigration matter in terms of identity and influence. Among the many things he notes, in painting a Canadian picture very similar to the American one in the 1920's, there is children's discomfort over their lunch boxes, full of provolone and mortadella sandwiches (the second generation peanut butter & jelly syndrome), which illustrates the way Italian American food went from prejudice to acceptance in Toronto. He cites the case of a food store chain that in the 1990's changed its name in Italian neighborhoods from "Loblaws" to "Fortinos" and "Rocco's." But the most interesting part of the article is where he shows how quickly Italian American foodways permeated the Canadian way of eating. In his paper published in 2000, Simone Cinotto investigated the popularity of Italian food in America. The paper aimed to delineate how *Italian Food* has been constructed as a cultural commodity in the postwar United States. This has been shown through the analysis of representations of *Italian Food* in American popular magazines. "The research paper framed the representations of Italian Food in American popular magazines into the following theoretical perspectives, in order to verify them: A. do such representations offer evidences of the radical transformation in consumption patterns that theorists (Cinotto, 2000, p. 3) of social change have claimed happened in the United States roughly around 1970? B. which of the contested theories on the global circulation of food cultures actually applies to the case of the cross-cultural consumption of Italian Food in America, as represented in popular magazines? C. what was the effect of changing consumption scenarios, as defined by the theories of social change and food globalization, on the construction of identities and differences articulated by narratives of Italian Food in popular magazines(Cinotto, 2000, p 3)?"

Cinotto's findings offer valuable contributions to this study. In the period from 1950 to 2000, American popular magazines wrote consistently about *Italian Food*. A search for the term "Italian Cooking" in *The Readers' Guide To Periodical Literature* produced 635 articles, recipe columns, and restaurant reviews. In researching the paper, the analysis became limited to four women's magazines: *Good Housekeeping, The Ladies' Home Journal, McCall's,* and *Woman's Home Companion*; seven general interest magazines: *The New York Times Magazine, Collier's, Look, Saturday Evening Post, People, Newsweek,* and *Esquire*; one travel magazine *Holiday* (*Travel Holiday* since 1978), and one fashion magazine *Vogue*. These sources did not reveal actual consumption patterns, and readers did not contribute with recipes or visit the recommended restaurants. On the other hand, the images, ideas and directions in food choice portrayed in such magazines were relevant to the investigation. Cinotto's findings suggest that the popularity of Italian food had established itself in broad sense; however, specific dishes and entire menus from the south, central and northern Italy became part of the American eating culture after the 1970's (Cinotto, 2000).

Marketing studies reveal that the influence induced by magazines and other media is a fundamental component of consumption, (Powers 1973). Consumers do respond to the marketing acronym AIDA (Attention, Interest, Desire, Action), and seek to experience in "reality" the psychological pleasure by the transmitted message that provoked pleasurable excitement they have already experienced in their imagination (Cinotto 2000).

Contribution from related businesses made by Italian immigrants

During the time ranging from 1950 to 1970, Italian cuisine influence continued to be overwhelmingly from Southern Italy. Americans were also influenced by the evolution of

Italian cuisine thorough the media which concentrated on taste, nutritional and gastronomic value, convenience and price. During the same time, food production companies created by Italians began manufacturing Italian food in America and made additional contribution to the U.S. economic growth (N.I.A.F, (2005). Some exemplary pioneers from related industries that have made an impact on American eating culture and on the economy before WW II (8) were:

- Mr. Coffee, the best-selling coffee maker in the world, was invented by Vince Marotta, who also developed a better way to extract oil from coffee beans. He also improved on the paper coffee filter which was first patented by the German Melitta Bentz in 1908. From 1972 to 2000, more than 50 million Mr. Coffees have been sold. An estimated 10 billion Mr. Coffee paper filters are sold annually (N.I.A.F, 2005).
- Chef Boyardee, as mentioned earlier, the man behind the nation's leading brand of spaghetti dinners, pizza mix, sauce, and pasta, was really Ettore Boiardi (1897-1985), an Italian immigrant from Emilia Romagna. During World War II, the company was the largest supplier of rations for the U.S. and Allied Forces (N.I.A.F, 2005).
- The Big Mac, McDonald's sandwich classic, was invented by Jim Delligatti owner of a McDonald's franchise in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. Since its introduction in 1967, more than 14 billion Big Macs have been sold, making it the most popular sandwich in the world (N.I.A.F, 2005).
- The chocolate bar exists today in part thanks to Domenico Ghirardelli In 1867, he perfected a method to make ground chocolate. Today, Ghirardelli chocolate is sold all over the world, including the square in San Francisco named after him, where his chocolate factory - now a shopping center - still stands (N.I.A.F, 2005).

- Mr. Peanut and the Planters Peanut Company were created by Amedeo Obici and Mario Peruzzi, two Italian immigrants. Obici, who came to America from Oderzo in 1889, began selling five-cent bags of peanuts on the street. In 1897, he took Peruzzi as his partner. By 1930, the two had four huge factories, and raked in over $12 million annually. Today the Planters Peanut Company has over 5,000 employees (N.I.A.F, 2005).

- The cough drop was created by Vincent R. Ciccone, who began his career in the 1930s as a janitor at the Charms Candy Co. and retired as the company's president and chief executive officer. Ciccone secured 20 patents, including the "Blow Pop," a lolly pop with a bubble gum center. He died at age 81 in 1997, (N.I.A.F, 2005).

- The ice cream cone was invented by an Italian immigrant to New Jersey named Italo Marcioni in 1896(N.I.A.F, 2005).

In the late 1970's and early 1980's, Americans became passionate about Italian food again. European chefs, especially Italians, Germans, Swiss, and French, were being recruited to work in the new, trendy restaurants. The tourism industry in Europe had become an attraction for American tourists and more Americans traveled to Italy than ever before. It was during this time that the Northern Italian cuisine began to influence the American palate all over again. Tuscan restaurants emerged all over California; Piedmontese and Bolognese cuisines were being featured in most affluent gourmet cities such as Chicago, New York, and Boston, among others. The northern cuisine was very different: little olive oil and more

butter; tomato sauce was replaced by pesto sauce; and the Italian "Cucina Novella" forced spaghetti and meat balls to disappear from the menus of upper class restaurants (Cinotto, 2000).

The new cuisine introduced dishes such as risotto cooked in many ways, desserts such as zabaglione and tiramisu. Desserts were no longer baked in big pieces but were prepared and assembled individually – rather than wedges of cake sliced from the desert cart - and were called plated desserts. One of the most revolutionary new dishes, "Pasta Primavera", was created at the Italian restaurant, Le Cirque, in New York; it was designed for vegetarians and it had no red sauce topping and no meat balls (Schnebel, 2002). Everything around the food culture was undergoing change and this new wave of culinary influence led to culinary evolution and revolution. Culinary schools also began to emerge.

Prior to this period, there were very few culinary schools in America and when they began to emerge, chefs from famous restaurants were invited to teach there. Over the next two decades, from the 1970s to the 1990s, thousands of American and foreign students graduated from American Culinary Schools. This revolutionary trend has produced great American chefs, who now work at great restaurants or teach at institutions where they once were students. Italian restaurants, such as Il Fornaio, appreciate the high quality of training graduates receiv from culinary schools; nevertheless they require that graduates receive additional training in Italy to learn first-hand about the art of preparation of Italian cuisine. This trend, however, is changing since American culinary schools are now integrating Italian Cuisine classes into their program (CIA, 2005).

Chronology of culinary schools in America and significant events in American Culinary Education

- 1896 The *Boston Cooking School Cookbook* is published by Fannie Farmer, who stressed the importance of accuracy in recipe measurements (ACF, 2005).
- 1929 The American Culinary Federation is founded (ACF, 2005).
- 1946 James Beard airs his first television cooking show, and later writes several cookbooks on American Cuisine. For more than three decades he owned and operated The James Beard Cooking School (ACF, 2005).
- 1946 The New Haven Restaurant Institute founded on Yale's Campus. It is later renamed The Culinary Institute of America and is relocated to Hyde Park, New York.
- 1963 Julia Child airs *The French Chef* and demonstrates French cuisine to the American public and in the process brings publicity to the craft of being a chef (ACF, 2005).
- 1971 Madeleine Kamman's Modern Gourmet Cooking School opens and inspires a generation of chefs (ACF, 2005).
- 1973 Johnson and Wales opens in Rhode Island (ACF, 2005).
- 1976 ACFEI Apprenticeship Program is instituted creating the first organized apprenticeship program in the U.S. (ACF, 2005).
- 1977 The California Culinary Academy opens (ACF, 2005).
- 1980 The New England Culinary Institute opens (ACF, 2005).
- 1984 The French Culinary Institute in New York opens (ACF, 2005).

- 1986 The American Culinary Federation Educational Institute Accrediting Commission was formed; five schools are accredited within the first year (ACF, 2005).
- 1986 The Pennsylvania Culinary School opens(ACF, 2005).
- 1988 Shaw Guides publishes *The Guide To Cooking Schools,* the first comprehensive list of cooking programs worldwide (ACF, 2005).
- 1995 The Culinary Institute of America opens its West Coast campus in Saint Helena, California, offering a bachelor's degree in culinary arts (ACF, 2005).
- 1995 *Becoming A Chef* is published, offering the first compendium of answers to some of the most common questions an aspiring chef can ask (ACF, 2005).

A search for the key words "Culinary Schools" on the worldwide web returned hundreds of culinary schools' addresses nationwide. Culinary education is evolving at very fast pace. Culinary arts courses are being offered at community colleges and at universities as well. To emphasize how much culinary schools have emerged, the author investigated the "Career Education Corporation" (CEC 2005). The CEC is a publicly traded company that owns and/or manages 73 vocational schools and universities in America, Canada and Europe. As of the date of the search, November 3rd, 2005, CEC had 13 culinary schools listed on their web site:

- Atlantic Culinary Academy
- California Culinary Academy
- California School of Culinary Arts
- Le Cordon Bleu College of Culinary Arts - Atlanta
- Le Cordon Bleu College of Culinary Arts - Minneapolis/St. Paul
- Le Cordon Bleu College of Culinary Arts Las Vegas
- Le Cordon Bleu of Miami
- Orlando Culinary Academy

- Pennsylvania Culinary Institute
- Scottsdale Culinary Institute
- Texas Culinary Academy
- The Cooking and Hospitality Institute of Chicago
- Western Culinary Institute

This evolution, with the support of mass media campaigns and television shows such as in the food channel, has strengthened the popularity of Italian cuisine. Culinary schools such as the Culinary Institute of America and the California Culinary Academy teach courses in Italian cuisine as an integral part of their program. Graduates from such programs can obtain a job at authentic Italian restaurants, such as Il Fornaio, because they posses the proper training for the preparation of authentic Italian food. According to literature reviewed, the trend in culinary education is changing; schools are integrating even more ethnic cuisine [12] in their curriculum. Again, Italian food has had an impact on professional education.

How do Italians in Italy perceive the Italian – American Cuisine in the U.S.?

An analysis of popular food magazines, food websites in the Italian language, and Italian cuisine related websites, reveals that generally Italians believe that Americans only eat food from fast food chains, such as hamburgers and hot dogs that is available on every street corner. This opinion is shared among many Italians and it is based on the fact that America does not really have an eating culture, because it is home to many immigrants who try to preserve their own traditions and cultural identities, (La Cucina Degli USA. 2005). There are exceptions however; California gastronomy for example, is heavily influenced by the Italian cuisine, especially Tuscan cuisine. Italians in Italy believe that Italian immigrants to California and other entrepreneurs have capitalized on the evolution and development of the

Italian restaurant industry, and have seized the opportunity to take advantage of the high quality of agricultural products being grown in California. This evolution has influenced many related industries such as the wine, meat, and dairy industries as well. The restaurant industry in California is sustainable and is growing due to the simple fact that it has created its own cuisine identity, born predominantly from Italian cuisine, but also from the intercultural integration of many cuisines from around the world (Kagan, 2005).

The "2005 City Search Directory" of San Francisco (City Search, 2005), lists 84 different types of cuisines featured by 8,233 eating places; among them 2,359 Italian themed (Italian, Mediterranean, Pizza) restaurants, followed by 920 Mexican and 855 Chinese themed restaurants. This does not mean that the above ethnic restaurants are owned and operated by Italians, Mexicans and Chinese immigrants. In fact the ownership is varied and is a true representation of the California cuisine identity as perceived by Italians in Italy. Italians in Italy, and especially Italian tourists who have been in the U.S., do not believe that the Italian Cuisine and "Californian – Italian Cuisine" in America has any Italian authenticity. "Fettuccine Alfredo" (in Italy All'Alfredo), a pasta dish featured at the two rival Alfredo restaurants in Rome, Alfredo Alla Scrofa and Alfredo in Trastevere, (both claim to have created the dish among many other Alfredo restaurants in Rome,) became an Italian cuisine icon in America; however, Italians in Italy can hardly relate to it (Muscatine, 1964).

