# Promoting Evidence-based Leadership Development: Designing and Evaluating Tourism and Hospitality Graduate Leadership Programs

**Marcela Fang**
**William Angliss Institute**

**Paul A Whitelaw**
**Southern Cross University**

*Leadership development programs have become popular across higher education institutions globally, but research evidence about what does and does not work is yet to be sufficiently cultivated to support the effective development of leadership. Individual and collective leadership are two distinct forms of leadership that need to be integrated into the tourism and hospitality leadership program curriculum to solve current and future industry challenges. This conceptual paper presents an integrated framework that links leadership with an educational program-based model to generate evidence for continuous improvement. Assessment and evaluation strategies are proposed to guide leadership program evaluations and consequently leadership development. The paper also outlines areas for future research.*

*Keywords: leadership development framework, tourism and hospitality, graduate leadership programs, evaluation*

## INTRODUCTION

The broader tourism industry is being continually challenged by rapid change inflicted by various global and local forces, including international relations, climate change, market dynamics, advances in technology, skills shortages, politics and others (World Tourism Organisation, 2019); at the time of the final editing of this paper the global COVID-19 pandemic was decimating the hospitality, tourism and events industries. The pace of change and increasing level of uncertainty and complexity affect how leaders direct and engage others in new ways of doing things (Surty & Scheepers, 2020). Leadership skills and practices that once worked well in a more stable and predictable environment appear to be no longer sufficient. Fitzsimons, James, and Denyer (2011) assert that a collective form of leadership may present a better solution. In light of this view, if leadership is shared among individuals, more informed and aligned decisions might be made in crucial times. Underpinned by the same global and local changes, higher education institutions are also under increasing pressure to provide curricula that prepare students for their leadership roles (Waddock & Lozano, 2013). According to the World Tourism Organisation (2019), tourism industry professionals need the ability to continually develop new skills to engage in better 'problem solving, critical thinking, creativity, management and coordination of people, emotional intelligence and cognitive reflexivity' (p. 20); and objective evidence that higher education providers in the tourism and hospitality space contribute to addressing these needs is limited.

The widening gap between future-driven leadership needs and current leadership programs that predominantly target development of individual leadership qualities is concerning, particularly in the context of the network-based and interconnected tourism industry. The traditional and widely accepted leadership ontology that contains three core elements: leader(s), followers and shared goals, may no longer offer sufficient direction and focus for leaders in the diverse and interconnected industry. The World Tourism Organisation (2019) states that network structures, which now define the tourism and organisational boundaries, call for collaboration, agility, and lifelong learning. Thus, to foster leadership capacity within the broader tourism industry, leadership should be seen as a more collective process and outcome (Fang, Nguyen & Armstrong, 2020).

While most definitions and leadership theories that emerged over the past decades appear to fall within the 'leaders, followers, and shared goals' ontology, Drath, McCauley, Palus, Velson, O'Conner and McGuire (2008) propose an alternative ontology to accommodate the evolving leadership theories in the collective domain. The original ontology supports the view of 'commanding, telling, persuading, influencing and motivating', which are activities derived from leaders and followers' perceptions (Drath et al., 2008). Drath and colleagues propose to turn the original leadership elements into three leadership outcomes, including direction, alignment and commitment. In their view, leadership is the outcome of direction, which refers to 'collective agreement on overall goals' (e.g., team goals, organisational goals, community goals, tourism destination goals); alignment that refers to 'organisation and coordination of knowledge and work in a collective'; and commitment, which is 'the willingness of members of a collective to subsume their interests and benefits within the collective interest and benefit' (Drath et al., 2008, p.636).

The shift in leadership ontology suggests a different way to teach, foster and evaluate leadership development. The focus on leaders (e.g., traits, behaviours) and how they influence followers (e.g., leadership styles) should no longer dominate the content of leadership programs if students, the future tourism industry leaders, are to solve complex problems in the increasingly networked environment. If graduate students are to drive more sustainable and healthier environments, businesses and organisations, leadership development programs need to better enable the progress. There is a need to integrate content specific to leadership direction, alignment and commitment. For example, the teaching and learning methods can seek to develop knowledge and practical understanding of how direction, alignment and commitment can be achieved when individuals share their work in collective (e.g., team, network, tourism destination). Overall, Boyatzis (2008) and Scott (2016, 2019) suggest that leadership development needs to grow personal, interpersonal and cognitive capabilities, so individuals are better able to work in different work contexts and changing conditions throughout their careers.

Research evidence is thus needed to understand whether and how leadership development programs in graduate tourism and hospitality education are supporting current and future leaders and the steps they must take as future leaders toward healthier and progressive businesses, industry and society. According to Fang (2018) and Guthrie, Teig and Hu (2018), evidence about the effectiveness of current leadership development initiatives is mostly unreported. The literature in the program evaluation field highlights that many organisations struggle in conducting effective evaluations (Kirkpatrick & Kirkpatrick, 2014), so this paper intends to propose how leadership development and graduate leadership programs in tourism and hospitality can build on the graduate leadership program framework for tourism and hospitality first conceptualised by Fang and Whitelaw (2020), to conduct effective evaluations, to guide future research and practice. The key question that guided this inquiry asked: why is there a need for an integrated leadership-education program framework to guide program design and evaluation in tourism and hospitality education?

This paper first reviews the existing literature in the program evaluation field to address the research question and the aim. It then provides an overview of the leadership program framework for graduate tourism and hospitality education to explain how a program can be designed to respond to the changing environment. The paper then proposes evaluation strategies and assessment methods to generate ongoing leadership development and program evidence, which can guide leadership program designers and evaluators on the path of making right choices when designing and improving leadership programs. It is

through these recommendations that this paper provides practical implications. Evaluation researchers can further explore the proposed leadership program framework elements and the various relationships to help progress the evaluation field in tourism and hospitality higher education.

## PROGRAM EVALUATION THEORY AND MODELS

Theories upon which many evaluation program models have been built include reductionist theory, system theory, and complexity theory (Frye & Hemmer, 2012). The reductionist theory suggests that programs could be studied by separating their various parts into standalone parts (Stufflebeam & Coryn, 2014). Cause and effect relationships could be therefore tested to predict outcomes. Frye & Hemmer (2012) argue that models underpinned by the reductionist theory are however too simplistic as they disregard any external variables. The system theory thus emerged out of the limitations in the reductionist-based models. Frye & Hemmer (2012) point out that the relationships between the various program parts and the program's environment are indeed important elements to study. Despite these advancements, complexity theory emerged based on the view that contexts lead to new behaviours and outcomes, which means that programs cannot be seen as static tools for intervention. Cooper and Geyer (2008) also point that individual students' and other key program stakeholders' needs and changing contexts should play a role in determining suitable program designs. This suggests that program designs should consider the continually evolving external as well as internal factors to provide relevant developmental opportunities (Frye & Hemmer, 2012). From the evaluation perspective, Coldwell and Simkins (2011) stress that current programs should fully explore the 'what' of the program, the 'how', and also the 'why' of the program. It is insufficient to only consider the program outcomes; whether these have been achieved. The context along with the underpinning program functioning mechanism is important to advance future teaching and learning practices. Overall, Coldwell & Simkins (2011) stress that programs that are influenced by external forces and rely on the needs of various stakeholders should build on the complexity theory.

