A Study of the Executive MBA (EMBA) Degree’s Impact on Mid-career Managers’ Post-degree Role-based Performance in Pakistan: Organizational Perspectives

by

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Abstract:

The main purpose of this study was to investigate the organizational perspective on improvement in performance of its mid-career professionals, as a result of their Executive MBA education in Pakistan. More specifically the study includes the identification of critical roles, which organizations consider important for the performance evaluation of mid-career professionals, and organizations’ perception of how effectively EMBA graduates perform those roles at workplace.

The study mainly used a quantitative research strategy and cross sectional survey method to collect data through a structured self-administered questionnaire. Ninety three organizations responded to this survey and provided data about 140 EMBA professionals. The feedback from organisations about important role-based performance indicators and EMBA graduate managers’ performance against those indicators were obtained. Results revealed that organizations consider the work related role as the most important aspect of evaluation, followed by team related, career related, innovation related and organization citizenship related roles. Results on the efficacy of EMBA programs against these role indicators showed that though by and large organizations were satisfied there existed a gap between each of the required roles.
Chapter 1 – Introduction

1.1. Overview of the Study

Executive education has been an integral part of both professional educational institutions and in-house company training programmes due to the belief about its enduring positive impact on individuals as well as organizational performance (Conger & Xin, 2000; Long, 2004). A large number of professional institutions, corporate institutions and universities are offering executive education programmes. They are usually designed for mid-career, experienced managers who seek to enhance their skills to be more effective in their roles at organizations (Dubas, Ghani, Davis, & Strong, 1998). The general objective behind executive education is to improve working professionals’ managerial knowledge and skills which help them improve their own as well as respective performance. More specifically the programme aims to develop creative and critical thinking skills in individuals by advancing their professional and leadership skills, competencies, and behaviours (Kirby, 2004). In this stream, university-based Executive Masters of Business Administration (EMBA) programmes are considered to be a vital source of improving individual’s professional competencies and performance (Dubas et al., 1998) as well as creating a human capital based competitive advantage for the firms (Longenecker & Ariss, 2002). Working professionals seek executive education to show that they have state of the art knowledge and requisite competencies for carrying out their responsibilities efficiently and effectively. In doing so, the Executive MBA programme is viewed as the only potential source that could rapidly help individuals in building such competencies and in adding value to their respective organizations (Conger & Xin, 2000).

However, university-based EMBA programmes have been castigated by a number of practitioners and scholars with regard to their ability to effectively fulfil their promised deliverables. Questions are raised regarding the utility and relevance of the programme’s delivered outcomes for professionals and organizations, and the evaluation of opportunity cost of money and time which organizations and/or individuals spend on this executive education (Long, 2004). Both of these concerns
seem logical as organizations/individuals always seek to juxtapose the expense which they incur on tuition fee and traveling against effectiveness of executive education programmes in helping organizations/individuals in improving their performance (Conger & Xin, 2000; Crotty & Soule, 1997; Long, 2004; Myrsiades, 2001). This scenario therefore has created a great demand for the objective evidence regarding the effectiveness of Executive MBA programmes in capturing and delivering the expectations of different stakeholders.

1.2. Background of the Problem

Technological advancements, global recession and competitiveness have increased the importance and significance of executive education. Many previous studies highlighted the inter-relatedness of executive education with employee and eventually organizational performance and growth (Harrison, Leitch, & Chia, 2007; Mento, Martinelli, & Jones, 1999; Tushman & O'Reilly, 2007). The EMBA is one of the most relevant approaches towards management education, which develops required managerial skills through the overall programme. As highlighted by Chien (2005), senior managers are participants in executive education with adequate work experience coupled with a strong flair towards integrating their professional experience with latest knowledge in the field. The overall design of the Executive MBA (EMBA) is for working managers with significant experience and full time employment where students meet once in a week (normally on week days) on campus and often in the evening (Celestino, 1999a). The question, however, as raised by Harrison et al. (2007) in their study related to the part that universities play in providing executive education in capability enhancement of practitioners and its consequent impact on graduates’ workplace performance. This seems to remain an understudied and under researched area. Universities are largely criticized due to their overwhelming focus on the theoretical concepts and lack of attention towards real time organizational issues and needs. The lag between academic research and management practices is not going to go away easily as practitioners and scholars both are haunted by this theory-practice dilemma (Voronov & Yorks, 2005). To this end, the literature on Executive MBA programmes highlights the need for research that should be undertaken to investigate
the Executive MBA programs’ effectiveness in terms of relevance and effectiveness in responding to the true needs and expectations of participants and organizations (Fine, 2007).

In so far as participants are concerned, their decision to join an Executive MBA programme has largely been based on their perception of its success in rewarding their personal and professional goals (Long, 2004). This has caused a reorientation of roles, contributions and relationships between the institution and its Executive MBA participants. Whilst a traditional approach of designing such programmes focuses on providing knowledge, skills and analytical abilities; the consideration of participants’ professional needs and concern for career growth has called educational institutions for a more pragmatic and demand driven Executive MBA programme. To be effective in meeting the needs of participants, the educational institutions are thus required to succeed in catering to the dual challenge of fulfilling scholars’ demand for intellectual rigor and the practitioners’ need for practical relevance (Harrison et al., 2007). As far as demands of host organizations of Executive MBAs (the industry) are concerned, it is widely acknowledged that organizational growth is dependent upon the sum of capabilities, knowledge, experience and proficiency of its human capital (Crook, Todd, Combs, Woehr, & Ketchen Jr, 2011). The concept of professional development is, therefore, principally investing in human capital to enrich individual performance (Lee & Choi, 2003). In view of the above, the question whether Executive MBA programmes are up to the requirements, from the point of view of the business world is important and deserves attention. Feedback and satisfaction of sponsoring organizations in this regard is very significant, as they are the ones who bear the cost of education and suffer in terms of time and productivity loss when their employee is passing through the degree. This is particularly important in case of developing countries like Pakistan, which lack dedicated executive development platforms, besides universities; and therefore, industry depends a great deal upon universities to fulfil its requirement of skilled man power, especially at middle management level. Industry officials in Pakistan frequently criticize MBA and EMBA programmes due to lack of its applicability and practical approach. It is this area that provides the scope of this research work which focuses on the extent to which the Executive MBA enhances the
performance of graduate managers at the workplace. Accordingly, this research work aims to study the effectiveness of the Executive MBA from industry’s perspective and identify any gaps between industry’s requirement and academic institutions’ offerings.

1.3. Statement of the Problem

In view of the gap identified in the above discussion, it is opportune to study the impact of the Executive MBA on the performance enhancement of participants when they return to the workplace, because both employees and employers are very keen to know this impact in order to shape their future decisions i.e. to “invest” or “not to invest” in Executive MBA programmes. Very little research encompassing the impact of Executive MBA on managers’ real time performance at workplace is available in general, and in case of Pakistan in particular.

1.4. Purpose of the Study

The fundamental purpose of this study is to look into the impact of prevailing Executive MBA programmes on the post-degree role-based performance of mid-career professionals from the perspective of the employing organizations. This involves the identification of critical role-based performance measures that organizations use to measure managers’ performance and their perceptions of the ability of Executive MBA programmes in enhancing managers’ performance against those critical role-based performance indicators.

1.5. Research Questions

Therefore the main research question of this study is:

“Do Executive MBA programmes in Pakistan meet or exceed the organization’s expectations in terms of enhancing mid-career managers’ post-degree role-based performance at the workplace?”
This main question can further be explicated by the following sub-questions:

1. What role-based performance indicators do organizations use or consider more important to measure their mid-career managers’ performance?

2. Does the importance of different role-based performance measures differ due to the industry, size, geographic scope, and ownership status differences?

3. What is the satisfaction level of organizations with respect to the effectiveness of Executive MBA programmes in enhancing post-degree role-based performance of their mid-career managers at the workplace?

4. Does Executive MBAs meet/exceed the organizations’ expectations in terms of enhancing mid-career managers’ post-degree role-based performance?