Nonetheless, Italian-American food has the support of many advocates who have contributed to the popularity and success of the restaurant industry not only in California, but in the U.S. nationwide. The positive messages disseminated by Italian food lovers, such as that of Deborah Mele on her web site (Mele, 2002), "Chi Mangia Bene, Mangia Italiano, (Those Who Eat Well, Eat Italian) (Mele, 2002) help the sustainability and growth of the

Italian restaurant business in America. Conversely, Italians believe that Americans eat a good breakfast compared to the light continental breakfast Italians are accustomed to in Italy.

Italians also believe that typical American restaurants are steak houses and that the U.S. has excellent meat products such as beef and veal. The servings are always abundant and that is one of the reasons why Americans are prone to obesity. Because of the typical eating habits in America even Italian restaurants are compelled to serve abundant portions, especially pasta dishes which are served with lot of sauce and lot of cheese. According to Italian literature, Italian – American cuisine in the U.S. lacks authenticity and is not comparable to the Italian cuisine served in Italy. Following is an example of how foreign people feel about Italian cuisine offered in their country (Mele, 2005). The results of a survey conducted by the Italian research agency, Sociometrica, on behalf of Associazione Internazionale Ristoratori d'Italia, show that Belgian citizens are rather skeptical about the authenticity of Italian restaurants in Belgium (Sociometrica, 2003). These results corroborate the initiative supported by the Italian Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry Affairs that an "authenticity certification" would improve foreigners' perception about the authenticity of Italian food and would eliminate its misrepresentation, thus preserving the Italian food culture. Table I below shows an excerpt from their survey.

Table I

Perception of authenticity of the Italian cuisine at Italian restaurants in Belgium

Criteria	Percentage of citizens who responded yes
Are you convinced that the Italian cuisine in Belgium is true Italian?	33
Are you sure that the cuisine featured in those restaurants represents the authentic expression of Italian cuisine from Italy?	29

Source : Sociometrica, Associazione Internazionale Ristoratori d'Italia, 2003.

Nevertheless, on November 5, 2005, the non scientific longitudinal survey conducted by the "Italian Food Forever" webmaster (Mele, 2005) to which 7,633 participants responded to date, shows that the popularity of Italian cuisine in America tops the list with 5, 339 favorable responses or 69.99 % of the votes, followed by the Mexican and Chinese cuisine with 859 of the votes or 11.25%, and 848 of the votes or 11.11% respectively, then Greek with 339 of the votes or 4.4%, and the French with 248 of the votes or 3.25 % of popularity (Mele, 2005).

How do Americans feel about Italian cuisine in Italy?

The literature was reviewed to investigate how Americans feel about the Italian cuisine in Italy. A search for articles about the topic did not return any articles from scholarly journals; however it returned many articles from trade magazines and web sites. Americans who have experienced Italian cuisine in Italy may know first-hand of any differences between Italian cuisine in America, vs. Italian cuisine in Italy. An example is given by food writer Paolo Nascimbeni, in his article in the "Life In Italy" web site (Nascimbeni, 2005). He described how he perceived Italian cuisine in Italy. Among many dishes, those that had significant differences were:

1. "Italian Pizza in Italy. OK, I like America pizza once in a while – but Italian pizza is a very different thing. The establishments which specialize in pizzas are called "pizzeria" and often they have menus listing 20 or more types. In Italy, pizza is always made to order (with somebody in the kitchen kneading the dough for the individual pizzas), usually cooked in a wood oven, and has a very thin crust – not oily at all. Nowhere in Italy is pizza an industrial

product, frozen and then popped into an oven or microwave to be heated up for the unsuspecting consumer. Typical basic toppings are: Tomato, mozzarella and anchovies (Napoli style); Tomato and mozzarella (Margherita); with mushrooms (funghi) or rugola and cherry tomato (pomodori pachini). Although this might sound similar to American pizza the taste is very different - you would not believe it until you have tried it" (Nascimbeni, 2005, About Italian food: Miths and Reality section, ¶ 1)."

2. "Italian Dressing. "What is here in America is called Italian dressing – sorry but no Italian would use it" (Nascimbeni, 2005, About Italian food: Miths and Reality section, ¶ 3)." Authentic Italian dressing consists of Olive Oil and Vinegar (Balsamic vinegar ok), Salt and maybe pepper – that is it –no garlic powder in the real Italian dressing – and it is not an already prepared, bottled industrial product but rather it is mixed from the above ingredients at the table. In Italian restaurants when you order a salad, you will normally be expected to do the dressing yourself and will be provided with the oil and vinegar set. In an oil producing area, the hosts will not be surprised if you ask for some oil to sprinkle on the bread while you are waiting for the meal to be served."

3. "Coffee and Cappuccino. What the Italians call "café" is actually an espresso, and there are many variations: "ristretto" or concentrated so that a spoon practically stands up straight in the cup; "regolare" as it sounds a normal espresso; "lungo" with more water, but still in the small cup; "macchiato" with a drop of milk in it; "al vetro" in a small glass rather than in a cup and so on. A "café Americano" is a very diluted espresso in a cappuccino cup, sometimes referred to disparagingly as "brodino" or little soup. The cappuccino is more or less the same as in the US, but you can ask for it "scuro" or dark with less milk, "chiaro" light with less coffee, and "senza schiuma" or without the froth. Any bar offers cappuccino

and it is a smaller size then the US counterpart. It is also offered at an actually drinkable temperature: I never understood why in the US they serve cappuccino at melting lava temperature" (Nascimbeni, 2005, About Italian food: Myths and Reality section, ¶ 9)." The author suggests that there are significant differences between the Italian food in America and Italian food in Italy.

Dispersion and Popularity of Italian Restaurants in the U.S.

According to the researcher's analysis (see Table II) of 10 popular cities on city search directory their web site, Italian restaurants have the highest representation (City Search, 2005). Despite the opinion of Italians in Italy, Italian – American cuisine in America appears to be the most popular of all the cuisines they listed.

For the purpose of this study, Italian ice cream parlors, espresso bars, Mediterranean restaurants, and Italian catering business have been omitted from the analysis.

Table II shows that Italian Cuisine, combining Italian Restaurants with Pizza restaurants, it appears the most popular type of cuisine in the U.S. with 16,783 operations, second only to fast food represented with 17,411 operations. It is more popular than the Mexican and Chinese cuisine represented by 8,493 and 7,102 operations respectively. The table also shows the trend and popularity of other ethnic cuisines [(12)] which were almost non-existent during 1970s when Italian cuisine was reaching its pick in popularity.

Table II

Dispersion and Popularity of Italian cuisine in 10 U.S. popular cities

Cuisine popularity by number of restaurant in 10 selected cities. Restaurant type with less than 10 operations in those cities have been excluded as they were not relevant to this comparison											Total by type of cuisine
Type of cuisine	Selected cities										
	Atlanta	Boston	Chicago	Houston	Las Vegas	Los Angeles	New York	New Orleans	San Francisco	Seattle	
American	892	606	1322	585	376	501	1236	167	576	500	6761
Asian	83	178	171	64	40	284	255	11	156	46	1288
BBQ	28	56	222	270	51	352	120	36	120	88	1343
Cajun/Creole	31	7	28	63	4	34	25	110	20	8	330
Californian	9	12	21	14	19	228	12	22	91	6	434
Caribbean	33	3	21	10	3	32	109	3	3	3	220
Chinese	**491**	**534**	**905**	**340**	**216**	**1752**	**1732**	**83**	**734**	**315**	**7102**
Coffee shop	10	163	301	162	60	551	458	31	187	146	2069
Fast Food	2079	863	3292	1929	668	4147	1551	382	1205	1295	17411
French	52	10	123	44	46	240	313	44	194	49	1115
Greek	25	39	146	19	23	126	73	10	92	52	605
Hamburgers	44	316	1111	672	217	1448	628	130	440	346	5352
Health Food	4	15	45	12	5	119	37	1	55	10	303
Indian	44	78	54	40	14	162	226	11	154	75	858
Italian full menu	**218**	**429**	**760**	**248**	**171**	**1014**	**1098**	**90**	**569**	**278**	**4875**
Japanese	121	134	184	71	94	960	507	27	443	497	3038
Korean	11	35	22	4	13	179	49	2	49	19	383
Kosher	1	8	10	0	7	31	75	1	4	5	142
Latin American	9	12	15	12	1	60	52	1	28	6	196
Mediterranean	24	40	51	22	15	88	116	6	75	30	467
Mexican	**560**	**154**	**1027**	**1039**	**301**	**3341**	**590**	**63**	**924**	**494**	**8493**
Middle Eastern	15	36	44	7	16	139	79	7	39	6	388
Pacific Rim	11	8	11	2	10	39	51	0	50	16	198
Pizza-Italian	**764**	**1479**	**2103**	**659**	**348**	**2302**	**2561**	**161**	**892**	**639**	**11908**
Seafood	231	246	316	363	88	684	493	144	290	209	3064
Soups Shop	181	204	65	130	40	289	236	25	103	45	1318
Southern/ Soul	255	6	40	47	7	71	62	20	19	9	536
Southwestern	37	18	41	36	9	44	31	6	23	6	251
Spanish	4	32	17	6	10	11	172	4	20	5	281
Steakhouse	123	56	171	118	75	211	142	27	61	68	1052
Sushi	39	81	64	37	24	263	103	15	169	33	828
Tapas	12	12	24	4	3	27	41	1	28	6	158
Thai	80	127	167	59	41	502	164	14	254	195	1603
Vegetarian	30	45	76	23	15	91	117	10	49	23	479
Vietnamese	15	52	16	43	12	106	58	9	89	74	474
Total by cities	**6567**	**6126**	**13052**	**7165**	**3057**	**20594**	**13638**	**1676**	**8287**	**5621**	**85783**

Source: City Search, Ontario, Inc. Selected popular cities, October 2005.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

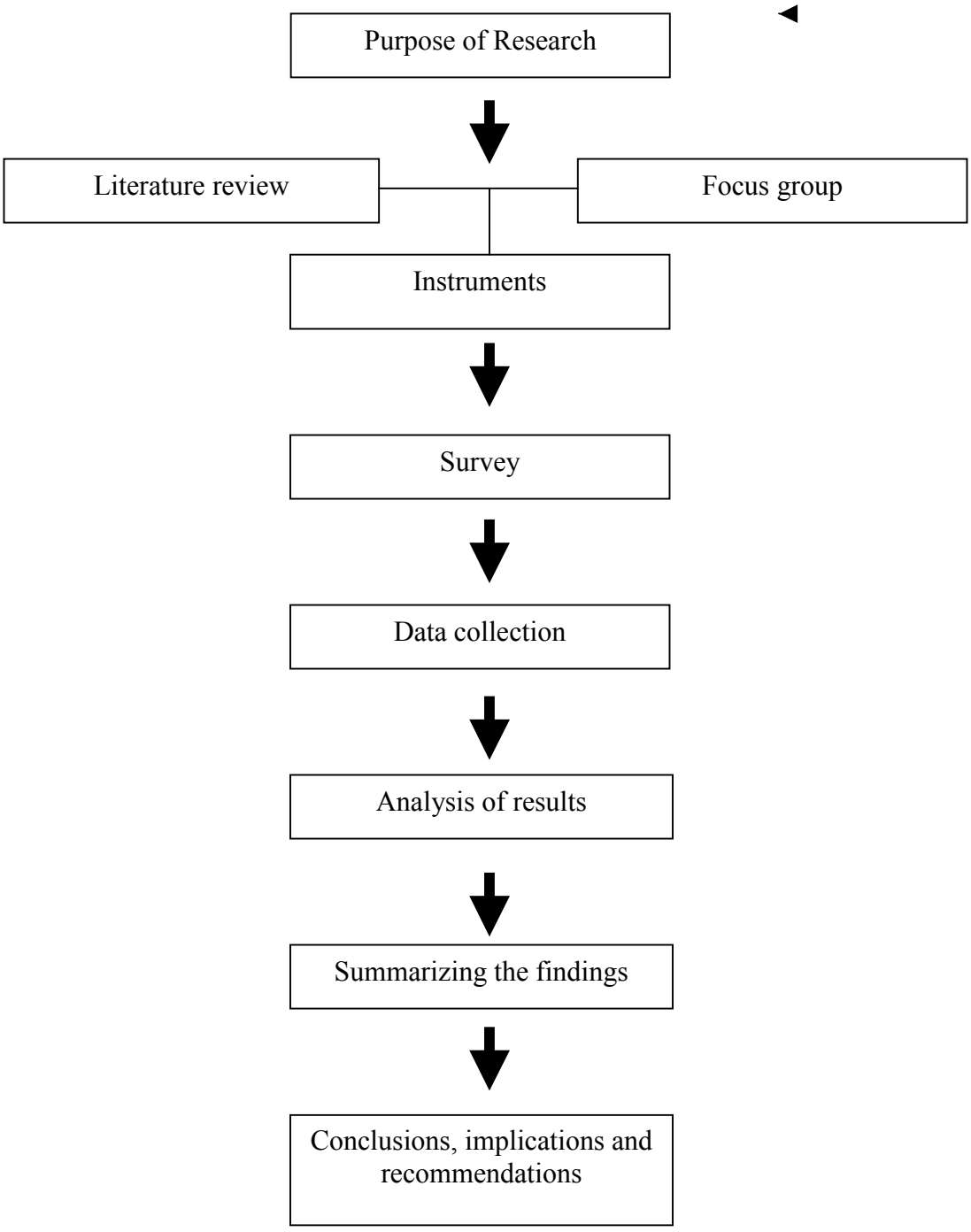
Background

This exploratory - qualitative study analyzed the historical development of Italian cuisine in America. The results that were obtained from the focus group and literature review were applied to the instruments. The questionnaire was designed to collect data necessary to identify the factors that have contributed to the popularity of Italian cuisine, and to the historical development of Italian restaurants in America In the following chapter the researcher reviews the methodology utilized in this study. The purpose of this study was to investigate the historical developments of Italian cuisine and to determine if the findings may support future research and consider whether the findings of this study could be used in the development a cuisine trend forecasting model.