The most applied evaluation models include; Kirkpatrick's Four-Level Model, the Logic Model, and the Context, Input, Process and Product (CIPP) Model. Kirkpatrick's Four-Level Model is underpinned by the reductionist theory and is widely used among industry practitioners. The model's core is associated to four outcome levels: level one is labelled 'reaction', which refers to data linked to learner's satisfaction with the program; the second level is called 'learning', which refers to data collected about knowledge gained and skills developed; the third level is labelled as 'change' and refers to a collection of data specific to changed behaviour; the last level calls for a collection of evidence specific to changed behaviour (Kirkpatrick, 1994; Kirkpatrick & Kirkpatrick, 2014). Collins and Holton (2004) argue that the key limitation of this model is linked to the exclusion of important learning variables, such as individual motivation, characteristics, existing knowledge, life/ work context, and also the ties between the program parts. Thus, the use of this model could not help explain how and why the achieved outcomes emerged out of the program intervention.

The Logic Model is underpinned by the system theory (Frechtling, 2007). The program parts include inputs, program activities, outputs, and program outcomes. While the program parts are connected at a very basic level, a one-directional way, it excludes any feedback loops. Thus, the program lacks evaluation capacity and is mostly used to design programs rather than evaluate them.

The Context, Input, Process and Product (CIPP) Model, developed by David Stufflebeam in 1971, is underpinned by complexity theory. While the model's core parts (context, input, process and product evaluation) have not changed since the model was first coined, the checklist that was designed to guide evaluators in the assessment of programs has been refined over the years to offer better guidance (Stufflebeam & Coryn, 2014). Stufflebeam and Coryn (2014) highlight that the model is broad enough to fit in various contexts. And, according to Zhang, Zeller, Griffith, Metcalf, Williams, Shea and Misulis (2011), this model can drive both program design and evaluation. They further argue that, as such, the CIPP model is particularly adept for the evaluation of programs in education.

Each of the four parts of the CIPP model is underpinned by a question to drive the program evaluation inquiry, which is then combined and used to judge the overall program effectiveness. The question corresponding to the 'C' in the context asks: what needs to be done? The 'I' in the input asks: how should it be done? 'P' in the process asks: is it being done? The final 'P' that stands for product asks: did it succeed? The CIPP framework comes with a detailed checklist designed to enable evaluators to produce timely evaluation findings that could contribute to better program planning, implementation, enforcement and the ability of a program to deliver on the core developmental aims and objectives (Stufflebeam & Coryn, 2014).

However, when used in the field of leadership development, Fang (2018) found that the model's checklist is limiting and requires questions specific to leadership and leadership development. Fang (2018) expanded the CIPP model of Stufflebeam and Coryn (2014) with leadership elements and scales relevant to the tourism context. The framework was tested on an industry-based leadership development program in Australia and it was found that the framework can guide effective evaluations in this area (Fang, Armstrong & Nguyen, 2019). Thus, this study continues to build on the tourism-based leadership development findings of Fang, Armstrong and Nguyen (2019), in the context of tourism and hospitality education, and specifically the development of leadership through tourism and hospitality graduate programs.

As Fang's (2018) CIPP -based, tourism oriented leadership development program framework has been designed for the professional tourism industry context, this study's version reflects its location within a formal academic award, namely a master's degree. The framework continues to include the four program evaluation parts, however, to offer better guidance to those who are involved more in the leadership development program design and development, the following order is suggested: context, outcomes, input, process. When conducting program and leadership development evaluations, no specific order needs to be followed, however, as recommended by Stufflebeam and Coryn (2014), all evaluations should be made to comprehensively assess the overall program effectiveness.

To contextualise the design and development of a graduate leadership development program, the researchers propose the following four questions for each program part: Context: what is it about the current and future environment that will shape the type of skills demanded? Outcomes: given what is going to happen in the tourism and hospitality industry, what skills need to be developed? Program and units of study plans: what is the best way to teach this? Action/ teaching and learning assurance: what is the best way to assure learning? See Figure 1 for details.

**FIGURE 1**
**CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK TO GUIDE THE DESIGN, DEVELOPMENT & EVALUATION OF TOURISM/ HOSPITALITY GRADUATE LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS**
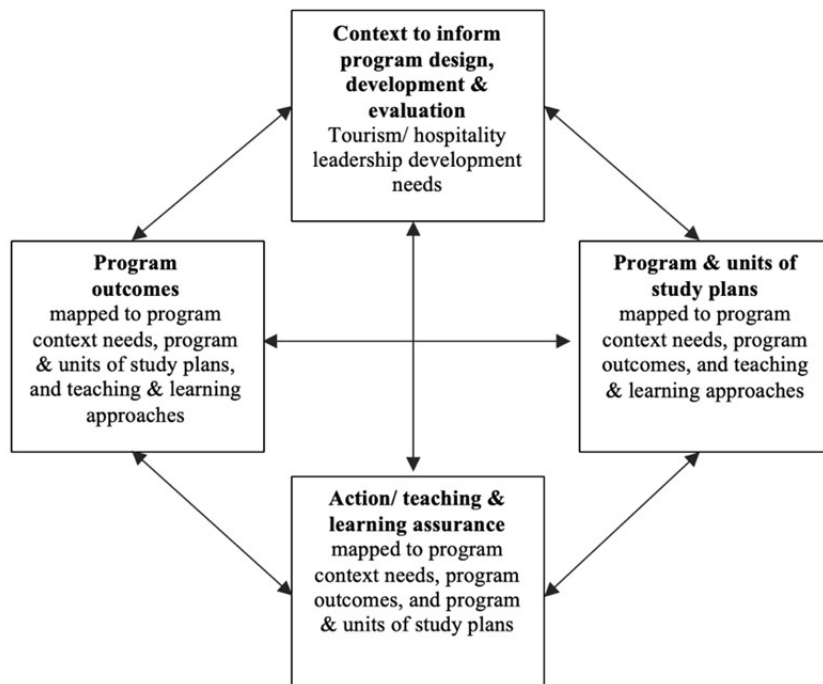


Source: Fang, M., & Whitelaw, P. A. (2020). Towards a framework to guide evidence-based leadership development and evaluation in tourism and hospitality graduate programs. In CAUTHE 2020: 20: 20 Vision: New Perspectives on the Diversity of Hospitality, Tourism and Events. Auckland, New Zealand: Auckland University of Technology, 2020: 232-240.