5. Does the perception of organizations regarding Executive MBA effectiveness in enhancing graduate managers’ Role-based performance vary due to the industry, size, geographic scope, and ownership status?

1.6. **Significance of the Study**

Organizational performance depends upon the ability of the organization to align itself with the changing business environment and capitalize on the unique and valuable resources to gain an advantage over their competitors. Both, the world of practice and the realms of theory, are increasingly realizing the importance of human resources, in catering to the ever increasing complexity and dynamism in the environment and its consequent repercussions on the organizational activities. Therefore, human resources at all levels of an organization need to continuously develop themselves in terms of knowledge, skills and mental orientation, so as to perform in the current turbulent business environment. Middle tier executives, being the central link between top managers and front line employees, ought to have a pressing need for development. In this regards, the EMBA has emerged as the widely accepted model whereby middle to top tier executives develop their capacity by acquiring advanced and contemporary knowledge, skills, and management approaches. However, with the proliferation of
EMBA programmes worldwide, there has been a growing concern about the effectiveness of these programmes in fulfilling the expectations of their key stakeholders, including participants, universities and organizations. To cater to these reservations, there is an ever important role of researchers to devise innovative tools to measure the efficacy of EMBA programmes; and undertake research to gauge the satisfaction of key stakeholders and suggest improvements to make the EMBA more plausible to its participants and industry. In this respect, a role-based performance model provides a new way of researching into the effectiveness of EMBA programmes. Drawing on this model, the current study aims to measure which roles of middle tier employees are considered more important by organizations, and what is their perceived satisfaction with EMBA graduates in performing those roles. That being so the current research work is significant in extending the scope of role-based performance model and substantiating applicability.

1.7. Organization of the Dissertation

The thesis is divided into nine chapters. Chapter one gives an overview of the study, background of the problem, purpose of study, research questions, and significance of the study.

The second chapter is dedicated to the review of the relevant literature. It reviews literature on the role of employee development in organization performance, and on the specific role of middle managers. This chapter highlights the importance of executive education in developing the employees and looks into the historical progression towards EMBA, its expected outcomes, curriculum, and its contribution towards the development of employees for organization. Then it reviews the role of executive education in developing managerial capacity to perform expected roles in organizations and how EMBA encourages managers to modify their objective behaviours through affirmative re-enforcement as well as its role in a manager’s personal development. Finally, it discusses concerns and challenges regarding the desired results of executive MBA programmes.
Given that this study has been undertaken in Pakistan, the third chapter discusses the importance of executive education, and its role in socio economic development of Pakistan. This chapter also gives an overview of National and International Executive MBA landscape comparing the similarities and differences between them.

The fourth chapter emphasis the growing demand for measuring the effectiveness of EMBAs and accordingly discusses various frameworks of employees performance evaluation, particularly the role based framework.

Chapter five explains the methodology of the research. This chapter delineates research approach, research type, research strategy, research design, and data collection methods of current research work. Chapter six discusses data management process, analyses of the results and consequent findings.

Chapter seven includes a discussion of the findings of the study in the light of the prevailing research work. Chapter eight comprises discussion of the results while chapter nine concludes with the implications of the research, its limitation and sketches out areas of future research on the topic.
Chapter 2 – Literature Review

2.1. Overview of the Chapter

This chapter is divided into nine core sections. The first section, starts with a discussion on the role of employee development in organizational performance, and brings in the specific role of middle managers in this regards. While the literature substantiates employee development towards performance, the natural question arises about the importance of executive education in developing employees, especially the middle managers. The literature on employees' development in an organization is reviewed in second section of chapter two.

Starting from the objectives and the reasons behind organizations’ decision to support their employees’ Executive education, section three incorporates the specific role of executive education in professional development.

Section four reviews the literature on the emergence of the Executive MBA and the reasons for its overwhelming acceptance at its inception. Section five discusses the curriculum and the main drivers behind an EMBA programme. The next section talks about the expectations from the EMBA and different perspectives on its significance. The Benefits and outcomes of the EMBA are examined from the organizational and participant points of view.

The eighth section of this chapter investigates personal development and the EMBA’s specific role in developing professional traits of employees which enable them to demonstrate desired roles in the organizations.

Finally, section nine brings attention towards challenges and concerns regarding the efficacy of executive education, and in particular about the EMBA and concludes that there are increasing demands to measure EMBA effectiveness.

2.2. Employees Development in Organization

The ever-changing and challenging business world has made organizations realize that round the globe organizations need to be competitively advantageous through value
creating strategies and processes (Clulow, Gerstman, & Barry, 2003) in order to sustain an edge over their competitors in operating markets. Successful and consistent implementation of corresponding strategies paves the way for a firm to perform well in the longer run. This competitive advantage comes through employing different resources under the direct control of a firm as these resources possess the ability to generate a differential advantage (Makino, Lau, & Yeh, 2002; Wernerfelt, 1984). Over past many decades researchers invested lots of efforts to argue that organizational resources that are rare, non-imitable, and non-substitutable harvest a sustainable competitive advantage for the firm (Barney, 1991). It has been fairly concluded that among all other resources that a firm contains, human resources and the ethical practices that organizations adopt to manage them directly impact the competitive advantage a firm looks for (Manroop, 2015).

At this juncture, it is imperative to establish concrete understanding regarding fundamental resources within an organization that ensures sustainable competitive advantage. In this regard, the widely acknowledged and tested resource based view (RBV) of the firm provides a sound explanation that encircles tangible and intangible resources of the firm as the nucleus for greater performance (Fuller & Rothaermel, 2012). The Resource based view (RBV), popularly known as Resource Based Theory (RBT) surfaced in 1980s and 1990s when a couple of known management thinkers as Barney (1991), Wernerfelt (1984) and Priem and Butler (2001) etc. came up with the notions of superior organizational performance and sustainable competitive advantage. This theory further emphasized that scarce and worthy resources provide organizations with an opportunity to develop and sustain competitive advantage.

Resource based theory emancipates that productive utilization of an organization’s resources – which are rare, non-substitutable and valued – enable an organization to take the lead in a competitive market and this lead would be lasting if these resources are prevented from being imitated (Wade & Hulland, 2004; Wong, Tseng, & Tan, 2014). The prime concern of RBT is to ascertain the value and capability of resources as these resources can be imitated and transferred (Schoemaker & Amit, 1993). Another considerable issue is to maintain a balance between vulnerable resources and
organizational capabilities. The fundamental roots of RBT come from strategic management literature and it is the core reason that RBT is often replicated with the theory of competitive advantage (Barney, 1991) and sometimes with the theory of value creation. Barney (2012) mentioned that market is the deciding factor that recognizes and realizes the core value of the resources held by an organization as these resources exemplify a firm’s position in the market in which it operates and functions. Buller and McEvoy (2012) postulated the RBT on the grounds that an organization can only be defined in the perspective of resources under its functional control. They further described organizational positioning with reference to these resources as organizations are heterogeneous in nature and they are differentiated on the basis of these resources; in this very regard, if an organization exercises firm control over its rare and valuable resources then it can definitely claim the competitive advantage against its competitors. However, Porter (1996) criticized the mainstream assumptions of resource based theory and argued that RBT did not appropriately address the process of advantage creation and the analytical view of the theory is more vocal than operational. Even the core proponents of RBT have been criticized for establishing the theory on poor and irrational grounds (Foss & Foss, 2004).