Following the chronology of research activities listed below the research design has been described first, followed by a description of the populations and the sample. The procedures employed to gain access to the sample, and how the respondents were exposed to the research instrument is described next. The discussion of the analytic tools employed in the analysis of the data is then followed by detailed descriptions of the instruments themselves.

Figure III

Organization of the study



Research Design

This study used a mixed research model. For data collection it used a focus group, literature review and survey. For data analysis it used both, qualitative and quantitative methods. The aim of a qualitative research is to collect a complete, detailed description. The aim of quantitative research is to classify features, count them, and construct statistical models in an attempt to explain what is observed. This study involved three research methods to collect data. This research design used a focus group, literature review and a web based survey. Focus group interviews were used to gather participants' ideas as a tool to create a survey instrument. Based on the data collected in the focus group and literature review, a web-based survey instrument was developed to conduct the survey for the study. The purpose of the survey was to collect information from the sample about the influences on the development of Italian cuisine in America.

Population

A population is any entire collection of subjects from which to collect data. In order to make generalizations about a population, a sample that is representative of the population is studied. A statistical analysis of the information collected from a sample can provide inferences regarding population characteristics. It is important to define the population before collecting the sample, including a description of the members to be included (Steps, 1997). The population for this study was members of professional and trade associations focused on food.

Sample

A sample is a group of units selected from a larger group (the population). By studying the sample it is hoped to draw valid conclusions about the larger group. A sample is generally selected for study because the population is too large to study in its entirety. The sample however should be representative of the general population. This is best achieved by random sampling (Steps, 1997).

The sample used in this study was the membership of trade associations including the American Culinary Federation, American Dietetic Association, Association for the Study of Food and Society, Foodservice Consultants Society International, Global Hotelier Association, International Council on Hotel, Restaurant & Institutional Education, Institute of Food Technologists, International Food Service Executive Association, the Research Chefs Association, National Restaurant Association and the Community of Science. This sample was selected based on convenience and the researcher's membership access. The researcher's personal membership with the above associations allowed access to active members' email addresses. The members' databases of most associations are updated frequently; at least once a year on the membership expiry or renewal date.

The aggregate membership of the primary sample exceeded 50,000. For the purpose of this study, a secondary sample of 20% or 10,000 was selected. This level considered adequate to conduct the survey. Although the primary sample was a "convenience sample" represented by email addresses only, the researcher had no knowledge of the exact demographic and geographic characteristics of the participants. In the process of selecting the sample some limitations were identified: participants included in the secondary sample may have not

representative of the demographics geographic characteristics of the primary sample. In order to achieve a final sample, the researcher collected email addresses from ten associations' membership directory. Then the list was organized to check for duplicate email addresses (indicating multiple associations' membership). Next the addresses were tested to determine if they were valid. These two steps resulted in a final sample of 10,000. Participants might still have received two requests to participate in the study if they were using different email addresses for different associations' membership

Procedures

For the literature review, content analysis was used. Coding, frequencies were applied and pattern were observed. Content analysis is a systematic, replicable technique for compressing many words of text into fewer content categories based on explicit rules of coding (Weber, 1990 & GAO, 1996). Focus groups are in-depth, qualitative interviews with a small number of carefully selected participants (Gibbs, 1997). There are many definitions of a focus group in the literature, but features like organized discussion (Kitzinger, 1994), collective activity (Powell & Single 1996), social events (Goss & Leinbach, 1996) and interaction (Kitzinger, 1995) identify the contribution that focus groups make to social research. Powell et al (1996) define a focus group as a group of individuals selected and assembled by researchers to discuss and comment on, from personal experience, the topic that is the subject of the research. Hence the key characteristic which distinguishes focus groups is the insight and data produced by the interaction between participants.

The main purpose of focus group research is to draw upon respondents' attitudes, feelings, beliefs, experiences and reactions in a way which would not be feasible using other

methods, for example observation, one-on-one interviewing, or questionnaire surveys (Gibbs, 1997). Observational methods tend to depend on waiting for things to happen, whereas the researcher follows an interview guide in a focus group.

Compared to observation, a focus group enables the researcher to gain a larger amount of information in a shorter period of time (Morgan & Kreuger, 1993). This study will use the focus group to collect quality information essential to formulate the instruments.

Internet based surveys have been tested frequently since the evolution of the internet. The results of a study conducted by 3 researchers in information technology, to investigate whether the quality of the data collected from an internet based survey was comparable to that of data collected using traditional methods, such as telephone and postal surveys, showed that the quality of qualitative data obtained through a web-based survey was comparable to that of information obtained through telephone and postal surveys, for two of the three target firms (Codere, Mathieu and St-Laurent, 2004.)

As with other computer assisted testing programs, individuals may find internet surveys less threatening, increased anonymity, and more interesting than the traditional paper-and-pencil surveys (Davis, 1999; Epstein, 2001; Stanton, 1998). Therefore, the internet survey was selected for data collection. The less demanding characteristics of internet surveys facilitate greater honesty and self-disclosure (Epstein, 2001; Smith & Leigh, 1997).

This study used a web-based survey in determining respondents' attitudes toward specific foods and to investigate the historical development and future food trends. The membership directories from professional trade associations were used because they provided the best source of survey samples that represent the general U.S. food service professionals' population.

The survey was distributed via email to about 10,000 participants selected from a convenience sampling of associations' members who had internet addresses. It was anticipated that there shouldn't have been any undeliverable emails because the addresses would have been tested for correct delivery by using the AOL mass-email service which filters and returns undeliverable emails before the email can be sent to the listserv. The email Blind Carbon Copy (BCC) technique was applied in order to penetrate recipients' firewalls and anti-spam programs. The survey aimed to receive at least 3000 usable responses which would have represented a 30% response rate. The web-based survey was created using word processing based pre-programmed templates of an internet survey web site based in the UK. The survey was launched after obtaining a link which was sent to the respondents' email addresses with the IRB (Institutional Review Board) pre - approved cover letter explaining the purpose of the study, the time it will take to complete the survey, and the respondents' rights in compliance with the IRB.

The pilot test survey was launched on the evening of Thursday, October 27, 2005. An email was sent to about 500 recipients and on Friday October 28, 2005, a total of 56 responses were received representing a responses rate of 11.2 %. The data was analyzed using the survey web site statistical analysis tools to run frequencies and a variety of charts and graphs to establish the usability of the data. The results proved that the instrument did not require further modifications. The same day, Friday October 28, 2005, the actual survey was launched. A total of 9,500 emails were sent to recipients at a rate of 450 at a time. By Monday October 31, 2005, a total of 275 responses had been received. The response rate appeared to be very low, 2.8 %. The process was immediately evaluated and, surprisingly, a very high number of emails received responses from the respondents' auto responders. Most

of the replies had a message stating the respondent was out of the office. Also the researcher's spam folder was being filled with hundreds of returned emails. After a careful investigation of the messages in the spam folder, it was determined that many recipients were no longer members of that particular association or in case of a company email address, probably they were no longer affiliated with that particular company. Following the investigation of the email and response process, it was determined that approximately 4,000 emails were returned either by auto responders stating the respondents were out of the office, or were returned because they were undeliverable. On Thursday November 3, 2005, a reminder was sent to about 5,500 usable email addresses. By Sunday, November 06, 2005, a total of 1,177 responses were received, including the pilot test responses, representing a response rate of 11.77% from the original target population of 10,000, and a response rate of 21.4 % of the revised population of 5,500. From the 1,177 received, 69 resulted in non-usable questionnaires and 1,108 were used in the analysis.

Instruments

Focus Group

A set of 4 open-ended questions derived from the literature review and previous conversations and interviews were formulated and used for the focus group. The focus group consisted of six participants, all of which were food service industry experts. To insure that a sufficient population would be present for the interview, a total of 10 participants were selected from a list of experts. The day prior to the interview, 7 invited respondents had confirmed their participation and on the day the interview took place, 6 participants did

actually participate on the interview. The ideal target number of six participants expected to take part in the interview was reached. The interview took place on October 3rd, 2005, in a private room setting in Oklahoma City and lasted about 1 hour and 15 minutes. The group met the assumption of homogeneity, similarity, commonality, and had have similar demographic characteristics. A moderator asked the questions, encouraged discussion, generated interest and produced useful, qualitative data. The interview was audio recorded, and manual notes were taken by 1 observer and by the moderator.

Survey

For the survey, a multiple-part, self-reporting questionnaire was used to collect the data. It consisted of several parts with specific questions formulated to produce valuable data. The demographics part consisted of 11 questions with 65 items. This information was solicited to identify demographic profiles of participants in the study. Respondents were asked, among others, about their location, number of years of employment in their profession and if their company was involved in any way with producing, manufacturing, packing, distributing, or otherwise had any affiliation with Italian food. One scaled question with 15 items was formulated to assess the respondent's opinion on why Italian cuisine had become popular over the years. The next scaled questions had 8 items and were formulated to assess the respondents' opinion about the historical development of Italian restaurants in America. The next scaled questions had 4 items and were formulated to assess the respondents' opinion about the perceived profitability of Italian restaurants' operations. The next 2 scaled questions had 37 and 3 items respectively and were formulated to assess the respondents'

opinion about the influential factors affecting future trends of Italian cuisine in America, including its popularity, sustainability and its menu trends' cycles. The following 3 questions were dependent variables and had one dimension each respectively. They were formulated to measure the effect of the scaled independent variables on them, assessing the probability that Italian cuisine may be featured in restaurants other than Italian in the future; the effect on their decision as to whether they will continue to consume or produce Italian food in the future; and the effect on the popularity of Italian cuisine in the future. The last scaled question had 2 items and represented the fourth dependent variable to assess if other ethnic cuisines have similar historical trends development to the Italian cuisines, and if future development of other ethnic cuisines [(12)] will be influenced by the same future trends development factors as Italian cuisine. The questionnaire was designed and tested to occupy the respondent for about 15 minutes or less of their time. The questionnaire was modified after the focus group interview to include the focus group suggestions. On October 27, 2005, the questionnaire underwent a pilot test; the results were analyzed for accuracy of the construct and it was determined that no adjustments needed to be made. The quantitative results were analyzed for validity and reliability which are essential criteria for quality in quantitative research. The qualitative results were analyzed for credibility, neutrality, consistency, and transferability, which are the essential criteria in qualitative research.

Demographic data

This part consisted of 11 questions with 65 items. These questions assessed whether the respondents worked in the foodservice industry, if they were familiar with Italian cuisine, if they were of Italian heritage, their age, race, sex and educational background. This

information was solicited to identify demographic profiles of participants in the study. Respondents were asked, among others things, about their location, number of years of employment in their profession, and if their company was involved in any way with producing, manufacturing, packing, distributing or otherwise had any business relationship with Italian food.

Data analysis

Qualitative data was analyzed by applying content analysis techniques, using coding, and frequencies, trends and patterns analysis. According to standard quantitative statistical procedures, the data obtained through the survey were statistically analyzed using SPSS software (SPSS 14.0, October 2005 release).