## Context

In this study, context refers to the tourism and hospitality industry and organisational environments, and the type of leadership needed in these environments to drive sustainable performance. Thus, an assessment of ideal leadership skills and capabilities needed in the tourism and hospitality industries and the firms now and the future should be made to put forward a suitable plan for targeted leadership development at a graduate level. According to Boyatzis (2008), there are three skill competencies that should underpin leadership development initiatives in order to foster effective leadership development: intrapersonal, interpersonal and cognitive. For example, at the intrapersonal level, Sousa, Santos, Sacavém, dos Reis and Sampaio (2019) state that due to the increased global competition and digital disruption within the industry, leaders are required to have well-developed emotional intelligence and have the ability to effectively adapt to the rapidly changing environment. Goleman, Boyatzis and McKee (2001), confirm that higher emotional intelligence that is represented by self-awareness and empathy, is linked with performance and development of effective leadership. The researchers state that a leader's mood and its associated behaviours drive the moods and behaviours of others, which result in better performance when such moods are positive and encouraging.

At the interpersonal level, Kouzes and Posner (2019) research studies show that certain leadership behaviours, all of which require the ability to work with and through others, need to be demonstrated by leaders on a day to day basis to positively influence and motivate employees to do their best work. Effective leaders are seen to be able to grow individuals and teams, support and enable collaboration, coach, provide frequent feedback, take risk, foster creativity, align others to common purpose or cause, communicate effectively, and engage in other actions. Cheung, Law and He (2010) found that industry-

specific knowledge and customer-centric attitude, with well-developed written and oral communication skills, are also required. Other researchers asserted that students need to engage in activities that promote life-long-learning to continue growing their leadership competence (Gray, Ottesen, Bell, Chapman & Whiten, 2007; Lolli, 2013; Tesone & Ricci, 2006). Numerous researchers highlighted that interpersonal skills are widely accepted as the key abilities for those in the tourism and hospitality industry to drive effective outcomes (Breiter & Clements, 1996; Christou, 2002; Gray, Ottesen, Bell, Chapman & Whiten, 2007; Huang, Lalopa, & Adler, 2016; Sigala & Christou, 2003; Sisson & Adams, 2014; Weber, Crawford, Lee & Dennison, 2013; Wolfe, Phillips, & Asperin, 2014).

While the intrapersonal, interpersonal, and cognitive skills could offer a good base and guidance on what to emphasise in a given leadership development program, adding other elements such as; leadership styles, approaches, and competency models could further enhance the program. Leadership styles, such as the transformational leadership style or servant leadership come with tested and validated models and scales that may enable more targeted leadership development and the consequent leadership development evaluation. Fang (2018) found that the overall tourism context requires the development of transformational leadership style, and collective leadership, to enable outcomes at not only organisational level but also community and tourism destination levels. However, considering the wicked problems associated with sustainability and other systemic challenges, other leadership styles, such as ethical leadership, may offer suitable developmental focus by fostering critical thinking and the development of ethical behaviours and actions (Higgins-Desbiolles, 2020; Zhu, Sun & Leung, 2014). Furthermore, as student cohorts are becoming increasingly multicultural, development of culturally sensitive leadership should also be encouraged and embedded in the curriculum. For example, Lyubovnikova, Napiersky and Vlachopoulos (2015) highlight that today's students look more for global and cultural leadership perspectives than those cohorts of the past, in hope to be able to perform effectively in the new age international organisations and environments. Bradley (2020) also stress that inclusive leadership rather than divisive leadership (e.g., leadership derived from transactional, egotistical leaders) is required to improve the health of individuals and communities.

From an evaluation perspective, program designers should consider leadership models which come with tested and validated scales. These can inform not only the development of the program content or specific program units, but also guide the collection of evidence needed to conduct effective evaluations at later stages.

**Outcomes**

Building on the program context leadership needs and country-specific legislative educational requirements, program designers are required to identify suitable program learning outcomes to guide the design and development of the graduate leadership development programs. It is important that the program design is underpinned by the desired outcomes, so the evaluation team knows how to assess the program effectiveness. The literature review uncovered two key areas for program outcomes in tourism and hospitality education: industry-specific business/ organisational performance outcomes, and leadership development outcomes. Looking at the industry and organisational context Whitelaw, Benckendorff, Gross, Mair & Jose (2015) proposed a set of nationally agreed-upon threshold learning outcomes (TLOs) contextualised for tourism, hospitality and events and the higher education, in Australia. The TLOs include Service and Experience Design, Interdisciplinary Inquiry, Collaboration, Problem Solving, and Professional Responsibility. These TLOs also signify the type of performance graduate students should be able to demonstrate in their workplace. Overall, the standards were mapped to the Australian Qualifications Framework level 7 (bachelor) and level 9 (masters by coursework) and form a solid foundation for the education community, upon which a choice of pedagogy and assessment activities should be based.

In the leadership development field, empirical research lead by Richard Boyatzis and colleagues over the past thirty years found that Emotional Intelligence, Social Intelligence, and Cognitive Intelligence contribute to effectiveness in management and leadership roles across many industries throughout the world, and thus, can form suitable outcomes for leadership development at the graduate education level.

Howard, Healy and Boyatzis (2017) confirmed that leadership competencies linked to emotional and social intelligence contribute to enhanced career readiness and success. Shuck and Herd (2012) found that emotional and social intelligence competencies contribute to better workplace engagement and consequently better productivity. Cognitive intelligence, such as memory and deductive reasoning, including systems thinking and pattern recognition, has been also found to add to an above the average performance in many different organisations (Boyatzis, 2008).

Building on the current conceptualisation of leadership ontology, graduate leadership programs should integrate individual leadership theories and collective leadership theories with the tourism and hospitality field of study. The risk of building only on the traditional leadership ontology (the tripod of leader(s), followers, and shared goals), may result in leadership outcomes that do not fully address industry needs. For example, if an individual leadership focus (e.g., development of one specific leadership style or practices) is chosen over the more encapsulating collective leadership in course design, the developed skills and practices may not fit the various contexts within which the current and future graduates would work. If on the other hand a leadership program only fosters the development of collective leadership, graduates who enter a competitive rather than collaborative workforce may not find the educational program outcomes appropriate. As such, building on the context of the broader tourism industry and the change needed to drive sustainable and healthier progress, tourism and hospitality graduates need to develop leadership capacity that is underpinned by both, the individual and collective leadership development initiatives.