On the contrary, the theory of dynamic capabilities appeared more appropriate in developing a procedural and operational pathway for creating advantages in the functional cycle of an organization (Helfat & Peteraf, 2003). The theory of dynamic capabilities emphasizes resource development and argues that sustainable competitive advantage cannot be achieved merely on the basis of resources that are acquired as they are prone to be imitated, transferred and possessed by other firms in the market. Knowledge plays a pivotal role in harnessing dynamic capabilities and guides them towards gaining sustainable competitive advantage (Nieves & Haller, 2014). If knowledge is not strengthening at individual and holistically at organizational level then a firm cannot survive in a market place in a longer run. Increasingly, the strategy thinkers started realizing that sustainable competitive advantage comes from the knowledge that a company possesses that can be applied in its activities. The conceptualization of knowledge as core competency for any and every organization is based upon the cognitive ability of top management to consider employees as human
assets and knowledge as the differential strength. It can easily be understood that knowledge sharing and dissemination across a whole organization in a holistic manner generates an atmosphere of organizational learning (Bontis, Crossan, & Hulland, 2002). Rapidly changing technological trends and customers’ need in a volatile and dynamic market place further enable an organization to be adaptive and eventually turn out as a learning organization (Akgün, Keskin, Byrne, & Ilhan, 2014) which further paves the way towards developing sustainable competitive advantages (Warf, 2007). The continuous and persistent need for intellectual upgrading provides a candid rationale for investing in human assets; and executive education is one of those means that are adopted to sustain this competitive advantage.

The organizational focus has changed in recent years and core business strategists as well as front line economists are placing more emphasis upon the importance of knowledge and skills in gaining competitive advantage. The generation of wealth is no more proclaimed through well knitted organizational hierarchies or the bureaucratic setup as had been the case, but more through specialized knowledge and core competencies that are gained and developed over time (Drucker & Drucker, 1993). It is needed to understand that in order to bring persistent advancement in organization’s human capital, a close linkage between capabilities and governance approach is required as timely investment and management of human capital paves the way for a firm towards developing its core competencies (Mahoney & Kor, 2015). The foremost link of this discussion can be established through human capital theory; which was principally originated in the early economic manuscripts of Smith (1776) and other renowned economists. Human capital theory sees the advantages of education and training as an investment in human resources keeping fundamental proposition that human resources are considerably a form of capital in growth.

The knowledge based view/theory (KBV/KBT) considers knowledge as the core significant resource of an organization that not only ensures the profitability but also the continuous and lasting sustainability of an organization (Alavi & Leidner, 2001). Knowledge of an organization cannot be imitated, transferred or possessed by any external agent as it lies with the human beings working for that organization. The
strategic management process, thus, needs to incorporate the overall culture, inter-group identities, organizational design, procedures and functional activities rather than tangible/in-tangible resources (Karkoulian, Messarra, & McCarthy, 2013; Phelan & Lewin, 2000; Schmiedel, Vom Brocke, & Recker, 2014). It is clear that the knowledge based view of the firm is a conceptual paradigm that encircles an organization in a multi-dimensional manner and advocates the possibility of building novel theoretical frameworks, keeping knowledge and knowledge workers within close intellectual proximity (Kogut, 2000; Lupton & Beamish, 2014).

A sharp shift from the resource based view (Barney, 1991; Penrose, 1995) to the knowledge based view (Grant, 1997) of the firm strengthens the notion that sustainable competitive advantage lies with human resources; it was actually a replacement of ‘metal with mind’. Organizational knowledge has been considered as a differential strength and employees as the focused repositories of this knowledge. The holistic knowledge generation, codification, retention and dissemination across an organization provides ease in maintaining sustainability. A persistent struggle against knowledge obsolescence has further accelerated the process of steady mental enhancement; and organizations initiated serious plans to improve the related processes through training, education, career development planning, and different management systems (Goldstein & Ford, 2002). The role of education and training appears very significant in creating new knowledge and improving organizational processes and functions in order to counter the notion of internal and external change that demands current knowledge and further keeping it updated by the course of time (Gil, Garcia-Alcaraz, & Mataveli, 2015). In addition with market changes, if a firm is involved in product innovation and opt to enter new markets, the role of training and up-grading human resource knowledge seems promising. Knowledge-based resources held by an organization act as modifying agents during change process. An organization’s ability to take advantage of its knowledge resources however largely depends upon the way in which these resources interact with internal and external change catalysts, as these interactions in turn influence the organizational vision and its processes (Anninos & Chytiris, 2012).
The proponents of Human Capital Theory (Becker, 2009) with reference to modern neoclassical economics (Mincer, 1958) have further advocated investment in human capital while considering it as the most significant means of production, as capitalizing more in it ensures additional output. Modern growth theory considers human capital as the core and key factor in consistent and profitable growth (Rindermann, 2008; Woessmann, 2008). A recent reorientation of human capital theory has urged the significance of training and education as fundamental for participating in the modern international economic world. Human capital theory has been criticized in different ways. Scholars from the social sciences have raised objections that it fails to construe human activity besides exchange of commodities (Block, 1990). Other scholars have pointed out that human capital theory is based on economic rationality and hence propagates the notion that every individual works for his or her self-interest in a free competitive market. Drawing on this criticism, Friedman (1962) argued that while human capital theory calls for investment in human resources, humans being economically rational and self-centred individuals will only try to get benefit of vocational and professional education for themselves and not for the company. Nonetheless, while this line of criticism is admissible, the contribution of human capital theory in highlighting the importance of humans as a source of capital is widely acknowledged by the scholars. If organizations are able to devise systems and processes to retain and get benefit of their human resources, investment made to develop their capacity could translate into benefit for the organization.

In concluding the above discussion, it can be argued that knowledge is the core source of sustainable growth in a rapidly changing global surrounding (Nonaka & Teece, 2001). Society is turning out to be more knowledge oriented and if an organization is keen in generating, keeping, disseminating, coding and modifying new knowledge then it appears more sustainable and competitively advantageous as compared to others in the same market place. The prime focus of extensive knowledge management is to use firm’s knowledge-based resources with the help of knowledge management protocols and organization wide learning practices (Mavodza & Ngulube, 2012). Organizations step forward to build their respective human repositories and focus upon the continuous development of their managers, especially the middle tier. The literature suggests that
these middle managers are the most significant management layer in any organization and their role is multifaceted. In view of this, the present study focuses upon the role of middle managers in an organization, the role based performance of managers, the role of executive education in personal development of middle managers, the gap between industry requirements and graduate schools’ offerings and finally the perspective of executive education and the EMBA in Pakistan.

2.2.1. Role of Middle Managers in Organizations

The knowledge based view of organizations has transformed the organizational perception concerning the role of middle managers. Scholars assert that middle managers are not an interchangeable part in an organization and that they influence the performance of an organization greater than any other corresponding activity, function or process. The multifaceted role of middle managers envelops the entire organization; particularly in implementing strategies devised by top management (O’Shannassy, 2003); and during the process of strategic change, they further act as key strategic actors (Balogun, 2003; Gatenby, Rees, Truss, Alfés, & Soane, 2014). Middle managers contribute strategically in development of an organization through their respective roles and by complying with strategic changes. They further accelerate the process of cultural transformation within an organization and bring holistic changes in overall organization’s structure and processes (Rouleau & Balogun, 2011). It is important to note that middle managers should be taken on board while passing through the organizational change process; as they must undergo the change before they are directed to lead the change by themselves (Braaf et al., 2011). The extent of diversity seems more prevalent in the role of middle managers as compared to senior executives; because of their closeness with daily operations (Huy, 2001b) and interactive involvement in scores of inter-related activities as they come across different functional and operational problems and try to team other employees during the process of solving these in favour of respective organization (Rouleau & Balogun, 2011), further employees and customers, open opportunities for them to encourage growth.
Porter and Donthu (2006) assert that behaviour, communication style and interaction of middle managers with other employees impact the initiatives undertaken by an organization to establish a productive environment. It is particularly true about middle managers, as their complex and intricate role requires that they must master behavioural and cognitive engagement within an organization. The Boston Consulting group, in one of its reports, highlighted three core behavioural roles of middle managers as organizational communicator, trust builder and strategy implementer; and suggested that all these three roles are needed to be performed with extensive behavioural modifications as middle managers have to deal with a larger and diversified workforce.

Another crucial role of middle managers elaborated by Mantere and Sillince (2007) is purely a functional one. The author suggested that middle managers’ direct ideas, that are generated by lower middle managers, to the top management so that they could use them in their decision making process for the betterment of organization. Similarly, they operationally intermediate between the top and lower cadre in a very intellectual and functionally behavioural mode towards new knowledge creation. In another empirical study Zampetakis and Moustakis (2010) observed that middle managers play a vital role in developing group entrepreneurial behaviour and job satisfaction.