Descriptive statistical procedures were implemented to determine the mean and standard deviation for each of the survey items on the instruments. Frequencies, percentages and cross tabulation of the items on the demographic data were used to compile data to examine the characteristics of the correspondents.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to explore the historical development and analyze trends of restaurant cuisine, using Italian Cuisine in America as an example. The study did not intend to measure or predict statistically the effect of historical and future trend factors on future development of Italian cuisine in America. The main purpose was to identify the factors that have contributed to the historical development and popularity of Italian cuisine and to identify the factors that could determine what future trends may develop. Forecasting future trends in restaurant cuisine is of vital importance to professionals responsible for multiple tasks such as investment, creating new markets, increasing company market shares, and bringing innovation and investing into new ventures, thus responding to consumer demands in a global environment. The research questions for this study were:

1. What are influencing factors for the historical analysis of menu trends in Italian American Cuisine?

2. What are the factors that could influence Italian Cuisine in America in the future?

3. What types of restaurants, other than ethnic Italian, feature Italian cuisine?

4. What is the perception of any differences between Italian Cuisine in America vs. Italian Cuisine in Italy?

The previous chapter elaborated the research methodologies that were used to investigate the research questions. This chapter discusses the results. The following section discusses the

results of the focus group, literature review and survey. A detailed outline of the results is described in chapter V on page 91.

Results From The Focus Group

The purpose of the focus group interview was to generate questions to be used in the questionnaire for the survey. A moderator asked questions, encouraged discussion, generated interest which produced useful, qualitative data from the focus group members. The interview was audio recorded, and manual notes were taken by one observer and by the moderator. The qualitative data obtained provided pertinent information which was then used in the questionnaire. The focus group interview results suggested several topics that helped generate the questions to be considered for inclusion in the questionnaire.

Results From The Literature Review

Following the focus group interview, additional literature was reviewed and appropriate data was extracted through content analysis and coding. For the purpose of this study the author reviewed over 150 articles from scholarly journals, trade magazines and text books on food anthropology, and accessed numerous web sites on the worldwide web. About 119 relevant bibliographic citations were included in the study. This reference material made a valuable contribution to the research. The main objective of the literature review was to investigate whether existing research was available to identify the factors for the historical trends of cuisines development, as well as the factors influencing the popularity of Italian cuisine in the future. From the literature review four research questions were generated and were used to interview the focus group participants. Italian cuisine was used as an example

for this exploratory study. If all cuisines had been researched, this exploratory study would have been too broad. After the research questions were formulated and the focus group was interviewed, additional literature was reviewed to answer the research questions.

Statistical Results From The Survey

Table II on page 62 shows the popularity of 35 different cuisines in 10 popular cities in America. Clearly Italian cuisine is the most popular in all cities selected for the comparison. After the Italian cuisine the Chinese and Mexican were second and third respectively as the most popular cuisines in all 10 cities investigated. The survey had no open ended questions and was conducted using quantitative statistical techniques.

Response rate

The survey was distributed via email to about 10,000 participants of selected associations' who had internet addresses. It aimed to receive at least 3,000 usable responses which would have represented a 30% response rate. A pilot test was launched first. It was launched on the evening of Thursday, October 27, 2005. An email was sent to about 500 recipients and on Friday October 28, 2005, a total of 56 responses were received representing a response rate of 11.2 %.

The data was analyzed using the survey web site statistical analysis tools to run frequencies, distribution charts and graphs to establish the usability of the data. A total of 9,500 emails were sent to recipients at a rate of 450 per submission. By Monday October 3,

2005 a total of 275 responses had been received. The response rate appeared to be very low, 2.8 %. The process was immediately evaluated and, surprisingly, a very high number of emails were replied to by the respondents' auto responders. Most of the replies had a message stating the respondent was out of the office. Also the researcher's spam folder was being filled with hundreds of returned emails.

After a careful investigation of the messages in the spam folder, it was determined that many recipients no longer were a member of that particular association or in the case of a company email address, probably they were no longer affiliated with that particular company. Following the investigation of the email sent and responses received, it was determined that approximately 4,000 emails were returned either by auto responders stating the respondents were out of the office, or were returned because they were undeliverable.

On Thursday November 3, 2005 a reminder was sent to about 5,500 usable email addresses. By Sunday, November 06, 2005, a total of 1,177 responses were received, including the pilot test responses, representing a response rate of 11.77% from the original target population of 10,000 and a response rate of 21.4 % of the revised population of 5,500.

From the 1,177 received, 69 were in non usable questionnaires and 1,108 were used in the analysis. The researcher decided not to include the 69 responses in the analysis because they were identified by zip code as being from out of the U.S. The researcher believed that the respondents were not familiar with the questions in the questionnaire and could not relate to the study. Had these 69 responses been included in the analysis, the quantitative results may have different.

Respondents Demographics

This section addressed the respondents' characteristics with regards to their geographic location, age, gender, level of education. In order to eliminate bias respondents were asked whether they had Italian ethnic background as this may have influenced the results of the study. It was assumed that if respondents were of Italian descent they may have not given objective answerers to the questions.

Participants' response rate by State of residence

A total of 69 responses were received from participants outside the U.S. It is assumed that these participants were temporarily or permanently out of the States or may have been working for a U.S. company outside the U.S. because they had a valid U.S. company email address. However for accuracy in the study, said responses have been omitted from the statistical analysis.

Tables III and IV show that responses were received from all states however participants from 10 States returned 54.3% of the total responses.

Table III

Respondents State of Residence and Response Rate

State	Frequency	Percent
Mississippi	2	0.18
Alabama	3	0.27
Alaska	3	0.27
New Hampshire	3	0.27
South Carolina	3	0.27
South Dakota	3	0.27

Wyoming	3	0.27
Guam	3	0.27
Virgin Islands	3	0.27
Connecticut	4	0.36
Maine	4	0.36
Utah	4	0.36
Colorado	6	0.54
Idaho	7	0.63
Oregon	7	0.63
Vermont	7	0.63
Puerto Rico	7	0.63
Hawaii	8	0.72
Nebraska	8	0.72
North Dakota	8	0.72
DC	9	0.81
Kansas	9	0.81
Tennessee	9	0.81
North Carolina	10	0.90
Wisconsin	10	0.90
West Virginia	11	0.99
Delaware	12	1.08
Arkansas	13	1.17
Indiana	13	1.17
New Mexico	14	1.26
Washington	14	1.26
Montana	16	1.44
Missouri	17	1.53
Pennsylvania	18	1.62
Arizona	20	1.81
Ohio	21	1.90
Louisiana	22	1.99
Rhode Island	22	1.99
Georgia	26	2.35
Michigan	26	2.35
Massachusetts	29	2.62
Illinois	32	2.89
Minnesota	35	3.16
Nevada	35	3.16
Maryland	49	4.42
New Jersey	57	5.14
Texas	60	5.42
Florida	73	6.59
Oklahoma	73	6.59
New York	89	8.03
California	100	9.03
Total	1108	100

Table IV below shows that responses were received from participants in all U.S. States; however, 54.3% of the response rate was generated by 10 States and California was the highest with 9.3%. The geographic location of the email addresses to which the link to

the survey was sent, as well as the number of emails sent to each State was unknown to the researcher. Therefore, it was not feasible to determine why 10 states had significantly higher response rate that other States.

Table IV

States With Highest Response Rate

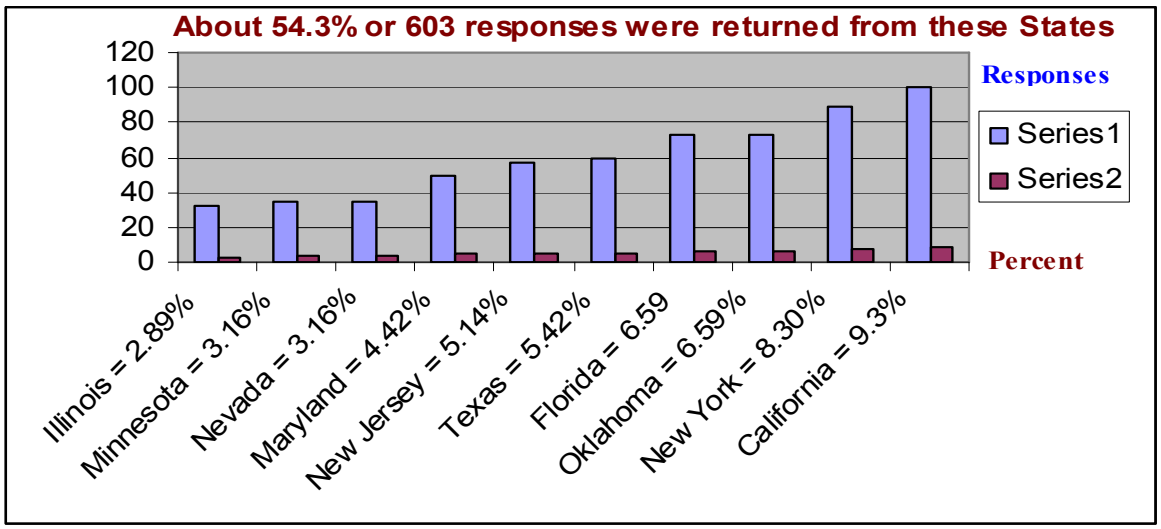


Table V shows the respondents' personal characteristics. About 63% were male and 27% were female. Their age ranged from 25 years to 65 years, and 570 or about 52% of the respondents' age ranged between 36 and 55 years. About 85% of the respondents were not of Italian heritage. This question was important in order to eliminate bias as a result of ethnic origin.

Table V

Respondents' Personal Characteristics

Attributes	Characteristics	Frequency	Percent
Gender	Male	700	63.2
	Female	408	36.8
	Total	1108	100.0
Age	<25	101	10.0
	26 – 35	203	20.1
	36 – 45	217	21.5
	46 – 55	301	29.9
	56 – 65	174	17.3
	> 66	12	1.2
	Total	1108	100
Education	High school diploma	35	3.2
	Vocational school degree	111	10.0
	BA – B.Sc. degree	540	48.8
	Master's degree	282	25.5
	Doctoral degree	140	12.6
	Total	1108	100.0
Ethnic background	...not of Italian heritage	937	84.6
	Immigrant born in Italy	4	.4
	First generation Italian,(parent born in Italy, you are born outside Italy)	28	2.5
	Second generation Italian,(grand parent born in Italy, you are born outside Italy)	34	3.1
	Third generation Italian,(great grand parent born in Italy, you are born outside Italy)	46	4.2
	I am related to an Italian from Italy	27	2.4
	I am related to an Italian born outside Italy	10	.9
	...not of Italian heritage	22	2.0
	Total	1108	100.0

Table VI shows that about 64% were actively involved in food service production or operation. About 40.2% had different employment other than the types listed above. This question was important in order to identify possible bias as a result of the respondents having a job in food service or food production.

Table VI

Employment Information of Correspondents

Items		Frequency	Percent
Are you an active food service professional?	Yes	711	64.2
	No	397	35.8
Job category	Corporate executive	41	3.7
	Corporate executive Chef	55	5.0
	Business unit general manager	43	3.9
	Executive chef	58	5.2
	Director of food and beverage	38	3.4
	Kitchen production Professional	29	2.6
	Foodservice service Professional	17	1.5
	A member of the R & D department	95	8.6
	Marketing manager	16	1.4
	Writer-publisher	11	1.0
	Writer-publisher	11	1.0
	Educator	260	23.5
	Other	445	40.2
	Total	**1108**	**100.0**

Table VII shows that about 66% of respondents were either somewhat familiar or very familiar with Italian cuisine. This question was important because it explained the degree of familiarity respondents had with Italian cuisine. Specifically it was important to know how familiar the respondents were with Italian food across all States.

Table VII

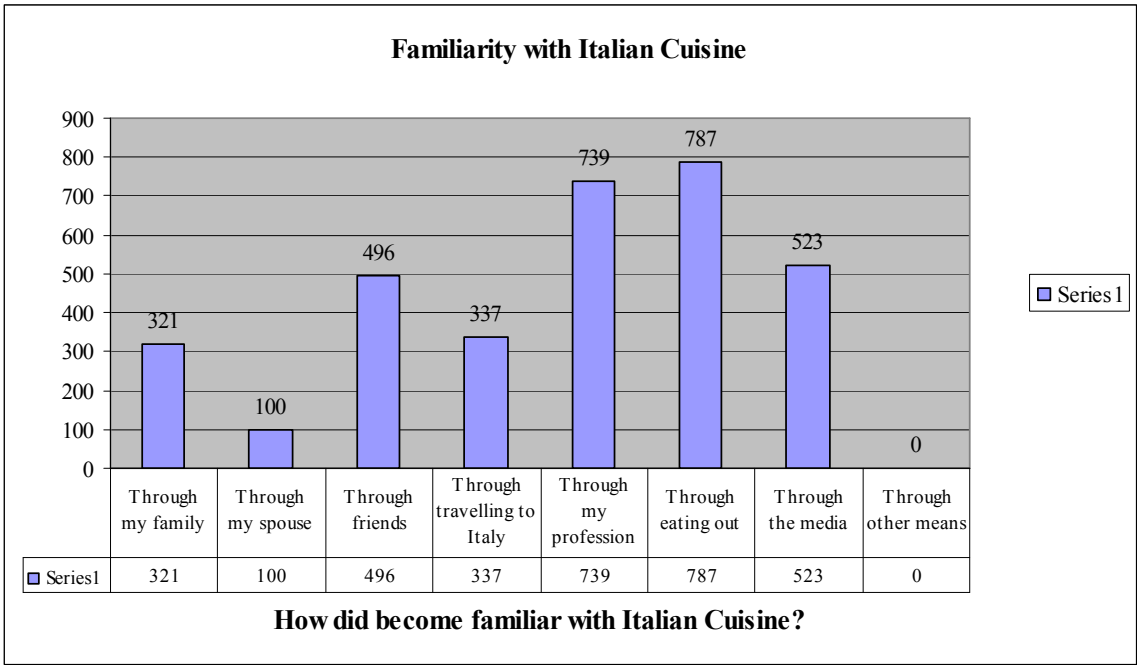
Familiarity With Italian Cuisine

Items	Frequency	Percent
How familiar are you with Italian cuisine?		
1 - Not Familiar	29	2.6
2	61	5.5
3	285	25.7
4	347	31.3
5 - Very Familiar	386	34.8
Total	1108	100.0

Table VIII shows how respondents became familiar with Italian cuisine. These findings are very valuable because they demonstrate how respondents were exposed to Italian cuisine. Using this data in forecasting future cuisine trends may help investors and operators in their advertising campaigns when promoting new cuisine and new restaurant business. The results show that respondents became familiar with Italian cuisine primarily through their profession and through eating out, and less through the media.