Thus, leadership development programs that link leadership development outcomes to the industry and business/ organisational outcomes may contribute to better learning outcomes overall and benefit the tourism and hospitality sectors in the long term. From the evaluation perspective, existing models and scales can be used to assess the level of emotional and social intelligence (before and after the program), and the various program assessments can be designed to assess the development of cognitive intelligence.

**Program and Units of Study Plans**

This program is linked to the design and development of the course's academic content and specifically to the teaching and learning strategies. A program plan should detail how the identified leadership knowledge, skills and capabilities will be taught and developed, and how the leadership development will result in the achievement of the identified program outcomes, that is, how will the student's mastery (or not) be assessed. It is recommended that the broader program plan is further mapped to the more detailed units of study plans in order to collect evidence of the 'what and how' results in the identified program outcomes during the program evaluation. This is in line with the recent call of Moldoveanu and Narayandas (2019) who urge those who create leadership development programs to re-think the design of their current leadership development programs in order to reduce the skills transfer gap so that what is learned in a program is readily applied in the real world context of the workplace and community.

In the area of learning transfer, Haber-Curran and Tillapaugh (2013) urge leadership program designers and educators to use more contemporary and innovative pedagogies. These researchers state that the traditional pedagogy that focuses on knowledge and memorisation is ineffective in the area of holistic adult development and leadership development specifically. Thus, future-oriented leadership development programs should emphasise pedagogies that engage students in experiential learning (Kayes, 2007; Vince, & Reynolds, 2007) and reflective practise (Gray, 2007; Hedberg, 2009). According to the key leadership development researchers, experiential learning can engage students in their learning and support the students in the development of the many leadership skills and competencies (Boyatzis, 2008; Kayes, 2007; Moldoveanu & Narayandas, 2019). Vince and Reynolds (2007) stress that experiential learning can also help management students to understand and work through the complexity of emotional, unconscious, social, and political forces, which influence social interactions and consequently affect organisational practices. Whetten and Cameron (2011) stress that an ability to reflect on one's attitudes and actions plays an important role in shaping one's leadership practice, as self-aware individuals are better able to adapt to and lead change by reflecting on their actions and experiences from a variety of

perspectives. Haber-Curran and Tillapaugh (2013) stress that pedagogies, which place management students in the centre of the learning experience, where students unpack their own life and professional experiences with the support from the classroom system interactions, are generally more effective.

Examples of pedagogies, which enlist experiential learning and reflective practice, and were reported to support effective leadership development, include; 'case-in-point method' (Daloz Parks, 2005), 'action inquiry' (Torbert, 2004), and 'problem-based learning' (Barbour, 2006). Reported to be one of the most effective leadership development methods, 'case-in-point' method draws on John Dewey's educational philosophy that argues that students learn the most from their own experiences where the classroom environment, such as the social system and the instructor interactions, facilitate deeper learning and understanding of one's leadership practice (Jolley, 2007). Case-in-point pedagogy focuses both on action and reflection, but, also the group dynamics in light of the leadership practice. With the facilitator's and others' support, students learn to engage in deeper level learning as they study their perceptions, values and behaviours and how these enable change at the individual, team, and other levels. Overall, students become self-directed learners whilst developing discipline knowledge and skills in the overall learning process (Daloz Parks, 2005). Jolley (2007) highlight that the 'case-in-point' method places a strong emphasis on authority versus leadership, technical problems versus adaptive challenges, power versus progress, and personality versus presence (for details see Daloz Parks, 2005).

Another experiential and reflective method for leadership development is 'action learning'. This method requires students to study a context of their chosen inquiry (e.g., organisational leadership, tourism destination leadership), work on a real world problem that has no clear solution and engages in self- and co-reflective practice (Marsick & O'Neil, 1999). While 'action learning' can be either an individual or team challenge, the method requires students to come together on several occasions to discuss their discoveries and points of view and to then consider others' views on the problem they study. Through this approach, students learn to construct meaning, which informs their action and own leadership practice (Torbert, 2004).

Another pedagogical method that the literature in management education highlights as effective in leadership development is 'problem based learning' (PBL). According to Barbour (2006), PBL is a student-focused method that begins with a problem that guides the whole learning process. Students are required to solve a real-world problem and work collectively (e.g., within a student team, or via stakeholder engagement). The learning is self-directed, which means that the facilitator supports student learning rather drives it. Thus, it is the student team that selects the relevant theory or theories for the leadership dilemma they face. According to Ungaretti, Thompson, Miller and Peterson (2015), PBL can facilitate the development of many key leadership skills needed in today's workplaces, including 'critical thinking, problem-solving, problem synthesis, imagination, creativity, research skills, ability to work with ambiguity and uncertainty, oral and written communication skills, and collaboration skills' (p. 174).

To facilitate leadership development, any of the above pedagogical methods can be incorporated into currently established techniques, such as seminars, tutorials, simulations, and also e-learning environments. However, to foster effective leadership development in students at the graduate level, both the students and the program facilitators/ educators have key roles to play. According to Dweck (2009), one's mindset can influence the extent of human development. For example, students with fixed mindsets who believe that their intelligence, traits, talent and abilities cannot be changed with effort and time, will not benefit from a leadership development intervention. Kouzes and Posner's (2019) empirical findings confirmed that individuals with a growth mindset can significantly grow their leadership capacity. Kouzes and Posner's study also confirmed that demographic variables (e.g., education, gender) have limited influence on mindset and leadership capacity. Chase (2010) confirmed that teachers and coaches with a fixed mindset limit individual learning, growth and overall performance of the program.

Thus, as faculty members grapple with challenges associated with student engagement and satisfaction, it might be worthwhile to explore the mindset of the students enrolling in tourism and hospitality leadership development programs to put forward strategies that will prepare them for their learning. This is to ensure that educational programs enable students to develop a growth and learning mindset that will enable them, the industry's future leaders, to solve business, organisational, industry and

societal problems in a more creative way (Gosling & Mintzberg, 2003; O'Shannassy, Kemp & Booth, 2010). Suitably qualified educators or facilitators who, through research and practice appreciate an expansive and developmental notion of leadership development, should also be enlisted to identify and document the desired outcomes in graduate leadership development programs in the tourism and hospitality field.