The significance with reference to the role of middle managers in knowledge management and innovation has been well highlighted in a study by Al-Hakim and Hassan (2011) that shows it to be crucial for contemporary organizations to maintain required behavioural balance for accelerating the process of innovation and management of organizational knowledge. Overall organizational culture needs extensive involvement of middle managers as they strive to achieve the organizational flexibility through persistent cultural transformation and change. Information management is a key to achieve operational excellence and middle managers facilitate the notion of adaptability by synthesizing information through their positions, contacts and inter-personal relationships; their strong personal involvement in the process of synthesizing information affects the bonded perception of senior management and helps establish a closer tie among different management tiers (Xu, 2009).
The functional role of middle managers in an organization seems crucial as they devote time and effort to implement organizational policies and plans; on top of it, they guide, inspire and direct lower management towards achieving set plans and establish these policies (Kinicki & Williams, 2012). It is more of their personal intervention that makes things work, the complex organizational network and functional/operational intricacies require extensive physical participation from lower tier or bottom line managers but this physical participation cannot be successful unless it is linked with persistent mental back up from middle managers who act as the binding force among different organizational layers (Schermerhorn Jr, 2009).

The primary task of middle managers is based upon a set of characteristics that are purely mental and personal; the behavioural perspective, communication skills, negotiation skills, team building aptitude, comprehending group dynamics, assertiveness, initiatives and leadership etc. This set of skills enables a middle manager to act more intellectually rather than physically. In the specific case of organizational change, the mental models of managers and their attitude influence whole process of change within an organization but it is all evident that managers acceptance is very important in order to gain their complete confidence that ensures their involvement and support towards the process of change (Valle & Teresa, 2006). Organizations in this regard are cautioned to pay extra attention to their middle management level as this level influences organizational performance in a manner in which it does not influences any other part of the same (Al-Hakim & Hassan, 2011). Middle managers are integral to organizational performance and they are inter-changeable and clamp themselves between corresponding organizational tiers in order to enhance productivity.

While concluding the above discussion regarding the multi-dimensional role of middle managers in an organization, it seems that their role is less physical and more mental, and therefore, their cognitive development, mental richness, professional knowledge, behavioural modifications and communicative competence are key faculties that enable them to perform their job better. Their role is a comprehensive package that incorporates all of these faculties. As discussed in the later sections, the aim of this study is to look into role based performance of middle managers and further explore
different dimensions of these roles they play to mobilize subordinates and other employees at work.

2.3. The Role of Executive Education in Professional Development

Organizational growth is dependent upon the sum of capabilities, knowledge, experience and proficiency of its human capital (Crook et al., 2011). The concept of professional development, at its core, is about investing in this human capital to enrich its capabilities and performance (Ronald, 2003). Strategic human capital needs substantial investments in training, lucrative benefit, chances for professional development and anticipation for long term employment relationship with organization (Ferrary, 2015). Executive education is considered as a tool to develop employees’ professional competencies by teaching them contemporary knowledge and management practices which they apply at workplace to make their organizations more profitable and competitive (Prince, 2010). Executive education needs extensive teaching environment and intellectual efforts, it has been observed in studies that team teaching approach was very successful in EMBA teaching (Wynne & Parker, 2013).

Executive education is built on the theory of adult learning. Adult learning stems from the theory of andragogy, which was developed by Malcolm Knowles in 1980. This theory is considered among the most well-known theories in adult teaching (Glickman, Gordon, & Ross-Gordon, 2013). It postulates that adults are intrinsically motivated and self-directed individuals who apply knowledge during the course of learning and are ready to solve problems related to the developmental tasks evolving at their workplace (Blondy, 2007). Studies have found that different learning models help executive participants to apply what they have learnt in their work environment and settings, experiential team based learning models seemed helpful in entrepreneurial setting and boost learning cycle (Blackwood, Hatt, Pugalis, & Round, 2014). There is a larger consensus among scholars and practitioners that, since executive education is purely a targeted education, therefore the blend of participant centred and instructor centred approach would be more helpful rather than adopting conventional teaching approach; as interactive session appears more applied and provide work place acquainted teaching
and it further inclined towards targeted knowledge and skill development among executive participants.

The aim of any adult educational programme is to change the values embodied within an individual, his/her attitudes and ultimately the behaviour through training or educational programme (Rivera, 1973). This stands true for executive education as well because executive education specifically focuses on developing managers who are working at more senior levels within an organization (Crotty & Soule, 1997). The major focus of executive education in 21st century is to prepare senior managers for their leadership roles vis-à-vis prepare them to accept and play leading role in their multi-dimensional responsibilities (McNay, 2013).

Universities and business schools have developed both degree and non-degree programmes and even custom built programmes to cater for the needs of corporate employers so as to create current and future business leaders. Such programmes are fostered to develop the skill based competences of working professionals by customizing these programmes either around a functional skill set or unique industry-tailored requirements. Large corporations like General Electric (GE), Glaxo SmithKline (GSK) etc. have gone to the extent of collaborating with various universities, creating their own in house development centres and executing training programmes that are both job specific and job related so that their managers can build competencies in multifaceted areas and functions of business. The objective behind this education is to provide advanced skill-cantered training and grooming to highly motivated, mature and experienced managers. An exhaustive list of companies are now taking help from such executive programmes to equip their managerial staff to make critical organizational changes and not just to provide for the developmental needs of individual managers (Crotty & Soule, 1997). Vast repositories of literature show that organizations spend heavily on the development of general managers.

In addition to it, leading business schools and organizations are trying their best to establish strategic partnership between education and entrepreneurship, so that they can walk hand in hand and generate profitable options for both (Cliff, 2012). Another important aspect that has been under close consideration of sponsoring organizations is
the change in individual behaviour of those who are sent to pursue the EMBA. The social networking and networking behavioural progression has been the core concern as it directly influences the intra-group and inter-group relationships within the close proximity of a firm and senior managers are supposed to perform their multi-dimensional role in an applied manner. Seevers, Johnson, and Darnold (2015) in their study highlighted two of the core personality traits (agreeableness and extraversion) as antecedents to students’ social network and networking behaviour and clarified that in recent years a significant increase in the number of scholarships had been witnessed concerning these two behaviours of business students as they directly belong to the social capital of the student.

Technological automation began from the beginning of 19th century and it pushed companies to replace the physical strength of their work force with a calculated set of skills and competencies, as it was required to be more pro-active and technologically competent in order to ensure sustainable competitive advantage (Roe, Toma, & Yallapragada, 2015). The need to introduce scientific methods in business education surfaced rapidly with organizations round the globe started demanding a sharp shift in teaching methods in terms to have an adequate fit in their processes. MBA and EMBA degrees were initially designed not to provide business education to working professionals but also to equip them to be acquainted with drastically changing technological interfaces so that they might work efficiently and perform better (Krishnan, 2008; Lockhart, 2013).

While reviewing recent literature, it appears that management practices gained momentum when large scale organizations turned into significant institutions in modern society. These organizations were initially structured around very competent functional specialties. As organizations expanded and grew in their operations the number of specialized functions also started increasing. Having so many specialized functions around where managers were concentrating their efforts in a single domains, a serious gap opened up where managers though good in one functional area, lacked general management skills. Hence the need to equip highly specialized managers for overall general management skills developed so as to coordinate and integrate cross functional
tasks to achieve organizational goals (Hilgert, 1998). In addition to corresponding set of skills, there has still been a gap between communication skills of new graduates as inculcated by universities and what is desired by industry and it is needed to be filled on an immediate basis as technological progression places immense pressure on working managers to develop extensive communicative competence among them so that they may be more beneficial for their sponsoring organizations. In a study undertaken by Conrad and Newberry (2012), it was observed that industries required custom based communication skills while universities worked upon fundamental and conventional communication patterns that is non-business specific and it is to be changed to bridge the lag between what is required and what is offered. Waldeck, Durante, Hellmuth, and Marcia (2012) in their research article showed the changing communication patterns due to the influence of technology in industrial processes; they emphasized that organizations round the globe required communicative competence that was primarily meant to address inter-cultural communication issues, the global nature of organizational communication and the changing patterns of intra-organizational communication. They have further highlighted basic competencies relevant to communication skills of managers that are demanded by organizations and to be covered within the curriculum offered by universities as encompassing technology, intergroup relations, nonverbal and chronemic awareness, relational competence etc.