Table VIII

How Did You Become Familiar With Italian Cuisine?



The results in Table IX below show that all factors had significance except the factor "pressure from peers or family members." Question 11 in the questionnaire had 9 items which measured the respondents' opinion on why they appreciated Italian cuisine. Using a nominal scale to measure the responses, respondents were asked to answer to each item that applied. About 91% of the respondents believed that Italian food was not expensive, about 61% responded that they appreciated Italian food while eating out, and about 52% responded that Italian food tasted good.

Table IX

Factors That Made You Appreciate Italian Food

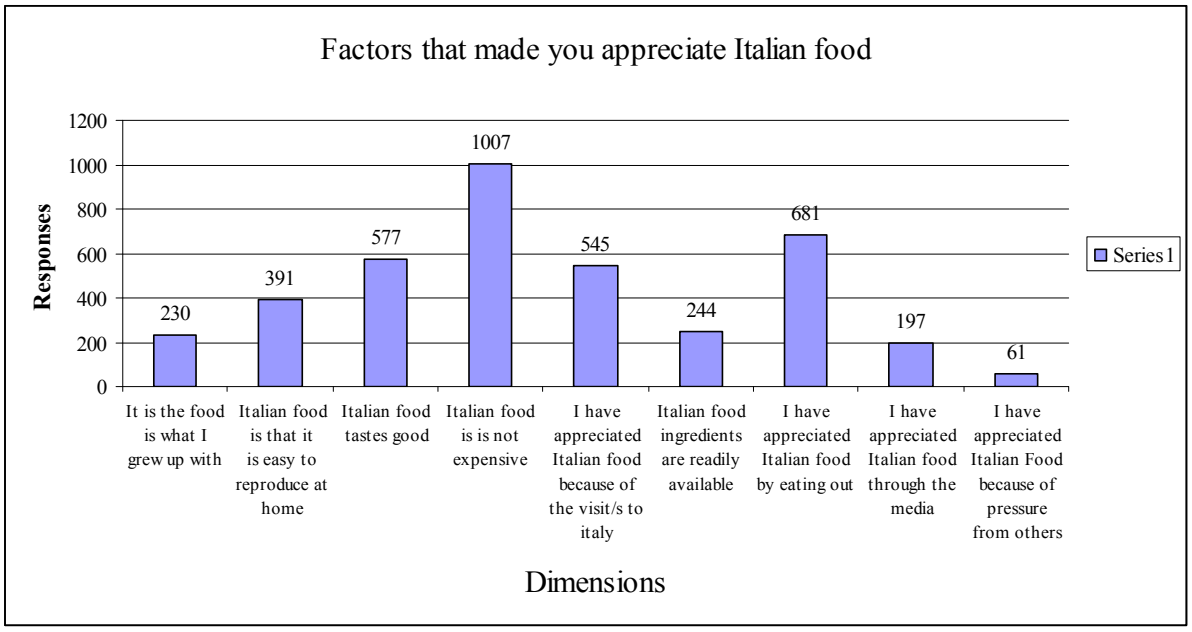


Table X shows the factors that contributed most to the development of the popularity of Italian cuisine in America. Although all factors made significant contribution, the factors that contributed most are ranked in ascending order:

1. taste
2. it is varied and appeals to almost anyone
3. readily available ingredients
4. it is recognized as part of the American dining culture
5. it can be easily reproduced in every household
6. media influence such as cooking shows on television.

Table X

Factors That Have Influence In The Historical Development Of The Popularity Of Italian Cuisine In America

Items N = 1008	Mean	Std. Deviation	Rank
Taste	4.60	.646	1
It is varied and appeals to almost anyone	4.07	.767	2
Readily available ingredients	4.00	.831	3
It is recognized as part of the American dining culture	3.98	.853	4
It can be easily reproduced in every household	3.96	.906	5
Media influence such as cooking shows on television	3.94	.899	6
Italian dishes being featured in many non Italian restaurants	3.83	.908	7
Low cost of ingredients	3.79	.870	8
It is considered "comfort food"	3.76	.902	9
Work related factors force people to eat away from home	3.61	1.007	10
It is an integral part of the curriculum in culinary schools	3.41	.955	11
Consumer education	3.33	.936	12
Health benefits claims	3.26	.990	13
Chefs' training	3.18	1.076	14
People became familiar with it by traveling to Italy	2.72	1.106	15

Table XI shows the factors that influenced the historical development Italian restaurants in America. Although all factors had significant influence, the factors that had most influence ranked in ascending order: Italian immigrants settling in America,

supermarkets added Italian ingredients to their inventory, the early creation of pizzerias, and integration of Italian dishes in non Italian restaurants.

Table XI

Factors That Had Influence In The Historical Development Of Italian Restaurants In America

Items N = 1008	Mean	Std. Deviation	Rank
Italian immigrants settling in America	4.40	.726	1
Supermarkets added Italian ingredients to their inventory	4.07	.744	2
The early creation of pizzerias	4.06	.981	3
Integration of Italian dishes in non Italian restaurants	3.90	.816	4
Media - marketing campaign	3.64	.952	5
Increased popularity of Italian celebrity chefs	3.58	1.001	6
Military personnel returning from Italy after World War II	3.55	.958	7
People traveling to Italy for business or pleasure	3.49	.920	8

Table XII shows the factors that may influence the profitability Italian restaurants in America in the future. The means for the above factors the respondents somewhat agree that said factors will influence profitability in Italian restaurants in America in the future. Therefore they do not indicate a real strength in predicting the profitability of Italian restaurants in America in the future.

Table XII

Factors That Will Influence The Profitability Of Italian Restaurants In America In The Future

Items N=1008	Mean	Std. Deviation	Rank
Italian menu items have a high profit factor	3.98	.905	1
Italian menu Items have a relatively low food cost	3.84	.894	2
Most Italian foods can now be produced in America more economically than imports	3.80	.912	3
Italian menu Items have a relatively low labor cost	3.24	1.039	4

Table XIII shows the factors that will influence Italian cuisine in America in the future. Question 15 had 29 items. From 29 items, 10 factors have been identified as the most influential. The factors taste, simplicity, variety of Italian cuisine from the North – South, and Italian style quality ingredients being produced in America are readily available ranked the highest.

Table XIII

Factors That Will Influence The Future Of Italian Cuisine In America

Items N= 1008	Mean	Std. Deviation	Rank
Taste	4.54	0.651	1
Simplicity	4.11	0.842	2
Variety of Italian cuisine, North South	4.07	0.867	3
Italian style quality ingredients being produced in America are readily available	4.00	0.833	4
Italian cuisine is not viewed as exotic, it is accessible	3.98	0.892	5
Classic Italian cuisine	3.91	0.875	6
Expectation of young diners on price, service, quality, convenience	3.86	0.847	7
Fusion into other cuisines	3.82	1.007	8
Specialized local food cuisines (e.g. Neapolitan, Piedmontes, Sicilian)	3.78	0.924	9
Italian “regional” cuisine concept development, e.g. North, Central, Southern	3.77	0.919	10

Table XIV illustrates that trend factors such as cyclical periods 5 to 8 years, low - carb diet, and Atkins diet will not influence the future of Italian cuisine. This finding is very

valuable because it explains that an ethnic cuisine [12] such as the Italian, which has been sustainable since the 1920s, will not be influenced by cyclical cuisine trends and fads such as the low - carb and the Atkins diet.

Table XIV

Factors That Will Influence Future Italian Menu Trends

Items N= 1008	Mean	Std. Deviation	Rank
Cyclical periods 5 to 8 years	3.342	.9573	1
Trends such as low - carb diet	3.07	1.185	2
Trends such Atkins diet	2.97	1.183	3

Table XV illustrates that 93.4% of respondents will continue to consume or produce Italian food in the future and 95% of respondents indicated that other non ethnic Italian restaurants will continue to feature Italian cuisine.

Table XV

Probability That People Will Consume Or Produce Italian Food In The Future And Probability That Other Types Of Restaurants Will Feature Italian Cuisine In The Future

Will you consume or produce Italian cuisine in the future	Frequency	Percent
Yes	941	93.4
No	67	6.6
Total	1008	100.0
Will other type of restaurants, other than ethnic Italian feature Italian cuisine in the future?		
Yes	958	95.0
No	50	5.0
Total	1008	100.0

Table XVI shows that 78.2% of the respondents somewhat agreed or strongly agreed that other non Italian cuisines have similar historical trend development; 75.5% of the

respondents somewhat agreed or strongly agreed that future trend of other cuisines will have the same influencing factors, and 94.5% of the respondents somewhat agreed or strongly agreed that Italian Food popularity will be sustainable in the future.

Table XVI

Respondents' Opinion About The Probability That Other Cuisines Have Also Become Very Popular In America And That Those Cuisines:

a. have similar historical trend development

b. will have the same influencing factors

c. Italian food popularity will be sustainable in the future.

Other non Italian cuisines have similar historical trend development N=1008	Frequency	Percent
1 Strongly disagree	9	.9
2 Somewhat disagree	113	11.2
3 Neutral	98	9.7
4 Somewhat agree	548	54.4
5 Strongly agree	240	23.8
Totals	1008	100.0
Future trend of other cuisines will have the same influencing factors N=1008		
1 Strongly disagree	12	1.2
2 Somewhat disagree	102	10.1
3 Neutral	133	13.2
4 Somewhat agree	494	49.0
5 Strongly agree	267	26.5
Totals	1008	100.0
Italian Food popularity will be sustainable in the future N=1008		
1 Strongly disagree	0	0
2 Somewhat disagree	0	0
3 Neutral	55	5.5
4 Somewhat agree	367	36.4
5 Strongly agree	586	58.1
Totals	1008	100.0

The cross tabulation analysis in table XVII illustrates the ethnic background characteristics of the respondents cross tabulated with their gender and two dependent variables to assess their attitude toward Italian cuisine in the future. The purpose of this analysis was twofold: to determine the attitude of non-ethnic Italians toward Italian cuisine, and to identify possible bias because it was assumed that respondents of Italian heritage would have responded positively to all questions in the survey. The results show that the majority of respondents were "not" of Italian heritage and their overall attitude was overwhelmingly positive toward Italian cuisine.

Table XVII

Cross tabulation of the ethnic background items with the following variables:

a. Gender

b. Will you consume or produce Italian cuisine in the future

c. Will other type of restaurants feature Italian cuisine in the future?

Cross tabulation

Ethnic background N = 1103	Gender		Will you consume or produce Italian cuisine in the future		Will other type of restaurants feature Italian cuisine in the future?	
Are you of Italian heritage?	Male	Female	Yes	No	Yes	No
Not of Italian Heritage	536	315	790	62	814	38
Immigrant born in Italy	28	0	28	0	25	3
First generation Italian	23	6	29	0	29	0
Second generation Italian	27	14	36	5	34	7
Third generation Italian	14	11	25	0	25	0
I am related to an Italian in Italy	4	5	9	0	9	0
I am related to an Italian born outside Italy	8	12	20	0	18	2
Total	640	363	937	67	814	38

CHAPTER V

Introduction

In the previous chapter, the results of all the analyses performed on objectives of this study were reported. In this chapter those results are discussed with reference to the major findings of this study and the associated objectives that were set up in the earlier chapter. The limitations of this study, suggestions for future research, and insights gained while conducting the analysis are presented. Chapter five reviews the summary of findings, implications of these findings, recommendations, and suggestions for future research.

Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study was to analyze the historical development and trends of restaurant cuisine, using Italian Cuisine in America as an example. The study did not intend to measure or predict statistically the effect of historical and future trend factors on the future development of Italian cuisine in America. The main purpose was to identify the factors that have contributed to the historical development and popularity of Italian cuisine and to identify the factors that could support future research and consider whether the findings of this study could be used in the development a cuisine trend forecasting model.

Forecasting future trends in restaurant cuisine will be of vital importance to professionals responsible for multiple tasks such as investment, creating new markets, increasing company market shares, and bringing innovation and investing into new ventures, thus responding to consumer demands. Specifically the study was conducted to help the

researcher understand how to better determine what future culinary trends in restaurants will develop. Because America's melting pot is a blend of at least 80 different cuisines the researcher used only Italian cuisine as an example to reduce the broadness of the study. The detailed purpose of the study was highlighted in the research questions:

1. What are influencing factors for the historical analysis of menu trends in Italian American Cuisine?

2. What are the factors that could influence Italian Cuisine in America in the future?

3. What types of restaurants, other than ethnic Italian, feature Italian cuisine?

4. What is the perception of any differences between Italian cuisine in America vs. Italian cuisine in Italy?

Contribution

The results of this exploratory study supports the potential development of an operationalizable model in the future that can measure past culinary trends and forecast future restaurant cuisine trends. This model could be used by key industry people enabling present operators and new entrants to predict what future culinary trends will be. In order to narrow the broad perspective of historical development of cuisines and future restaurant cuisine trends, the study concentrated on the historical development and analysis of trends of Italian cuisine both, in Italy and in America.

SUMMARY OF MAJOR FINDINGS

Demographic Information

A total of 1177 responses were received from participants in all U.S. States; however, over half of the response rate was generated by 10 States and the highest was California with over 9%. Over 60% of the respondents were male. The majority of respondents had college education; about 50% had an undergraduate degree, 25% had a master's degree and 12% had a doctoral degree. Most respondents, close to 85%, were not of Italian heritage. This question was of vital importance in order to eliminate bias as a result of ethnic origin. Over 60% were actively involved in food service production or operation and were working in various positions of the food industry.

Although the study cannot be fully generalized to the total population, the characteristics of the sample were considered adequate to conduct the study. In order to determine the popularity of Italian cuisine and Italian restaurants, respondents were asked as to what degree they were familiar with Italian cuisine, how they became familiar with it, and what made them appreciate it. About two thirds responded that they were familiar with it, and close to 85% responded they became familiar through traveling or through their profession. The first results which confirmed the suggestions from the focus group were:

1. Over 90% responded that Italian food is not expensive
2. Two third responded that they have appreciated Italian food by eating out
3. Over half responded that Italian food tastes good

Specific Findings From The Survey

The factors proposed by the focus group were confirmed in the study.

Factors that most influenced in the historical development of the popularity of Italian cuisine in America

- Taste
- It is varied and appeals to almost anyone
- Readily available ingredients
- It is recognized as part of the American dining culture
- It can be easily reproduced in every household
- Media influence such as cooking shows on television

The factors that influenced the historical development of Italian restaurants in America

- Italian immigrants settling in America
- Supermarkets added Italian ingredients to their inventory
- The early creation of pizzerias
- Integration of Italian dishes in non Italian restaurants
- Media - marketing campaign

To the question of whether people will consume or produce Italian food in the future and the probability that other types of restaurants will feature Italian cuisine in the future, over 90% of the respondents indicated they would consume or produce Italian cuisine in the future, and about 95% believe that other types of restaurants, other than ethnic Italian, e.g.: hotel restaurants, catering companies, institutional catering, hospitals, will feature Italian cuisine in the future. These results suggest that Italian cuisine will continue to be popular in

the future and restaurants, other than ethnic Italian will continue to feature Italian cuisine in the future.

The following section describes the results of the study by data collection method for each research question. It is helpful to examine the information in this manner because it provides a synopsis of similarities and differences.

Historical influences on cuisine trends in Italian American Cuisine

The factors that had similarity and influenced the historical trends in American Italian Cuisine, are primarily taste, simplicity, low cost factors and the availability of food products. Other factors such as the fusion of Italian Cuisine with other ethnic cuisines and the integration of Italian dishes in non – Italian restaurants have influenced the Italian cuisine to become part of the American eating culture.

Focus Group	▪ Taste ▪ Simplicity ▪ Other cuisines includes Italian food products ▪ Variety of Italian cuisine: changes in every region ▪ Italian cuisine is not exotic, it is accessible ▪ Italian food products can be found at any supermarket
Literature review	▪ Italian immigrants preserved the Italian eating culture. ▪ The evolution of Italian restaurants supported the determination to continue the Italian way of eating

- Fusion of cuisines included Italian cuisines
- The variety of Italian cuisine: North-South menus
- Combination of taste and simplicity of preparation
- Low cost factor

Survey

- Italian immigrants settling in America
- Supermarkets added Italian ingredients to their inventory
- The early creation of pizzerias
- Integration of Italian dishes in non Italian restaurants
- Media - marketing campaign

Future influences on cuisine trends in Italian American Cuisine

The following section highlights the factors that may influence the future of Italian Cuisine in America. Those factors are similar to the historical cuisine trends highlighted above. The primary factors are taste and simplicity. Other factors are the availability of food products and the fusion of Italian Cuisine with other ethnic cuisines and the integration of Italian dishes in non – Italian restaurants have influenced the Italian cuisine to become part of the American eating culture. Respondents also suggested that cooking shows on television and marketing campaign will be a factor will influence the future of Italian cuisine in America.

Focus Group

- Health benefits claims

- Low cost factor
- The choice of products available is as varied as in Italy
- Cooking shows on television will generate demand
- Publishing of Italian cookbooks and audiovisual material will educate and generate more demand
- Travel writers will greatly influence future demand

Literature review

- Commercialization of Italian products in America may stay constant
- Marriage of taste and simplicity of preparation
- Low cost to purchase the raw product
- Fusion of cuisines included Italian cuisines
- Easy to reproduce in any households

Survey

- Taste
- It is varied and appeals to almost anyone
- Readily available ingredients
- It is recognized as part of the American dining culture
- It can be easily reproduced in every household
- Media influence such as cooking shows on television.

Restaurants other than ethnic Italian that may feature Italian Cuisine in the future

According the results highlighted above, Italian Cuisine in America has become an integral part of the American eating culture. Italian dishes have become very popular in many American households because dishes are easy to be reproduced, hence the factors the marriage of taste and simplicity and the availability of Italian food products in every supermarket. The respondents indicated that Italian Cuisine may also be featured in non – traditional Italian ethnic restaurants such as hotel, institutional, catering, hospitals and cafeterias. The findings from the focus group corroborate with the findings of the literature reviewed and the survey.

Focus Group	▪ Other ethnic restaurants ▪ Hotel Restaurants ▪ Institutional restaurants
Literature review	▪ Italian style dishes are being featured at almost any non ethnic – Italian restaurant. ▪ Both, Italian and Italian-American food products have become an integral part of many restaurant inventories and American households. ▪ Italian Americans live almost anywhere in the U.S. and patronize all styles of restaurants; therefore there is an influence on non – Italian restaurants to include Italian dishes in their menu
Survey	▪ Different types of restaurants, other than ethnic Italian, e.g.: hotel restaurants, catering companies, institutional catering, hospitals, will feature Italian cuisine in the future

Perception of differences between Italian Cuisine in America vs. Italian Cuisine in Italy

The literature reviewed has provided appropriate data pertaining to the popularity that Italian Cuisine has gained in America over the past five decades. Italian Cuisine in America has positioned itself becoming an integral part of the American eating culture. The Focus group suggested that Americans and especially young diners may perceive that there are significant differences between the Italian Cuisine in America vs. Italian Cuisine in Italy. The most significant factors identified by the focus group are corroborated with the literature reviewed and the results from the survey. Among others the most significant factors are the loss of Authenticity of Italian food through commercialization of specialty foods imitations produced in America, such as inferior cheeses, cured meats, and similar products causes the food in America to be different from the food in Italy, and originality of recipes that have changed over time causing Italian food in America to become different from the traditional food in Italy. The perceived differences are highlighted below.

Focus Group

- Younger generations are concerned about loss of Authenticity because an Italian - American restaurant may not employ Italian or Italian trained chefs and the food is prepared differently
- Younger diners may suspect that Italian products made in America may not be authentic and may make negative impressions to the "real thing," or food produced and consumed in Italy.
- There are concerns about loss of authenticity because recipes have changed over time and Italian food in America is different from the food in Italy
- The commercialization of specialty foods imitations produced in

	America, such as inferior cheeses, cured meats, and similar products causes the food in America to be different from the food in Italy
Literature review	▪ There is disagreement about the authenticity and originality of Italian cuisine in America. ▪ Italians in Italy, especially those who have visited the U.S., believe that what is marketed in America as Italian cuisine has little to do with authentic Italian food in Italy. ▪ Americans visiting Italy ask for dishes that are not originally Italian or are not consumed the Italian way, e.g.: drinking a cappuccino with dinner or asking for parmesan cheese to top a seafood pasta, or asking for Italian dressing or Italian seasoning to enhance the flavor of the food they are about to eat, asking for an olive oil and balsamic vinegar dip before the meal is served.
Survey	▪ Italian cuisine in America, seen from the point of view of an Italian resident in Italy who was somewhat familiar with native Italian food and Italian cuisine featured in America, is not authentic and has lost its originality ▪ Americans who have traveled to Italy are familiar with the difference between the Italian food served in America and that which is served on Italian soil. It was determined that the perceived differences between Italian cuisine in America and Italian cuisine in Italy, confirm that these are two separate cuisines.

Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to investigate an idea and to gain appropriate information that could be used in future research and consider whether the findings could be used in the development of a cuisine trend forecasting model. The most influential factors that contributed to the historical development of the popularity of Italian cuisine in America were:

1. Taste
2. Italian Cuisine is varied and appeals to almost anyone
3. Readily available ingredients
4. It is recognized as part of the American dining culture
5. It can be easily reproduced in every household
6. Media influence such as cooking shows on television
7. Italian immigrants settling in America
8. Supermarkets added Italian ingredients to their inventory
9. The early creation of pizzerias
10. Integration of Italian dishes in non Italian restaurants
11. Media - marketing campaign

The results suggest that the most significant factors identified can be useful predictors for future cuisine trends. The popularity of Italian cuisine was identified through the historical data available from literature reviewed, through the expertise of the focus group and through the reliable and valid responses of the participants. The findings of this study

provide valuable primary data which can be used as the building block for future research involving the investigation of other ethnic cuisines [12] and the forecasting of development and popularity of cuisines in America. Forecasting the future development, sustainability, popularity, and success of cuisines in America requires a blending of the historical analysis of the development of cuisines, the opinions of experts and the opinion of participants representing the general population. Members of the sample used in this study have the opportunity to be a significant catalyst for change and can set the course for the future of Italian cuisine in the U.S. However it appears that the information gathered through this study may not be sufficient to establish a strong base to develop a cuisine trend forecasting model. Future research should include a larger random sample and not a convenience sample which is a true representative of the population. Furthermore future research should be conducted using mixed methods such as internet survey, face to face interview and mailing of questionnaires. The methodology should include the triangulation technique to better support the research and validate the findings as true building block for future investigation.

Limitations

The following were the limitations of this study:

1. There may have been unidentified factors that could have influenced the response of the participants.
2. The sampling frame may have not been representative of the full population of food service professionals who are members of the following organizations used draw the sample for the survey: American Culinary Federation, American Dietetic

Association, Association for the Study of Food and Society, Foodservice Consultants Society International, Global Hotelier Association, International Council on Hotel, Restaurant & Institutional Education, Institute of Food Technologists, International Food Service Executive Association, the Research Chefs Association, National Restaurant Association and the Community of Science.

3. The respondents who chose not to participate in the research study have been assumed to possess the same characteristics of the participants who responded to the email. A sample of trade professionals (N = 10,000) was drawn from the current aggregate databases of the above mentioned professional associations cited in the population section. Due to this, the generalizability of the study results and conclusions are limited to those respondents whose name appeared in the aggregate databases.

4. The majority of the respondents participating in this study are working in one way or another in food service related fields, and therefore, the sample is likely to be overly representative of the food and beverage industry. The results therefore cannot be generalized to the general population when it includes consumers. A larger sample population which would have included an equal number of consumers, could have avoided that the bias of unilateral point of view influence and provide more strength and support to the research findings.
5. To conduct this study, a self-report instrument was be used. There could be some reporting bias in the data collected. It is possible that the subjects' responses do not

match their behavior. In the area of research there has always been skepticism regarding the validity of self-reports.