**Action/ Teaching and Learning Assurance**
This fourth and last component of the program refers to the evaluation of delivery and the teaching and learning experience. In line with what was planned in the program, there is a need for a systemic collection of evidence to know what is working and not working. All changes made during the program delivery should be noted down and adjusted in program plans and units of study plans to inform the next round of leadership program delivery. This evidence can inform the teaching team about the best practices relevant to leadership development. At the same time, this same evidence can inform the end-of-program and other later program evaluations (Fang, 2018; Stufflebeam & Coryn, 2014). With this evidence, it will be possible to more closely associate the teaching and learning approaches with the developmental outcomes at individual, team, workplace and other higher levels, such as in the wider community.

**Assessing and Evaluating Leadership Development and Graduate Leadership Programs**
The evidence model needed to demonstrate whether graduate leadership development programs in tourism and hospitality work or not, how they work, and what program elements contribute to learning and achievement of program goals is yet to be developed.

The key program elements to consider during evaluation are summarised in Table 1, and the suggested data collection points and paths are outlined in Figure 2. The table suggests that leadership development outcomes should be included in the overall Program Level outcomes. Leadership outcomes specific to the tourism and hospitality field should drive the design of the overall curriculum, including; the subject sequence, subject summaries, topics, assessments, and, a suitable pedagogy for graduate level students.
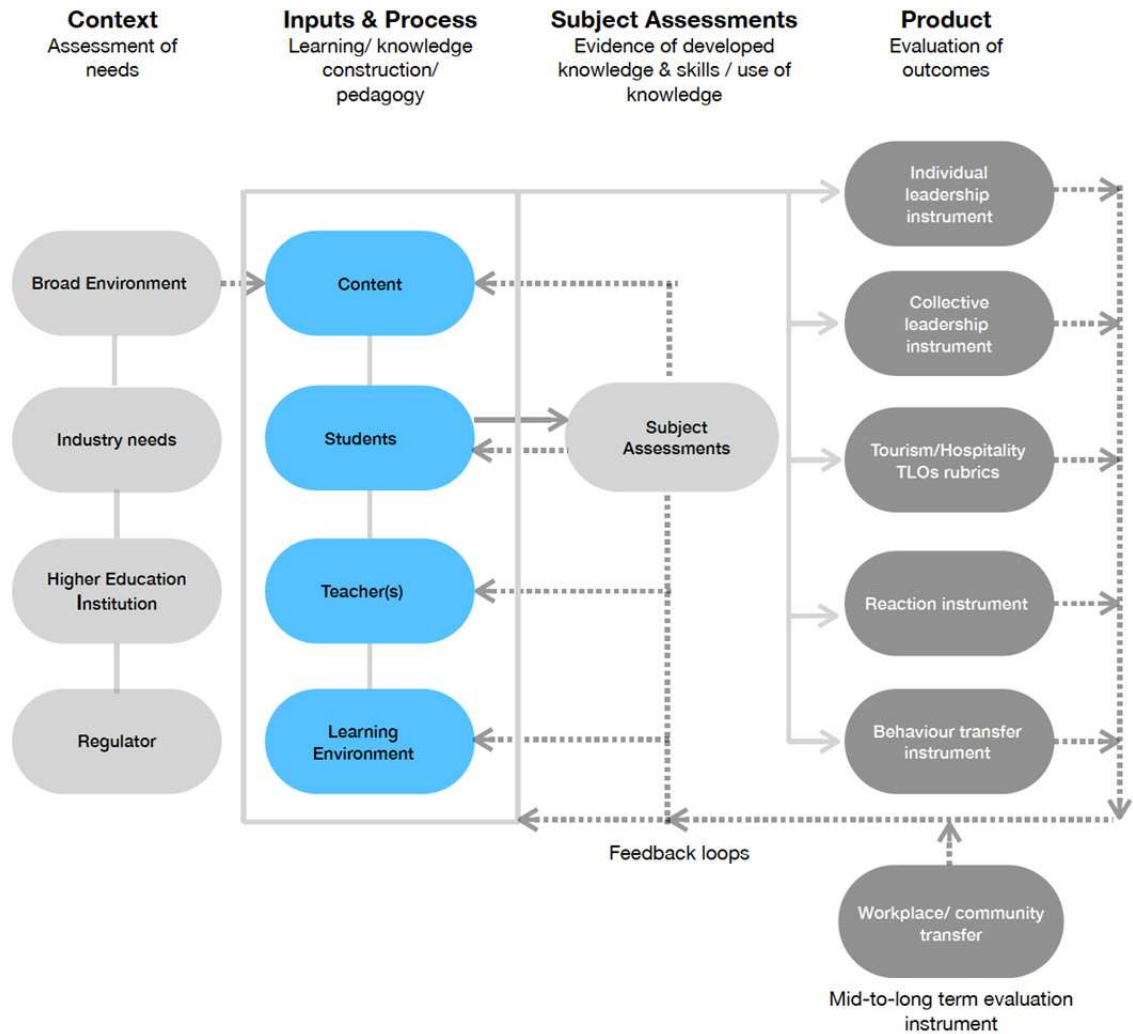
The table suggests that each element can provide guidance for activities within each program part, but can also inform the selection of activities across all parts. Overall, the effectiveness of a leadership development program is assumed to be the extent to which all parts of the framework connect in synthesis and, in turn, contribute to the program's specified outcomes, which is in line with Stufflebeam and Coryn's (2014) view of effective program evaluation.

Theory-based evaluation approaches assert that the processes which are meant to contribute to documented program outcomes, along with their specific measures, need to be identified before program implementation. This means that evaluation should be built into the program design and development at the initial program design stage. Data collection should be related to the framework variables (see Figure 2), which include the current and future context needs; the inputs of content, student cohort characteristics and needs, teacher support, facilitation and the teaching environment – contributing to the teaching and learning process and experience; subject assessments; and the specific program outcomes.