2.4. The Historical Progression from Non-degree Programmes to the Executive MBA

Since the late 19th century, business education came into the main stream and business schools started coming up (Roe et al., 2015);

1881: The first school of business education in the world was the Wharton School of Finance and Commerce established in 1881.

1898: The next schools of business education were established at the University of Chicago and the University of California-Berkeley, both in 1898.
1990: The first graduate school of business, the Tuck School of Business, was founded at Dartmouth in 1900. It was considered a very bold move at that time. Tuck was the very first school in the world to confer a master degree in commercial sciences, a Master of Science in Commerce, which became a forerunner of the present MBA (www.tuck.dartmouth.edu).

1908: One of the most reputable graduate business programs in the world, the Harvard MBA, was established at Harvard University in 1908. It was the very first business education program in the world to confer a degree to be called an MBA. The first year curriculum was based on Frederick Taylor’s epic, “Scientific Management” (www.hbs.edu).

1924: The world-famous “Case Method” in business education was initiated in the Harvard MBA Program in 1924.

1930: The Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT) Sloan Fellows Program, introduced in 1930, was the first management/leadership education program to be created for mid-career, experienced managers.

1943: In 1943, The University of Chicago Booth School of Business began to offer the Executive MBA (EMBA) Program for employed, working professionals, the first of such MBA programs to be offered anywhere. Now, many schools offer an EMBA.

1986: In 1986, the Roy E. Crummer Graduate School of Business at Rollins College, Florida became the first MBA School to require every student to have a laptop computer in the classroom.

Since the late nineteenth century there has been a need amongst organizations to have higher level managerial training programmes that could cater for the development needs of working professionals. This was the time when the MBA degree programmes surfaced and where leading schools like Wharton in 1881 and Harvard’s in 1908 started offering business degrees. The MBA programme was a two year degree programme encapsulating a mix of core courses and elective courses, covering a broad range of business functions from marketing to finance and HR to production. These attracted
younger participants but not working professionals. Harvard Business School’s Second World War production course laid down the foundation to the non-degree executive development course, which was a 15 week course designed and geared to train older managers. Prior to this, Harvard in the late 1920s and MIT in its early 1930s had already started offering five-week short selections of MBA contents including “Sloan Fellowships at MIT” and the famous “Cabot Discussion Groups” at Harvard which became major influencers in developing and designing the executive development programmes. Such non-degree management development programmes had the flexibility of design and freedom as they did not have to follow strict degree requirements and were of short durations, ranging from one week to fifteen weeks in comparison with the two-year MBA degree.

These university based non-degree programmes earned popularity with many companies, yet some companies still preferred their own in-house training or hired external consultants to train and develop their executives. A few organizations like GE, GSK, and Motorola for example, provided their own custom built versions of the programmes offered at the universities. For instance, GE started offering a 13-week advanced management programme in 1956 (Tichy & Charan, 1989), which led to the publication of the multi-volume GE’s “Blue Book”, that was instrumental in training its managers in various functional areas of business. This book became so popular and respected that it started making a positive influence on different business school curricula in 1960s. A main problem for both the GE model and the universities that offered such courses was the eventual transference and application of the acquired knowledge back to the real time job. Critics argued that benefits ascertained from such courses and training were extremely difficult to measure in real terms, and due to their tacit nature were difficult to correlate with improvements achieved “on-job”. Executive non-degree programmes were off-shoots and outgrowths of the MBA programmes.

Although the University of Chicago in 1943 became the first ever university that offered an executive MBA (EMBA) degree (Barney, 1991) but EMBA programmes grew in both size and number; by early 1990’s the MBA degree had become a universally accepted professional credential for business managers e.g. in 1992 alone a
record 84,642 MBAs were granted this degree (Bongiorno & Byrne, 1994) which was 8% rise over the previous year. The objective of companies has long been to gain competitiveness and in doing so, they started to revamp and design new strategies and a totally new approach in thinking (Vicere & Graham, 1990). Companies started viewing their executive development as a process that would change the entire organization and its corporate culture through these managers who would not only be working as change agents but leaders of incorporating such change. Moving forward with their past successes, various university programmes felt the need to develop organizational managers as individuals that would not only support, but also work towards meeting overall organizational goals.

Another reason for overwhelming acceptance of the EMBA was accelerated competition amongst organizations, that mandated innovation, creativity, and adoption of new techniques in order to gain competitive edge (Eesley & Longenecker, 2006). Executive MBA (executive education) in this regard is believed to be a vital source of improving individuals’ professional competencies and performance (Dubas et al., 1998) as well as creating a competitive advantage for the firms (Longenecker & Ariss, 2002). Executive education is a service based on the identification of the individuals’ and organizations’ needs of growth and development. The Executive MBA is designed for working professionals who want to further expand their knowledge and skills through education while maintaining employment in their organizations (Price, 2004).

Executive MBA programmes provide individuals with required competencies that expedite career progression. One of the significant objectives of the Executive MBA programme is to equip middle or senior level managers with professional and leadership skills. Since these skills have become very critical for organizational success, a significant amount of resources are invested by organizations and individuals in executive education to minimize the knowledge gap between management theory and leadership practices. There is a greater demand for professionals who can multitask and take effective, profitable decisions. Therefore, an increasing number of employees are taking the opportunity to avail continuing education programmes offered as fringe benefits by their organizations. Hall and Ko (2014) derived a list of specific learning
goals that are opted by sponsoring organizations and linked with many EMBA programmes as “strategic perspectives, decision making, leadership, change management, innovation and globalization”. These areas or set of knowledge are abstract in nature and they are core with reference to organizational integration, functions and operations. Organizations are keen to equip their senior managers with these skills so that they may come up to the mark and perform at the best desired level.

2.5. The Executive MBA Curriculum

Siegert (2008) argues that both the curriculum and the duration of executive MBA programmes are notably very different from what is offered in part-time or full-time MBA programmes. Although most EMBA courses are similar in nomenclature to the standard MBA courses, the content and format of EMBA are totally different. Typically fewer electives are offered and the content is more industry centred and the materials are more up-to-date so as to accommodate the high expectations of the companies which are sponsoring their participants (Crotty & Soule, 1997). The conceptual framework of EMBA is applied and designed to provide hands-on knowledge while sharpening leadership skills of participants. The teaching methodology is more analytical and interactive and less book oriented. The major areas of focus in terms of programme’s core objectives and participants learning outcome include:

- Enhancing technical expertise
- Developing capacity to identify key trends in competitiveness in order to allocate the necessary resources
- Ability to develop and implement appropriate strategies
- Manage change and lead companies through an increasingly complex global environment
- Leadership skills
- Play a key role in the strategic decision-making in the organization
- Expand personal and professional network

Great emphasis is placed on scheduling the course offerings so as to strategically align and balance the time demands of participants, employers, and faculty. Often such
programmes are either offered during evenings in the weekdays or over the weekends,
so that the three stakeholders (participants, employers and faculty) can benefit optimally
along with flexible schedules as the need to take time off from work is not required.
According to a survey conducted by Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of
Business (AACSB), there has been an increased number of faculty members who are
professionally qualified and are working full-time in various management education
programmes, at least in the US (Madzar & Citron, 2009). Such a faculty is better off at
synthesizing delivery content in a more pragmatic manner so that it helps EMBA
students to build their decision making and action oriented abilities that are critical at
their workplaces. A great deal of coursework is also done off-campus in the shape of
group projects where real time companies and situations are analysed for conceptual
and applied learning (Boyatzis & Saatcioglu, 2008).