6. The survey was launched on a Friday. Most respondents work out of an office and do not work the weekend. As a result approximately 4,000 emails were returned by email auto responders. Future surveys should be launched on a Monday; respondents are more likely to be in the office on a Tuesday and the probability of receiving a higher response rate is greater.
7. From the 1,177 questionnaire responses received, 69 were in non usable and 1,108 were used in the analysis. The researcher decided not to include the 69 responses in the analysis because they were identified by zip code as being from out of the U.S. The researcher believed that the respondents were not familiar with the questions in the questionnaire and could not relate to the study. Had these 69 responses been included in the analysis, the quantitative results may have been different.

IMPLICATIONS

Forecasting future cuisine trends will be of vital importance to professionals responsible for multiple tasks such as investment, creating new markets, increasing company market shares and bringing innovation and investing into new ventures, thus responding to consumer demands in a global environment. Accurate and timely information about what is likely to happen to the economy and society in the future has always been of value to business decision-makers.

Today's economic forecasters tend to rely more on data, computer models and economic theories rather than divine inspiration, although, given the accuracy of their forecasts, one might question the change in tactics. Forecasting has become an important part of planning for any other business; sales forecasts impact the inventory of finished goods and raw materials, the need for personnel, space requirements, and financing, among other things. Macroeconomic forecasts may influence whether and where a business decides to expand, and the type and amount of financing that is used.

The development of modern economic theories such as the business cycle theory, the creation of various indexes including the indexes of leading and lagging economic indicators and sophisticated computer programs, have given rise to new forecasting techniques. One of the key assumptions for most forecasters is that the past serves as the most important guide to the future. That does not mean that the future is a re-run of the past such as the fashion industry, or that data about the past should be the only basis for a forecast. Such a view of historical trends was at the core of this study which examined past Italian cuisine trends and Italian restaurant historical development in America and then used the data to forecast whether those trends can help predict what future trends may develop. Obviously, socioeconomic conditions and global economies do not remain constant over time. Nevertheless, data about past trends and activities, when applied to a theoretical framework, provide some of the best information available.

Although food trends affect all food related businesses, restaurateurs are affected more than anyone else. Restaurateurs are catalysts for change; they promote menu innovation and respond to trends such as the low-carb diet. They are in touch with consumers and are the first to identify and respond to consumers' demand. Often new products and new

recipes are launched and promoted by popular chefs or popular restaurants; e.g.: pasta primavera, created at the Italian restaurant Le Cirque in New York; it was designed for vegetarians and it had no red sauce topping and no meat balls.

The literature revealed that research authors share the same broad vision: ethnic foods have become an increasingly popular food trend in America. Noticeably, at the micro level, the present vision is different as restaurants are promoting more regional, local-emotional and nostalgic cuisine. Taking into consideration that a prediction is important, yet not perfect, the findings of this study can certainly contribute to a possible future forecasting model development which would allow comparing forecasted trends with actual development and eventually, time series studies would support the operationalization of such a model.

One implication is that new entrants to the restaurant business should pay attention to what past trends have been and what future trends may become. The findings of this study will help predict what cuisine consumers may appreciate in the future and what possible influence it may have on a wide range of related industries; e.g.: agricultural, manufacturing, distributing, banking – lending industries, including the educational sector. Predicting a future trend cycle of a cuisine will help related industries plan and budget to produce the necessary supplies to meet the demand of future cuisines. Another implication is to accurately follow related industries' trends such as the dietetic trends and reactions to the changing demand for healthier and nutritious food. The use of new technologies, which will allow for the production of safer food and reduction of liability insurance costs, may lead to more profit and sustainability. America continues to welcome new immigrants who will introduce new ethnic cuisines [(12)] to Americans. Future research may determine if other

ethnic cuisines have similarities and if a prediction model can be developed and applied to all cuisines.

FUTURE RECOMMENDATIONS

The popularity of Italian cuisine and the development of Italian restaurants in America in the future will continue to have an impact on America's economy. Other cuisines which are developing in a similar way will also continue to have an impact on America's economy in the future.

The purpose of this study was to put an idea to work and attempt to analyze historical development and future trends of ethnic cuisine in America. The results of this qualitative and exploratory study suggest that the data collected could be used to develop a trend forecasting model which can be applied to other cuisines.

The results presented are the summery of the findings from the focus group, from the literature reviewed and from the survey. The most valuable data of all pertained to the historical trends of Italian cuisine and development of Italian restaurants. Being able to predict what future cuisine trends may flourish will be helpful to investors, food service operators, suppliers and other businesses related to the food service industry. The results of this study will make a valuable contribution to future research on the subject matter. This study should be replicated researching all cuisines to determine if other ethnic cuisines [(12)] have similarities and if a model can be developed and applied to forecast future cuisines' development in America.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

APPROVAL FORM FOR RESEARCH INVOLVING
HUMAN SUBJECTS (IRB FORM)

Oklahoma State University Institutional Review Board

Date:	Monday, September 26, 2005
IRB Application No	HE0614
Proposal Title:	A Model for the Analysis of Historical Development and Trend Forecasting of Restaurant Cuisine
Reviewed and Processed as:	Exempt

Status Recommended by Reviewer(s): Approved Protocol Expires: 9/25/2006

Principal Investigator(s)

Angelo A. Camillo
210 HES
Stillwater, OK 74078

Patrick J. Moreo
210 HES
Stillwater, OK 74078

The IRB application referenced above has been approved. It is the judgment of the reviewers that the rights and welfare of individuals who may be asked to participate in this study will be respected, and that the research will be conducted in a manner consistent with the IRB requirements as outlined in section 45 CFR 46.

[X] The final versions of any printed recruitment, consent and assent documents bearing the IRB approval stamp are attached to this letter. These are the versions that must be used during the study.

As Principal Investigator, it is your responsibility to do the following:

1. Conduct this study exactly as it has been approved. Any modifications to the research protocol must be submitted with the appropriate signatures for IRB approval.
2. Submit a request for continuation if the study extends beyond the approval period of one calendar year. This continuation must receive IRB review and approval before the research can continue.
3. Report any adverse events to the IRB Chair promptly. Adverse events are those which are unanticipated and impact the subjects during the course of this research; and
4. Notify the IRB office in writing when your research project is complete.

Please note that approved protocols are subject to monitoring by the IRB and that the IRB office has the authority to inspect research records associated with this protocol at any time. If you have questions about the IRB procedures or need any assistance from the Board, please contact Beth McTernan in 415 Whitehurst (phone: 405-744-5700, beth.mcternan@okstate.edu).

Sincerely,

Sue C. Jacobs, Chair
Institutional Review Board

OKLAHOMA STATE UNIVERSITY
OSU

Dear Focus group participant:

My name is Angelo Camillo; I am a Ph.D. student at the School of Hotel and Restaurant Administration. I am conducting a research study as part of my dissertation. I would like to confirm your participation in a focus group to help generate possible research questions to be included in my survey questionnaire. The questionnaire is an instrument I will use to survey a sample population of about 10,000 randomly selected respondents. Specifically the research I am conducting is about the historical analysis and the development of a trend forecasting model of restaurants cuisine, and will use the Italian cuisine as an example. The tile of the dissertation is:

A Model for the Analysis of Historical Development and Trend Forecasting of Restaurant Cuisine

This research study will endeavor to develop a conceptual model to forecast future trends of restaurant cuisine and its possible applicability to all cuisines. Forecasting future trends in restaurant cuisine will be of vital importance to professionals responsible for multiple tasks such as investment, creating new markets, increasing company market shares, and bringing innovation and investing into new ventures, thus responding to consumer demands in a global environment.

The questions suggested by the focus group participants will be analyzed in order to generate additional questions and to help formulate a complete questionnaire to be used in the survey. The results from the focus group will be archived until January of 2008.

I kindly ask you to take about one hour of your time to participate in this semi - structured discussion. We will review the format with you when the group of 6 people meets. Your input is extremely important to the outcome of this study as the results will be valuable to both academia and the food service industry. Your participation is totally voluntary and can be discontinued by you at any time. You may take a break at any time.

I would like to take this opportunity to thank you in advance for your time and effort for assisting us with this project. For information about your rights as subject, please contact Dr. Sue Jacobs, Institutional Review Board Chair, at 415 – Whitehurst Hall, Stillwater OK- 74078, phone 405-744 1676. Also please feel free to contact me with any other questions.

Sincerely,

Angelo Camillo

Ph.D. Candidate

Project Title: A Model for the Analysis of Historical Development and Trend Forecasting of Restaurant Cuisine

Investigators: Angelo A. Camillo, BA, MBA, Ph.D. (class of 2005)

Purpose: I am conducting a research about the historical analysis and the development of a trend forecasting model of restaurants cuisine, and will use the Italian cuisine as an example. The tile of the research is:

A Model for the Analysis of Historical Development and Trend Forecasting of Restaurant Cuisine

This research study will endeavor to develop a conceptual model to forecast future trends of restaurant cuisine and its possible applicability to all cuisines. Forecasting future trends in restaurant cuisine will be of vital importance to professionals responsible for multiple tasks such as investment, creating new markets, increasing company market shares, and bringing innovation and investing into new ventures, thus responding to consumer demands in a global environment. I have organized a focus group to seek additional questions that could enhance the survey questionnaire to obtain necessary data for the study. The results from the focus group will be archived until January 2008.

Procedures:
I kindly ask you to take about one hour of your time to participate in this semi - structured discussion. You will be asked to discuss up to 6 questions related to the study. Your input is extremely important to the outcome of this study as the results will be valuable to both academia and the food service industry.

Risks of Participation:
"There are no known risks associated with this project which are greater than those ordinarily encountered in daily life."

Benefits:
There are no personal direct benefits to you for participating in this study

Confidentiality:
Your contribution will be recorded in writing and/or taped. The data collected will be transcribed in electronic format and will be archived in retrieval system until January 2008. Your personal identities will be kept confidentially and will only be known to each other in the group and to the investigator. There are no foreseable risks to maintaining confidentiality. "The OSU IRB has the authority to inspect consent records and data files to assure compliance with approved procedures".

Compensation: There is no compensation for participating in this focus group

Compensation: There is no compensation for participating in this focus group

Contacts: For information about your rights as subject, please contact Dr. Sue Jacobs, IRB chair, Institutional Review Board Chair, at 415 – Whitehurst Hall, Stillwater OK- 74078, phone 405-744 1676. Also please feel free to contact me with any other questions at: 210S Stillwater, OK 74078-6114, phone 405-744 1676

Participant Rights:
Your participation is totally voluntary and can be discontinued by you at any time without reprisal or penalty. You may take a break at any time during the discussion.

Signatures: I, _____ have read and fully understand the consent form. I sign it freely and voluntarily. A copy of this form has been given to me.

_____ _____
Signature of Participant Date

I, Angelo A. Camillo, researcher, certify that I have personally explained this document before requesting that the participant sign it.

_____ _____
Signature of Researcher Date

Oklahoma State University Institutional Review Board

Date:	Tuesday, October 04, 2005
IRB Application No	HE0617
Proposal Title:	A Model for the Analysis of Historical Developmnt and Trend Forecasting of Restaurant Cuisine - II
Reviewed and Processed as:	Exempt

Status Recommended by Reviewer(s): Approved Protocol Expires: 10/3/2006

Principal Investigator(s

Angelo A. Carrillo
210 HES
Stillwater, OK 74078

The IRB application referenced above has been approved. It is the judgment of the reviewers that the rights and welfare of individuals who may be asked to participate in this study will be respected, and that the research will be conducted in a manner consistent with the IRB requirements as outlined in section 45 CFR 46.

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3. Report any adverse events to the IRB Chair promptly. Adverse events are those which are unanticipated and impact the subjects during the course of this research; and
4. Notify the IRB office in writing when your research project is complete.

Please note that approved protocols are subject to monitoring by the IRB and that the IRB office has the authority to inspect research records associated with this protocol at any time. If you have questions about the IRB procedures or need any assistance from the Board, please contact Beth McTernan in 415 Whitehurst (phone: 405-744-5700, beth.mcternan@okstate.edu).

Sincerely,

Sue C. Jacobs

Sue C. Jacobs, Chair
Institutional Review Board

OKLAHOMA STATE UNIVERSITY
OSU

Dear Respondent:

My name is Angelo Camillo. I am a Ph.D. candidate at the School of Hotel and Restaurant Administration at Oklahoma State University. I am conducting a research study as part of my dissertation and I would like to ask for your participation by completing a survey questionnaire. The research is attempting to help us know how to better determine what future culinary trends in restaurants will develop. Italian cuisine is the example we use. The Title of the dissertation is:

A Model for the Analysis of Historical Development and Trend Forecasting of Restaurant Cuisine

This research study will endeavor to develop a conceptual model to forecast future trends of restaurant cuisine and its possible applicability to all cuisines. Forecasting future trends in restaurant cuisine will be of vital importance to professionals responsible for multiple tasks such as investment, creating new markets, increasing company market shares, and bringing innovation and investing into new ventures, thus responding to consumer demands.