TABLE 1
**KEY PROGRAM EVALUATION ELEMENTS AND EXAMPLE OF ASSESSMENTS**

| Evaluation Area | Program level | Subject level | Example of Assessments |
|---|---|---|---|
| Outcomes | Program-specific knowledge, skills and application | Leadership and subject-specific knowledge, skills and application | Assessments (e.g., reflections, essays, projects, presentations, reports, demonstrations etc.) |
| | | | Pre/ post-test leadership studies (e.g., transformational leadership, servant leadership, ethical leadership, leadership agility instruments etc.) |
| Pedagogy & Methods | Andragogy | Combination of program level elements and assessments (subject-specific) | Subject surveys (e.g., satisfaction, the extent of learning) |
| | Collaborative problem solving | | Collaborative leadership projects |
| | Individual | | Reflections<br>Tests<br>Essays |
| | Student-to-student Instructor-to-student (e.g., curated content, case study method facilitation) Student-to-instructor (e.g., support) | | Case studies<br>Reports<br>Presentations<br>Discussions<br>Engagement (e.g., discussions) |
| Context Needs | Individual and collective leadership needs | | Research evidence (e.g., leadership studies, industry research), institutional strategic direction, educational criteria, upcoming changes, current and future trends, threats and opportunities |
| | Key tourism and hospitality skills and capabilities (e.g., finance, data analytics, revenue management, strategy, human resources etc.) | | |
| | Institutional/ University needs (e.g., purpose/ mission) | | |
| | Policy/ regulators' needs | | |
| | External forces | | |

**FIGURE 2**
**PROGRAM EVALUATION AND DATA COLLECTION PATHS**



*Outcomes: Program Level and Subject Level*

Baldwin and Ford (1988) stated that program effectiveness is established when the program learning is applied and maintained in the workplace over an extended period. In the case of leadership development, evidence to assess overall program effectiveness needs to be gathered in the long term. The above evaluation matrix assumes that individual leadership development effectiveness is actually assessed in the short-term by reference to the degree of the specific individual and collective leadership outcomes (e.g., self-leadership in the early stage of the program, team leadership in next state, organisational leadership etc.). The leadership development program outcomes should be assessed progressively to measure the attainment of the program specific outcomes which can then be contrasted to the individual student's aspirational course outcomes as set by them at the start of their studies. While assessing leadership outcomes, other evaluations can explore how the outcomes were achieved in light of the other elements outlined in the table (e.g., pedagogy, teaching and learning methods etc.). In the end, post evaluation studies can explore whether and how the program learning was transferred by the graduates to their own and industry contexts.

*Assessments*

How can leadership development (e.g., skills, knowledge, behaviour) be evaluated? How and when can the attribution of leadership development be made to the program experience (e.g., overall, throughout the program)? These and other questions may assist in the development of an assessment plan that generates evidence to demonstrate that outcomes are achieved and to what extent.

Once the subject specific outcomes have been identified, suitable assessment questions might be developed. Thus, it is these questions that should drive the development of assessment activities. Such assessments may include a combination of surveys, essays, projects, reports, tests, interviews, and portfolios.

*Pedagogy and Methods*

Identification and selection of a suitable pedagogy inform specific teaching and learning strategies such as social constructivism and collaborative problem solving, and reflective practice. Thus, to drive leadership development, which is individual (intrapersonal) and collective (relational and interpersonal: individual-individual; individual-teacher; teacher-individual; team), a variety of techniques and developmental approaches, can be employed, including; individual projects, collaborative projects, peer mentoring, coaching, and reflecting.

Using these approaches across the leadership program stages should yield specific subject leadership outcomes as well as an overall deepening appreciation of how to develop leadership identity and capacity.

By mapping out the curriculum structure of a leadership program with a preferred pedagogy contextualised to the chosen field, such as tourism and hospitality education, leadership educators can better understand the approaches most likely to achieve specified results, such as intended subject learning outcomes, and program learning outcomes.

Aspects of teaching methods (e.g., teaching and learning environment (face-to-face; on-line) teaching and learning resources (text, video, audio, industry guest speakers and experts), facilitators, historical events) also influence program outcomes. Program pedagogy (face-to-face; online) could strengthen the overall leadership development outcomes; strategies applied with suitable teaching and learning resources should be used to achieve the designated program outcomes (e.g., leadership levels, such as individual, collective – various types of co-leadership).

*Context Needs*

It is the tourism and hospitality context (current and future) together with the leadership ontology that contribute to the choices of what the program rationale should entail and what the program structure should include (e.g., the sequence of subjects, the type of subjects). In other words, it is not just about leadership development per se, but rather a type of leadership needed in the tourism and hospitality industries.

Continually building on the changing tourism industry needs, various questions can be asked to ascertain the current and future design and content of leadership development programs. Based on the current leadership ontology, a program design should include content specific to self-leadership, team leadership, organisational leadership, network/ community leadership, leadership across cultures, crisis leadership, ethical leadership and others. Leadership researchers and practitioners such as Goleman and Boyatzis (2017) and Kets De Vries and Korotov (2010) state that leadership development needs to begin with self-discovery as 'know thy selves'. Scaffolded through the program, leadership development should progress through the self-leadership stage to team, organisation, network (e.g., community, tourism destination) and onto other levels or contexts, specifically in the tourism and hospitality field. Thus, throughout each stage, the student is exposed to an increasingly complex and deeper understanding of leadership, which is individual and collective.

## CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Building on the literature findings specific to leadership development and leadership programs that do and do not work, the study aimed to identify those leadership development program elements important for effective design, development, delivery and evaluation of leadership development programs and initiatives in graduate tourism and hospitality education. This was underscored by a problem identified in the literature that at best presents scattered evidence of important leadership development elements. The researchers believe that the conceptual framework proposed in this study can offer initial guidance on which leadership development approach educators, researchers, and evaluators can build to continue advancing the leadership development field with real evidence.

### Practical Implications

The framework suggests that graduate leadership development programs in tourism and hospitality should be underpinned by the key leadership development needs to be informed by the current and future industry context, and the intended business and organisational performance outcomes to generate meaningful impacts. Also, the framework suggests that leadership development should be fostered through suitable pedagogical approaches and learning activities to enable life-long learning and behavioural change. It is suggested that program designers and developers begin with evaluation and program outcomes in mind to produce the needed evidence upon which program effectiveness is established during and after the program delivery, thus, enabling the continuous program improvement. Overall, continuous evaluation of leadership development programs in tourism and hospitality education can contribute towards the development of credibility in the sector, and enabling differentiation from other leadership development providers who are not able to justify their initiatives through evaluations and impact studies.

### Research Implications

Continued research in design, development and evaluation of leadership development and leadership development programs in tourism and hospitality will help drive better program quality and development of leadership for the 21$^{st}$ century. This study identified key context, outcome, program and unit of studies plans and teaching and learning assurance elements for tourism and hospitality graduate leadership development programs. Other researchers can use, reflect on and add to the current framework to continue advancing the teaching and learning practice and research in the tourism and hospitality leadership development field. Studies reporting on student learning experiences and how these contribute to individual, team, workplace and community impacts can provide useful insights into future leadership development education.