Executive programmes are offered with a flexible yet rigorous diversified format of
modes of learning, taught in a simulative environment based on field applications
focusing more on conceptual learning that is directly relevant to the overall careers of
students instead of following the traditional “text-book” centric approach. Choi (2010)
in his research, by using a sample of EMBA graduates, found a significant impact of the
EMBA curriculum on the acquisition and transfer of knowledge at the workplace.
According to Newson, Parent, and Schneberger (1998) the EMBA programme would
have a particularly longer session with longer intervals in-between and there would be a
lesser face-to-face in-class interaction through a curriculum that is designed in such a
manner that there is more effective learning experience through its delivery of content
that provides useful opportunities to learn and embark upon, provides assistance in
applying the knowledge ascertained, and develop and build upon overall management
capabilities of the already experienced and motivated professional. In a research study,
Tang and Rose (2014) argued that experiential and in-depth learning acquired by
EMBA graduates through field visits is an added strength that cannot be gained while
being in structured class rooms. The plausible balance between classroom activities and
experiential learning paves the way for graduates to bring along with the true flavour of
applied knowledge and experience.
The key driver behind an EMBA programme is to satisfy the organizations’ need for developing managerial capabilities to become future leaders or chief executive officers (CEOs). EMBA programmes have revamped curricula so that these can offer more practical and leadership skills to their participants that are immediately applicable at their workplaces (Choi, 2010). An important question to ask here is: where is the EMBA curriculum heading? To answer this question it is imperative to reflect upon the significant guideposts in terms of what organizations perceive and in terms of how they can be competitive. If we look at the two most important trends in the corporate sector, we can see that the effects of global competition is rated at the top for an organization to address, while the second most significant trend is the evolving corporate needs of organization, operating in today’s environment.

Mann and Staudenmier (1991) in their survey of executive development directors, identified a surge of respondents citing global strategy and its associated competition as the key subjects for study. This has paved the way for many business schools to encompass an international and global orientation offered through partnerships and collaborations with other international business schools (Celestino, 1999b; Wood & Robertson, 2015). The EMBA programmes of today are not only focusing on reinforcing the link that lies between real world situations erupting in the business world with management theories, but are also inducting strategies that are both prevalent and applicable in a global market place. Based upon this need, many universities e.g. The New York University have made it mandatory for their Executive MBA participants to take Japanese or Russian economics and history as a prerequisite, before they send participants to either Japan or Russia to undertake a one week training experience that is linked to the courses on global strategy and management. Similarly, EMBA programmes offered at Fuqua Business School at Duke University offers international residency to its students in the USA for their first session and then offers other sessions at various universities in Asia, Europe and South America for the remaining sessions. This helps participants to have a cross-cultural encounter of business applications that facilitates them to cultivate the needed global orientation of running a business.
Both the corporate sector and individuals spend considerable amounts of human and financial resource on EMBA and MBA programmes. From the point of business organizations, EMBA programmes are long-term investments which ensure that after going through such programmes, their employees and managers can develop a set of leadership skills and a strategic management foresight, so that they (the managers) can manage their teams more effectively and efficiently (Choi, 2011a). Similarly, it has also been argued that one of the basic objectives to undergo management education and training is that it develops employees to be outstanding and to become outstanding managers, professionals and eventually good leaders (Storey, 2014). Wiig (2012) in his famous book, “People Focused Knowledge Management” made it clear that business environment has changed a lot and rapid competition requires organizations to show extensive effectiveness in their services and operations while being on the forefront with respect to introduce new products and services—all signs of knowledge economy. Organizational managers are supposed to utilize their knowledge to change work behaviour and be effective in decision making. London and Mone (1999) have also argued that to develop leadership capability in adult learners, formal executive education can play a particularly significant role. The curriculum design of an EMBA programme revolves around the objective of helping students to gain industry specific knowledge, develop a specific skill set that is required by corporations and then use this knowledge attained in real world scenarios so as to make things happen. The role of such management education is to enable a student to develop cognitive, social and emotional competencies that would gear them to become effective professionals, leaders and business managers (Boyatzis & Saatcioglu, 2008).

Such programmes equip their graduates with opportunities of global leadership that is greatly needed in the international business field and a high return on investment (ROI) by fast vertical career progressions. Many authors have taken a divergent viewpoint as to where the EMBA curriculum should be heading. Although most of the programmes are designed to produce good leaders and managers, others have argued to include other facets of social development and learning in the overall content, for example the inclusion of liberal arts (Maslow, Stephens, Heil, & Bennis, 1998). Datar, Garvin, and Cullen (2011) in their manuscript entitled “re-thinking the MBA” have made it clear
that the focus of business education has gone far beyond providing analytical and advisory skills to managers, they further elaborate their argument as the aim of MBA is to create pro-active managers who possess perspective and frameworks to comprehend corporate world in the light of extended social reality. The authors have placed concrete arguments for business education that primarily focuses upon developing strong leadership skills, attaining a global perspective, refining integration skills, being facilitated with the purpose, roles and responsibilities of a business concern, identifying organizational certainties and challenges of execution, thinking in a creative and innovative manner, thinking critically and communicating clearly.

Fostering entrepreneurship is another challenge to the EMBA curriculum as it is needed by current day organizations to come forward with a breed of those managers who do understand their role in decision making capacities. Enterprise and entrepreneurship aspects are to be covered with a mix blend of flexibility and adaptability. Open labour markets are looking for those business graduates who can stand on their feet and think in a novel and innovative manner in a global setting (Anninos & Chytiris, 2012). Though, integrating or incorporating entrepreneurship into the EMBA curriculum is indeed a challenge; since, there has been and is still a sharp debate if entrepreneurial abilities can be incorporated and taught in and through a set syllabus as it is based upon behavioural modulation that varies from person to person (Dzathor, Mosley, & White, 2013). Incorporating an entrepreneurial attitude in curriculum is to be done through allied and varied psychological initiatives as interactive thinking frameworks, relationship building, socio-economic balancing, opportunities seeking, quick responding etc. (Pugalis, Liddle, Henry, & Marlow, 2014).

Most of the institutions have adopted institutionalized approach towards teaching which is exactly opposed to resilience and freedom. Flexibility and innovative thinking is required to develop a breed of those entrepreneurs whose skill development should be at par and reflective enough to counter uncertain market movements and crisis. Learning is an internalized process and unless students are given the desired flexibility, away from stringent and conventional teaching methods, to perform amidst ground realities that are all the way different from the world of books (Richardson, 2013).
Another important trend that is emerging in business schools is attaining legitimacy through various accreditations (Srivastava, 2014; Wilson & Thomas, 2012) so as to be competitive in the fast growing executive education market. Such accreditations provide the business schools with the needed competitive advantage where competition is on the rise (de Onzoño & Carmona, 2007; Piperopoulos & Dimov, 2015; Wilson, Kickul, & Marlino, 2007) and these accreditations have become such an integral facet of business schools that not only the private institutions seek such accreditations but also public sector organizations apply these quality improvement instruments in their business working. Accreditation bodies like Association for the Advancement of Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB), Southern Association of Colleges and Schools (SACS) etc. are pushing universities to provide evidence that their programmes are following international quality standards and are equipped to achieve the programmes’ stated goals (Thornton & Arbogast, 2012). The European Quality Improvement System (EQUIS) for example, clearly states that inspection team would require evidences from all university programmes, including Executive MBA programmes (EQUIS Accreditations hand book, 2013). The pursuit of such accreditations, therefore, requires universities to undertake exercises for determining the effectiveness of their programmes including the EMBA. It is required by business schools not only to identify and incorporate best practices from businesses into their curricula, but also revise it so as to balance both the academic and practical requirements of content building in emotional, social intelligence and cognitive competence levels which in turn would complement and contribute towards building entrepreneurial and leadership skills in managers through specialized programs like the EMBA. These programmes so far have tried to develop cognitive intelligence in the disciplines of decision making, marketing, strategic thinking, finance and information technology etc. They now have to give a deeper look to explore the key relationship between learning and good practices of leadership through a highly synthesized evaluation procedure in place. Han and Liang (2015) exhibited interesting findings in their research study that incorporated the experiences of EMBA students: they observed that most of the EMBA students planned to enter EMBA when they were passing through a transitional period in their professional and personal lives such as facing new challenges encompassing personal,
professional and self-conceptualized frameworks and the core outcomes of their EMBA were well connected networking, analysis based frame working, socializing, self-actualizing and self-detection.