I kindly ask you to take a few minutes of your time to participate in this survey. Your input is extremely important to the outcome of this study as the results will be valuable to both, academia and the food service industry. Your participation is totally voluntary and can be discontinued by you at any time. Kindly respond within 5 days from the receipt of this letter. You may access the survey questionnaire by clicking on the following link:

http://FreeOnlineSurveys.com/rendersurvey.asp?id=112582

I would like to take this opportunity to thank you in advance for your time and effort for assisting us with this project. For information about your rights as subject, please contact Dr. Sue Jacobs, Institutional Review Board Chair, at 415 – Whitehurst Hall, Stillwater OK- 74078, phone 405-744 1676. Also please feel free to contact me with any other questions.

Sincerely,

Angelo Camillo

Ph.D. Candidate

School of Hotel and Restaurant Administration
College of Human Environmental Sciences
Oklahoma State University
210 HES-West - HRAD
Stillwater, OKLAHOMA 74078 –USA
(405) 744-6713 Fax (405) 744-6299
mail: a.camillo@okstate.edu

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE

3) How many years have you worked in the industry?

- ○ <5
- ○ 5-10
- ○ 10-15
- ○ 15-20
- ○ 20-25
- ○ 25-30
- ○ >30

4)

Does your operation import, sell, use, processe, promote or have any involvement with imported Italian foods?

Please Select

5)

To the best of your knowledge, does your company:_____Italian style foods in America? Check all that apply.

- ☐ Produce
- ☐ Package
- ☐ Distribute
- ☐ Process
- ☐ Wholesale
- ☐ Sell
- ☐ Promote

Other (Please Specify):

6)

What is your age?

- < 25
- 26 - 35
- 36 - 45
- 46 - 55
- 56 - 65
- > 66
- Other (Please Specify):

7)

Please answer the following question:

Are you Italian or of Italian heritage?

Please Select

8)

Familiarity with Italian cuisine (if you rate 1: Not familiar, please skip question #10 & #11 and go to #12)

On a scale of 1 to 5, 1 being least familiar to 5 being very familiary, please rate the following:

	Not familiar at all 1	2	Somewhat familiar 3	4	Very familiar 5
How familiar are you with the Italian cuisine? (if you rate 1, please skip question #10 & 11 and go to #12)					

9) How have you been exposed to the Italian cuisine in America? Check all that apply:

- ☐ Through my family
- ☐ Through my spouses family
- ☐ Through friends
- ☐ Through travelling to Italy on business or leisure
- ☐ Through my profession
- ☐ Eating out in America
- ☐ Through the media (e.g.: television, magazines, etc...

Other (Please Specify): ☐

10) If you have been exposed to Italian cuisine, what were the factors that convinced you to appreciate it? Check all that apply:

- ☐ It is the food I grew up with
- ☐ Internationalization of the Italian cuisine
- ☐ Easy to reproduce at home
- ☐ It tastes good
- ☐ It is not expensive
- ☐ It reminds me of my visit(s)to Italy
- ☐ Ingredients are readily available
- ☐ It has become trendy
- ☐ Pressure from peers, family members or business associates

Other (Please Specify): ☐

HISTORICAL TRENDS

Literature, media reports and marketing campaigns suggest that Italian cuisine has become very popular in America. In your opinion, please rate the factors that may have contributed to this historical trend?

11) HISTORICAL TREND ANALYSIS: POPULARITY OF ITALIAN CUISINE
On a scale of 1 to 5, 1 being strongly disagree to 5 being strongly agree, please rate the following for their influence:

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neutral	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
1. Taste	○	○	○	○	○
2. Health benefits claims	○	○	○	○	○
3. Low cost of ingredients	○	○	○	○	○
4. Readily available ingredients	○	○	○	○	○
5. Italian dishes being featured in many non Italian restaurants	○	○	○	○	○
6. Media influence such as cooking shows on television	○	○	○	○	○
7. It is varied and appeals to almost anyone	○	○	○	○	○
8. People became familiar with it by traveling to Italy	○	○	○	○	○
9. It is recognized as part of the American dining culture	○	○	○	○	○
10. It is an intergral part of the curriculum in culinary schools	○	○	○	○	○
11. It is considered "comfort food"	○	○	○	○	○
12. It can be easily reproduced in every household	○	○	○	○	○

12) HISTORICAL TREND ANALYSIS: SUSTAINABILITY OF ITALIAN CUISINE

On a scale of 1 to 5, 1 being strongly disagree to 5 being strongly agree, please rate the following:

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neutral	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
1. Taste and flavor that appeal to anyone	○	○	○	○	○
2. Low cost of ingredients	○	○	○	○	○
3. Readily available ingredients	○	○	○	○	○
4. Media influence such as through cooking shows on television	○	○	○	○	○
5. Chefs' training	○	○	○	○	○
6. Consumer education	○	○	○	○	○
7. Work related factors force people to eat away from home more than ever before	○	○	○	○	○

13) HISTORICAL TREND ANALYSIS: EMERGENCE OF ITALIAN RESTAURANTS

On a scale of 1 to 5, 1 being strongly disagree to 5 being strongly agree, please rate the following:

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neutral	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
1. Italian immigrants settling in America	○	○	○	○	○
2. Military personnel returning from Italy after World War II	○	○	○	○	○
3. People traveling to Italy for business or pleasure	○	○	○	○	○
4. Integration of Italian dishes in non Italian restaurants	○	○	○	○	○
5. Increased popularity of Italian celebrity chefs	○	○	○	○	○
6. Supermakets added Italian ingredients to their inventory	○	○	○	○	○
7. Media - marketing campaign	○	○	○	○	○
8. The early creation of pizzerias	○	○	○	○	○

14) HISTORICAL TRENDS: PROFITABILITY

On a scale of 1 to 5, 1 being strongly disagree to 5 being strongly agree, please rate the following:

	Strongly disagree 1	Somewhat disagree 2	Neutral 3	Somewhat agree 4	Strongly agree 5
1. Italian menu Items have a relative low food cost	○	○	○	○	○
2. Most Italian foods can now be produced in America more economically than imports	○	○	○	○	○
3. Italian menu items have a high profit factor	○	○	○	○	○
4. Italian menu Items have a relative low labor cost	○	○	○	○	○

15)

FUTURE TRENDS:

Future Italian menu trends will be infleunced by several factors such as: A. perceived factors; B. availability, quality and choice; C. media and marketing campaigns; D. psychographic of younger generations; E. education, F. demographic changes; G. socio-economic and political factors; H. regional cuisine concept development; I. cyclical factors.

On a scale of 1 to 5, 1 being strongly disagree to 5 being strongly agree, please rate the following: on your opinion for there is influence on the future of Italian cuisine in America

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat agree	Neutral	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
1 A. Taste	○	○	○	○	○
2 A. Simplicity	○	○	○	○	○
3 A. Fusion into other cuisines	○	○	○	○	○
4 A. Italian cuisine is not viewed as "exotic," it is accessible	○	○	○	○	○
5 A. Health benefits' claims	○	○	○	○	○
6 A. Low cost factors	○	○	○	○	○
7 B. Italian style quality ingredients being produced in America are readily available	○	○	○	○	○
8 C. Cooking shows on television will generate demand	○	○	○	○	○
9 C. Travel writers will greatly influence future demand	○	○	○	○	○
10 D. Modern generation focuses more on perceived healthy ethnic choices	○	○	○	○	○
11 D. Concerns about loss of authenticity because Italian products are increasingly produced in America	○	○	○	○	○
12 D. Concerns about loss of originality because Italian restaurants may not employ Italian or Italian trained chefs	○	○	○	○	○
13 D. Concerns about loss of originality because	○	○	○	○	○

cooking recipes have changed over time					
14 E. Culinary schools offering Italian cuisine programs or students and professionals	○	○	○	○	○
15 E. Training background of chefs	○	○	○	○	○
16 E. Consumer education through culinary schools or television shows	○	○	○	○	○
17 F. More people traveling to Italy than ever before	○	○	○	○	○
18 F. Intercultural relationships with Italians and Italian Americans	○	○	○	○	○
19 G. Particular markets will demand Italian cuisine: urban-rural-shopping malls, airports	○	○	○	○	○
20 G. Specific markets will support the "New World Italian Cuisine": New York Italian, Chicago Italian, San Francisco Italian, Rhode Island Italian, and Boston Italian.	○	○	○	○	○
21 H. Training quality of staff	○	○	○	○	○
22 H. Personality of service staff	○	○	○	○	○
23 H. Popularity and reputation of chef	○	○	○	○	○

24 H. Ownership type: franchise, privately owned, management contract	○	○	○	○	○
25 I. Classic Italian cuisine	○	○	○	○	○
26 I. New Italian cuisine	○	○	○	○	○
27 J. Trends such as the Atkins diet	○	○	○	○	○
28 J. Trends such as the low carbohydrates diet	○	○	○	○	○
29 J. New scientific discoveries involving food consumption	○	○	○	○	○

16) Will you support and contribute to the sustainability of the Italian cuisine in the future in any way possible?

Please Select

17) Future popularity of Italian cuisine in America On a scale of 1 to 5, 1 being strongly disagree to 5 being strongly agree, please rate the following:

	Strongly disagree 1	Somewhat disagree 2	Neutral 3	Somewhat agree 4	Strongly agree 5
The popularity of Italian cusine in America will be sustainable in the future	○	○	○	○	○

VITA

Angelo A. Camillo

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy or Other

Thesis: AN EXPLORATORY STUDY ON HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT AND TREND ANALYSIS OF RESTAURANT CUISINE

Major Field: Human Environmental Sciences

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Santa Croce Di Magliano, Campobasso Italy, Son of Donato Camillo and Carolina Alfieri

Education: Associate Degrees from the Italian State Technical Institute, Campobasso, Italy, in Accounting in 1969; Associate Degrees from the Italian State Technical Institute, Sorreento, Italy in Hotel and Restaurant Administration in 1970. BA in Hotel Economics from the College of Applied Sciences, School of Hotel Economics Heidelberg, Germany in 1981; Executive Development Courses at Cornell University in Executive management, Financial Management, Asset Management, and Human Resources Management – 1982 – 1986; MBA from San Francisco State University in August 2003; Completed the requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy degree with the major in Human Environmental Sciences and the minor in Hotel and Restaurant Administration, in May of 2006

Experience: Since graduating from the hotel trade school in Sorrento Italy in 1971, I worked for 10 years in Italy and Germany in various positions of a hotel operation. Since graduating from Heidelberg in 1981 I have held management positions in Italy, Germany, United Arab Emirates, Sultanate of Oman, England, New Zealand, Canada, USA and South Korea.

Professional Memberships: Kappa Omicron NU, Global Hotelier Club, Academy of Management, Leader to Leader, Space Tourism Society

Name: Angelo A. Camillo Date of Degree: May 2006

Institution: Oklahoma State University Location: Stillwater, Oklahoma

Title of Study: AN EXPLORATORY STUDY OF THE HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT AND TREND ANALYSIS OF RESTAURANT CUISINE

Pages in Study: 138 Candidate for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

Major Field: Human Environmental Sciences

Scope and Method of Study: The purpose of this study was to investigate historical development and future trends of restaurant cuisine using Italian Cuisine in America as an example. The study did not intend to measure or predict statistically the effect of historical and future trend factors on future development of Italian cuisine in America. The main purpose was to identify the factors that have contributed to the historical development and popularity of Italian cuisine in America and to identify the factors that could determine what future trends may develop. The specific purpose of this study was to identify: the factors that have influenced menu trends in Italian American Cuisine, the factors that will influence menu trends in Italian American Cuisine in the future, what type of restaurants, other than ethnic Italian, feature Italian cuisine, to determine if the results can be applied to future research and development of a trend forecasting model to determine the what the future development of restaurant cuisine in America may be.

Findings and Conclusions: Forecasting future trends in restaurant cuisine is of vital importance to professionals responsible for multiple tasks such as investment, creating new markets, increasing company market shares, and bringing innovation and investing into new ventures, thus responding to consumer demands in a global environment. The results of this qualitative and exploratory study will contribute to the development of a potential forecasting model which would allow comparing forecasted trends with actual development and eventually, time series studies would support its operationalization. The data collected will help determine what cuisine consumers may appreciate in the future and what possible influence it may have on a wide range of related industries; e.g.: agricultural, manufacturing, distributing, banking – lending industries, including the educational sector. The most valuable data of all pertained to the historical trends of Italian cuisine and development of Italian restaurants. This study should be replicated researching all cuisines to determine which ethnic cuisines have similarities with Italian cuisine and then develop a model which can be operationalized and predict future developments of cuisines in America.

ADVISER'S APPROVAL: Dr. Patrick J. Moreo