## REFERENCES

Baldwin, T. T., & Ford, J. K. (1988). Transfer of training: A review and directions for future research. *Personnel Psychology*, 41(1), 63–105. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.1988.tb00632.x

Barbour, J. (2006). Team building and problem-based learning in the leadership classroom: Findings from a two-year study. *Journal of Leadership Education*, 5(2), 28–40.

Bradley, E. H. (2020). Diversity, inclusive leadership, and health outcomes. *International Journal of Health Policy Management*, 9(7), 266–267. https://doi.org/10.15171/ijhpm.2020.12

Boyatzis, R. (2008). Competencies in the 21st century. *Journal of Management Development*, 27(1), 5–12. https://doi.org/10.1108/02621710810840730

Breiter, D., & Clements, C. J. (1996). Hospitality management curricula for the 21st century. *Hospitality and Tourism Educator*, 8(1), 57–60. https://doi.org/10.1080/23298758.1996.10685715

Chase, M. A. (2010). Should coaches believe in innate ability? The importance of leadership mindset. *Quest*, 62(3), 296–307. https://doi.org/10.1080/00336297.2010.10483650

Cheung, C., Law, R., & He, K. (2010). Essential hotel managerial competencies for graduate students. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Education*, 22(4), 25–32. https://doi.org/10.1080/10963758.2010.10696989

Christou, E. (2002). Revisiting competencies for hospitality management: Contemporary views of the stakeholders, *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Education*, 14(1), 25–32. https://doi.org/10.1080/10963758.2002.10696721

Coldwell, M., & Simkins, T. (2011). Level models of continuing professional development evaluation: A grounded review and critique. *Professional Development in Education*, 37(1), 143–157. https://doi.org/10.1080/19415257.2010.495497

Collins, D. B., & Holton, E. F. (2004). The effectiveness of managerial leadership development programs: A meta-analysis of studies from 1982 to 2001. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 15(2), 217–248. https://doi.org/10.1002/hrdq.1099

Cooper, H., & Geyer, R. (2008). Using "complexity" for improving educational research in health care. *Social Science and Medicine*, 67(1), 177–182. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.socscimed.2008.03.041

Cunha, M. P., Pacheco, M., Castanheira, F., & Rego, A. (2015). Reflexive work and the duality of self-leadership. *Leadership*, 13(4), 472–495. https://doi.org/10.1177/1742715015606511

Daloz Parks, S. (2005). *Leadership Can be Taught: A Bold Approach for a Complex World*. Harvard Business School Press.

Drath, W. H., McCauley, C. D., Palus, C. J., van Velsor, E., O'Connor, P. M. G., & McGuire, J. B. (2008). Direction, alignment, commitment: Toward a more integrative ontology of leadership. *Leadership Quarterly*, 19(6), 635–653. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2008.09.003

Dweck, C. S. (2006). *Mindset: The New Psychology of Success*. Random House Publishing.

Fang, M. (2018). Destination leadership: Evaluating effectiveness of leadership development program. In *Doctoral Thesis*. Victoria University, Australia.

Fang, M., Armstrong, A., & Nguyen, T. H. (2019). Evaluation framework for tourism leadership development programs. *Proceedings of the ANZAM 2019 Conference, Wicked Solutions to Wicked Problems: The Challenges Facing Management Research and Practice Paper*. Cairns, Australia.

Fang, M., Nguyen, T. H., & Armstrong, A. (2020). Developing collective leadership capacity to drive sustainable practices: Destination case of leadership development in Australia. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*. https://doi.org/10.1177/1096348020932990

Fang, M., & Whitelaw, P. (2020). Towards a framework to guide evidence based leadership development and evaluation in tourism and hospitality graduate programs. *Proceedings of the CAUTHE 2020: 20: 20 Vision: New Perspectives on the Diversity of Hospitality, Tourism and Events* (pp. 232–240). Auckland, New Zealand: Auckland University of Technology.

Fitzsimons, D., James, K. T., & Denyer, D. (2011). Alternative approaches for studying shared and distributed leadership. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 13(3), 313–328. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-2370.2011.00312.x

Frechtling, L. (2007). *Logic Modeling Methods in Program Evaluation*. John Wiley & Sons.

Frye, A. W., & Hemmer, P. A. (2012). Program evaluation models and related theories: AMEE Guide No. 67. *Medical Teacher*, 34(5), 288–299. https://doi.org/10.3109/0142159X.2012.668637

Goleman, D., & Boyatzis, R. E. (2017). Emotional intelligence has 12 elements. Which do you need to work on? *Harvard Business Review*, 2, 1-5.

Goleman, D., Boyatzis, R., & McKee, A. (2001). Primal leadership: The hidden driver of great performance. *Harvard Business Review*, 79(11), 42–51. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-137-24203-7_6

Gosling, J., & Mintzberg, H. (2003). The five mindsets of manager. *Harvard Business Review*, 81(11), 54–63.

Gray, B. J., Ottesen, G. G., Bell, J., Chapman, C., & Whiten, J. (2007). What are the essential capabilities of marketers? A comparative study of managers', academics' and students' perceptions.

*Marketing Intelligence and Planning*, 25(3), 271–295.
https://doi.org/10.1108/02634500710747789

Gray, D. E. (2007). Facilitating management learning. *Management Learning*, 38(5), 495–517.
https://doi.org/10.1177/1350507607083204

Guthrie, K. L., Teig, T. S., & Hu, P. (2018). *Academic leadership programs in the United States.*
Tallahassee, FL: Leadership Learning Research Center, Florida State University.

Haber-Curran, P., & Tillapaugh, D. W. (2015). Student-centered transformative learning in leadership
education. *Journal of Transformative Education*, 13(1), 65–84.
https://doi.org/10.1177/1541344614559947

Hedberg, R. P. (2009). Learning through reflective classroom practice. *Journal of Management
Education*, 33(1), 10–36. https://doi.org/10.1177/1052562908316714

Higgins-Desbiolles, F. (2020). Socialising tourism for social and ecological justice after COVID-19.
*Tourism Geographies*, pp. 1–14. https://doi.org/10.1080/14616688.2020.1757748

Howard, A. R., Healy, S. L., & Boyatzis, R. E. (2017). Using leadership competencies as a framework for
career readiness. *New Directions for Student Leadership*, (156), 59–71.
https://doi.org/10.1002/yd.20271

Huang, Y., Lalopa, J. (Mick), & Adler, H. (2016). An analysis of entry level management requirements:
Are there differences in perceptions of hospitality recruiters versus hospitality students? *Journal
of Human Resources in Hospitality and Tourism*, 15(3), 346–364.
https://doi.org/10.1080/15332845.2016.1147980

Jolley, J. G. (2007). Leadership can be taught: A bold approach for a complex world. *Academy of
Management Learning & Education*, 6(1), 149–150.