Nonetheless, there has been some criticism on both the curriculum and the overall justification of EMBA programmes. Many human resource development (HRD) specialists and practitioners show serious concerns regarding the high cost involved in executive education and whether such costs have justified and helped managers to reduce their management knowledge gaps. It is evident from the fact that in the recent past, corporate sponsorships have dramatically declined in helping to fund EMBA programmes, resulting in students paying out of their own pockets (Dizik, 2008). Another criticism on the effectiveness of curriculum of MBAs and executive education stems from the global economic crises which asserted that MBAs have failed to predict and/or play any constructive role in the wake of this economic recession, because these programmes are not developing leaders who can deal with global challenges (Mingers, 2015). Furthermore, it is argued that MBAs focus on profit and share value instead of focusing on sustainability; hence their ability to help avoid economic downturns remains limited (Carroll & Buchholtz, 2014; Sidiropoulos, 2014). In another study Asik-Dizdar (2015) highlighted that the current stream of problems faced by major industries is because of the existing gap and disconnection between academic institution and management experts. He further exhibited three core areas that need immediate attention in order to establish a straight co-relation between industry and institution as relevance, soft analytical skills and legitimacy.

2.6. Expectations from Executive MBA Programmes

The Executive MBA programme fundamentally aims to satisfy organizational needs by transforming individuals into competent managers with leadership skills through customized and distinct curricula (Siegeert, 2008). The prime focus in rapidly changing circumstances is to develop natural leaders and primarily situational leaders who can be more adaptive and flexible in their decision making profiles and come through relational, rational and social perspectives (Edwards, Elliott, Iszatt-White,
Schedlitzki, 2013). However, meeting the diverse expectations of its various stakeholders (i.e. organizations, participants) has always been a tough challenge for the Executive MBA to face. The current challenge for the Executive MBA is to satisfy participants by meeting their objectives of development and rewards, and to satisfy organizations by providing them with effective and ethical managers/leaders. To do so executive education institutes are continuously innovating. Traditionally, universities are expected to build managerial competence to effectively carry out organizational goals. Contrary to that, contemporary organizations want managers to act as change agent and transform whole cultures. In the contemporary management practices, managers at all levels of organizations are being viewed as change agents, who are responsible for undertaking initiatives for sustainable development (Hill, 1971). Further to this, these managers are not only supposed to be ‘smart’ change agents but also smart enough to gel and incorporate new changes with related and relevant organizational functions and processes, so that a productive balance can be achieved and maintained all the times (Battilana & Casciaro, 2012). The design of new organizations being flatter, following a less hierarchical model increases the responsibilities of managers as soon as they start their career (Vicere & Graham, 1990). They are supposed to act more as leaders and less as managers in modern organizations as the structural changes and responsive cultures have made it imperative for new comers to be more pro-active, responsive and responsible than in the past (Acquaah, 2007; Bamel, Rangnekar, Stokes, & Rastogi, 2013). Empirical research has also shown that middle managers could also be change agents or change resistant, based on their mental orientation and organizational ability to engage them. It is, therefore, highly important for an organization to develop competencies and behaviours of their middle managers as future change agents (Thomas & Hardy, 2011).

Human capital theory suggests that there are expectations of both stakeholders i.e. employers as well as employees. Managers are expected to bring with them an enhanced perspective on business management along with the ability to handle dynamic situations presented to them at the workplace. They are required to have a sound understanding of all business functions as well as the strategic skills necessary for cross functional initiatives, challenging global markets and effective decision making as is
evident from human capital and strategy literature (Campbell, Coff, & Kryscynski, 2012). Correspondingly, companies want executive education to address some customized issues of organizations through education. Etzkowitz and Dzisah (2015) emphasize the collaborative efforts of companies and universities to develop company-tailored programmes to design both the selection criteria of participants and the curricula for the executive MBA.

Dizik (2008) has noticed that executive participants enjoy meeting with their classfellows and professors and networking with them. Participants also see their Executive MBA as a source to reduce the tension and stress which they are exposed to at their workplace because of escalating demands. Besides that, the Executive MBA is usually undertaken for financial gains as well as motivational reasons. Compensation has been found as one of the significant motivational factors for executive graduate participants as upon completion of their Executive MBA degree, they expect substantial salary increments along with promotions. The age group of a typical pool of participants reflects early to mid-career executives who are looking to fulfil both needs. This is perhaps a reason why Executive MBA programmes are offered as a retention mechanism, sponsored by large organizations. Apart from this, executive education might also serving to realize the self-esteem needs highlighted by Maslow’s hierarchical ‘pyramid’ of motivational needs, the fulfilment of which leads to self-actualization.

Today, the business education providers are expected to modify the curriculum in order to prepare prospective employees to foresee even ‘black swan’ events like the financial crisis (Gitsham & Lenssen, 2009). Such changes would require business education to emphasize corporate social responsibility and business ethics (Christensen, Peirce, Hartman, Hoffman, & Carrier, 2007). The focused and well thought-out curricula of business schools seem diverted towards objectivity and task orientation that encompasses profitability and financial gain; are we working towards robotics or do we leave a human being human? A sense of social responsiveness is to be integrated, assimilated and incorporated in curriculum so that a plausible balance can be obtained and business graduates can work keeping a border line of being ethically responsible, in their minds (Doh & Tashman, 2014). It would also include teaching risk management
with more attention on the low-cost strategies to deal with the repercussions of the financial crisis. (Berente, Howison, King, Cutcher-Gershenfeld, & Pennington, 2014) cite Conger and Xin (2000) to express that because of the changing scenario of the corporate world, the Executive MBA is expected to develop professionals who are innovative, learner-centered, and aware of the strategic needs of their organizations. The programme is further required to build individual potential in company specific latest technologies and management practices and hence, improve the current and future managerial performance (Crotty & Soule, 1997).

In summary, the Executive MBA is generally expected to provide participants with advanced and applicable knowledge and skills that should satisfy participants’ aspirations as well as companies’ needs. Today, an Executive MBA programme needs to be evaluated in terms of its focus to develop a link between theory and practice in a global perspective.

2.7. Benefits/Outcomes of the Executive MBA

According to Noe, Wilk, Mullen, and Wanek (2014) EMBA participants acquire important knowledge, new ways of thinking and looking at the problems with enhanced confidence. The future of every organization depends upon such managers who can efficiently and effectively cope with a complex and changing business environment. Hence, managers are trained in such a manner that they think more broadly, understand more comprehensively, and act in a more sophisticated manner. Executive education provides countless benefits to managers of organizations in terms of improved individual and team performance, superior networking at high levels between managers, development of new perspectives, ascertaining the latest and advanced materials and content which are taught by a highly qualified faculty having both corporate and academic experience. The idea is to inculcate “Training Transfer”. Since, there is no direct relationship found between training transfer and firm performance; more empirical evidence is required to support this view. Blume, Ford, Baldwin, and Huang (2010) in their research study prescribed that the core trainee traits such as cognitive
ability, conscientiousness, and motivation are in direct and linear connection with multiple workplace environmental outcomes such as learning transfer climate.