Kayes, A. B. (2007). Power and experience: Emancipation through guided leadership narratives. In R.
Vince & M. Reynolds (Ed.), *Handbook of experiential learning and management education*. OUP
Oxford.

Kets De Vries, M., & Korotov, K. (2010). *Developing Leaders and Leadership Development*. INSEAD
Working Paper.

Kirkpatrick, D. L. (1994). *Evaluating Training Programs: The Four Levels* (1st ed.). Berrett-Koehler.

Kirkpatrick, J., & Kirkpatrick, W. K. (2014). *The Kirkpatrick four levels: A fresh look after 55 years
1959-2014*. Retrieved from www.kirkpatrickpartners.com

Kouzes, T. K., & Posner, B. Z. (2019). Influence of managers' mindset on leadership behavior.
*Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, 40(8), 829–844.
https://doi.org/10.1108/LODJ-03-2019-0142

Lolli, J. C. (2013). Interpersonal communication skills and the young hospitality leader: Are they
prepared? *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 32(1), 295–298.
https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2012.02.010

Lyubovnikova, J., Napiersky, U., & Vlachopoulos, P. (2015). How are task reflexivity and intercultural
sensitivity related to the academic performance of MBA students? *Studies in Higher Education*,
40(9), 1694–1714. https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079.2014.894016

Marsick, V. J., & O'neil, J. (1999). The many faces of action learning. *Management Learning*, 30(2),
159–176. https://doi.org/10.1177/1350507699302004

Moldoveanu, M., & Narayandas, D. (2019). The future of leadership development. *Harvard Business
Review*, 97(4), 40–48.

O'Shannassy, T., Kemp, S., & Booth, C. (2010). Case studies in MBA strategic management curriculum
development from Australian universities. *Journal of Management & Organization*, 16(3), 467–
480. https://doi.org/10.1017/s1833367200002091

Scott, G. (2019). *Preparing work ready plus graduates for an uncertain future in: Education for
Employability (Volume 1). The Employability Agenda.* (Vol. 1). BRILL.
https://brill.com/view/book/edcoll/9789004400832/BP000018.xml

Scott, G. (2016). *Transforming graduate capabilities & achievement standards for a sustainable future.*
http://flipcurric.edu.au/sites/flipcurric/media/107.pdf

Shuck, B., & Herd, A. M. (2012). Employee engagement and leadership. *Human Resource Development Review*, 11(2), 156–181. https://doi.org/10.1177/1534484312438211

Sigala, M., & Christou, E. (2003). Enhancing and complementing the instruction of tourism and hospitality courses through the use of on-line educational tools. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Education*, 15(1), 6–15. https://doi.org/10.1080/10963758.2003.10696755

Sisson, L. G., & Adams, A. R. (2013). Essential hospitality management competencies: The importance of soft skills. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Education*, 25(3), 131–145. https://doi.org/10.1080/10963758.2013.826975

Sousa, M. J., Santos, V., Sacavém, A., dos Reis, I. P., & Sampaio, M. C. (2019). 4.0 leadership skills in hospitality sector. *Journal of Reviews on Global Economics*, 8, 105–117. https://doi.org/10.6000/1929-7092.2019.08.11

Stufflebeam, D. L. (1971). *Educational Evaluation and Decision Making*. F. E. Peacock.

Stufflebeam, D. L., & Coryn, C. L. S. (2014). *Evaluation Theory, Models and Applications* (2nd ed.). Jossey-Bass & Pfeiffer Imprints, Wiley.

Surty, S., & Scheepers, C. B. (2020). Moderating effect of environmental dynamism on leadership practices and employees' response to change in South Africa. *Management Research Review*. https://doi.org/10.1108/MRR-03-2019-0094

Tesone, D. V., & Ricci, P. (2005). Job competency expectations for hospitality and tourism employees: Perceptions of educational preparation. *Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality and Tourism*, 4(2), 53–64. https://doi.org/10.1300/J171v04n02_03

Torbert, B. (2004). *Action Inquiry: The Secret of Timely and Transforming Leadership*. Berrett-Koehler Publishers.

Ungaretti, T., Thompson, K. R., Miller, A., & Peterson, T. O. (2015). Problem-based learning: Lessons from medical education and challenges for management education. *Academy of Management Learning and Education*, 14(2), 173–186. https://doi.org/10.5465/amle.2013.0245

Vince, R., & Reynolds, M. (2007). Introduction: Experiential learning management education: Key themes and future directions. In R. Vince & M. Reynolds (Ed.), *Handbook of experiential learning and management education*. OUP Oxford.

Waddock, S., & Lozano, J. M. (2013). Developing more holistic management education: Lessons learned from two programs. *Academy of Management Learning and Education*, 12(2), 265–284. https://doi.org/10.5465/amle.2012.0002

Weber, M. R., Crawford, A., Lee, J. (Jay), & Dennison, D. (2013). An exploratory analysis of soft skill competencies needed for the hospitality industry. *Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality and Tourism*, 12(4), 313–332. https://doi.org/10.1080/15332845.2013.790245

Whetten, D. A., & Cameron, K. S. (2011). *Developing Management Skills*. Prentice Hall/ Pearson.

Whitelaw, P. A., Benckendorff, P., Gross, M. J., Mair, J., & Jose, P. (2015). *Tourism, Hospitality and Events Learning and Teaching Academic Standards*. Retrieved from https://ltr.edu.au/resources/VU101_OfficeLearningTeaching_StandardGuide_WEB_FINAL.pdf

Wolfe, K. L., Phillips, W. J., & Asperin, A. (2014). Using hotel supervisors' emotional intelligence as a benchmark for hospitality students. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education*, 26(1), 2–9. https://doi.org/10.1080/10963758.2014.880615

World Tourism Organisation. (2019). *The Future of Work and Skills Development in Tourism – Policy Paper*. https://www.e-unwto.org/doi/pdf/10.18111/9789284421213

Zhang, G., Zeller, N., Griffith, R., Metcalf, D., Williams, J., Shea, C., & Misulis, K. E. (2011). Using the context, input, process, and product evaluation model (CIPP) as a comprehensive framework to guide the planning, implementation, and assessment of service-learning programs. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement*, 15(4), 57–84.

Zhu, Y., Sun, L. Y., & Leung, A. S. M. (2014). Corporate social responsibility, firm reputation, and firm performance: The role of ethical leadership. *Asia Pacific Journal of Management*, 31(4), 925–947. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10490-013-9369-1