The significance and benefits of EMBA programmes can be seen from a different perspective. Although corporate sponsorships by organizations to fully fund their students have dropped down to a level where only 32% of executives are fully funded (Dizik, 2008). In his recent study, undertaken in California, Choi (2011a) reported that students are paying from their own pocket to attend such programmes because the benefits they perceive by attending such programmes outweigh the costs that are associated with it (Choi, 2011b). Such benefits include a higher return on investment in terms of proportionately higher increase in salaries and outright vertical promotions up the corporate ladder or better perks and compensations both in financial or non-financial terms. According to a survey conducted from graduate students, attending the EMBA programme in Cornell Business School, it was not only a transforming experience in terms of their aptitude and thinking on issues related to business development, but it also enhanced their confidence, motivation and self-esteem. These students reported that knowledge acquired; specially tacit knowledge, through the interactions between their cohorts who were already working at high career positions was extremely beneficial for them (Dizik, 2008) and the alumni network that they later on became a part of was considered as an instrumental asset on which to build. The family-like learning atmosphere helped them become better managers so as to identify the importance of working in teams by demonstrating true leadership abilities by placing a value on the people-assets of the organization.

Furthermore, for executives to build upon their business acumen, by undergoing critical thinking through better decision making, reflecting back on their career goals, objectives and coming to university and learning something new every day in terms of strategy and analytical abilities were hallmarks achieved during the course of an EMBA degree. Other benefits expected from executive education include increased new knowledge and skills (including technical knowledge, enhanced analytical and strategic skills and functional knowledge of the business), social networking (especially professional networks residing outside their own industries making connections with
other like-minded people) and career advancements (which not only included a higher salary but also faster job promotions along with other entrepreneurial opportunities), transfer of knowledge at the workplace, becoming strategically equipped to the challenges of globalization and leadership and finally a personal reflection on one’s own career goals and objectives so as to demonstrate a behavioural change required to achieve those goals.

Summing up the above discussion, EMBA students become effective leaders and managers by using their knowledge, intuitive judgments, learning and critical thinking acquired at universities. They do so by applying at workplace, what they learn at school.

### 2.8 Role of the Executive MBA in Managers’ Personal Development

In the above sections, I have discussed that the role of middle manager in an organization is diversified and multitasked and this diversified nature of the managerial role requires capacity development of managers to perform their assigned tasks and roles. The performance of managers is solely dependent upon the significance and value of their roles in the profitability and productivity of organization. In this section, aim is to look into the role of executive education in developing managerial capacity to perform expected roles in organizations.

The foremost link of this discussion can be related to human capital theory that undertakes advantages of education and training as an investment in human resources keeping fundamental the proposition that human resources are a form of capital in growth (Brymer, Molloy, & Gilbert, 2014). Highly competitive and economically shaken markets have pushed the firms to work extensively on developing strategically focused core competencies in order to gain sustainable competitive advantage and high return on capital based upon the consolidate cost-cutting measures (Schoemaker & Amit, 1994). These core competencies comprise (a) cost leadership (b) differentiation and (c) market niche (Porter, 1980), all the three angles of this triangle are directing towards the human side of organization and companies have realized/are realizing the need and importance of skilled and motivated people as key for operational efficiency (Ghoshal, 2005). The core need of an organization is to maintain its reputation all the
time in order to be sustainably referencing their competitive advantage (Amit & Schoemaker, 2012) and trust is the most significant competency for an organization in developing markets.

Today’s organizations are searching for those people who possess certain set of skills that is meant to be taken as required recipe to gain sustainable competitive advantage. Managers are main drivers of the organizations, and it is not an easy task being a manager to get people along towards the attainment of desired and set goals. Competency based strategy grounded upon a systematic framework enables the firm to improve overall performance on the basis of holistic assessment of people capabilities especially the ones performing managerial functions (Hsiao, Chen, Guo, & Hu, 2015). The success of competency based human resource development models is based upon the variables that were undertaken to develop such a model, and it is clear that these variables cannot claim to be universal and that they vary with reference to social context. In order to devise and drive a successful and balanced strategic model that ensures developmental advantages, experts need to work upon case-to-case basis (Gangani, McLean, & Braden, 2006).

Education facilitates information analysis and its application to solve problems and enable an individual to think independently keeping a prime focus on personal cognitive abilities and non-cognitive spheres as personal characteristics (Carneiro, Heckman, & Vyltacil, 2010). It is significant to consider that educational experiences influence personal traits of an individual, which includes behavioural patterns, skills, attitudes and thought cycles that enable a person to respond in specific ways as required by due circumstances. These personal traits are not stagnant and keep on transforming throughout the life of an individual and individual’s involvement in number of mental activities accelerates the process of traits transformation (Roberts, 2009).

The traits that are socially dominated; such as openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism tend to increase more (Zeigler-Hill, Southard, & Besser, 2014) and educational environments play a prominent role in this process of change (Donnellan, Conger, & Burzette, 2007). It can be shown that change in personal traits is a transactional process based upon experience and that there are
some specific experiences that affect the underlying set of traits within an individual, not all experiences are that powerful to bring change in these traits (Furr, 2009). Being in a specific atmosphere for a longer period of time leads to changes in traits, as it is not a single day process and group and environmental dynamics play a pivotal role in shaping up one’s personality. For instance, a manager being in a very competitive working environment needs to learn and act sharply as compared to a manager working in a relatively simple and stable condition. Managers learn new roles and skills as per requirements of the newly faced contexts. If these roles get repeated over longer period of time, they start effecting attitudes and behaviours of fellow individuals as captioned by Davenport and Harding (2010).

Executive education focuses upon the development of middle managers and draws out their inner potential through establishing the cognitive and non-cognitive abilities by focusing on personal development, organizational insight and working environments’ understanding. It is in fact about developing novel work identity within the cover of personal development and most of the executives across globe consider executive education as a way to gain their personal identity (De Vries & Korotov, 2007). Many ground breaking theories can be aligned to comprehend the concept of a healthy working environment based upon internal relationships. The most talked-about is servant leader relationship that is well endorsed by leading employers such as Starbucks, Ritz-Carlton and Service Master etc. Executive education is needed to drive its focus upon social competencies so that EMBA graduate can maintain their individual identity within the cross folds of organizational and social identity; their citizenship behaviour, innovation, creativity, relationship building, job satisfaction and organizational performance speak of themselves. The sharper preference is given to those who can act diversely in a multi-cultural and multi-lingual setup with confidence and composure (Sendjaya, 2015).

Organizational culture and design potentially have a big effect on the personality profile of these executives and they often feel an imbalance and dysfunction in their behavioural pattern that damages their overall personality cycle and hampers the process of personal development; in such a case they divert themselves towards
executive education programmes in order to refresh their knowledge and re-gain their confidence on a lasting basis (Aycan et al., 2000). They look for a branded and revolutionized new innovative agenda to survive in this highly demanding and rapidly changing corporate world, they want to save themselves against obsolesce of knowledge and do not want to meet their intellectual death (Hamel, 2002).

For personal development, one needs to take into account the emotional and cognitive processes as both of these processes replicate the mental tendency within an individual that enables him/her to act in accordance with the needs and circumstances. The psychological dimensions that are well addressed through third generation executive education programmes (transformational programmes), incorporates thinking coupled with inter-personal relationship and emotional state.

During the last couple of decades, business organizations have come across complex issues of globalization, technology development, information interchange and human resource capitalization and their changing roles have further aggravated the demand of executive education. In order to secure success in such a complex and intricate environment, managers cannot rely upon what they have learned in their undergraduate classes as there is an apparent gap between what they intellectually possess and what is required by their parent organization. They are well aware of the fact that their respective role in their organizations require them to be more innovative, informed, strong, composed and well versed with respect to problem solving and decision making. The sweeping change in managerial roles controls different tasks being performed by managers and if there is a balance between these two then eventually, benefit goes to the organization.

There is a clear line between the book value and financial value of the firms with clear capability enhancement approach as compared to those which do not work with this attitude; by and large middle managers are getting involved in educating themselves to get acquainted with the comprehensive set of required skills and illuminating them with prevailing and forthcoming corporate best practices. Not to end here, through these executives, organizations are buying solutions from the business schools that help them
develop their strategies and it increases the responsibility of graduate business schools to keep them up dated in accordance with changing needs of working organizations.

The EMBA aims to contribute by providing their graduating managers a vital return on investments through developing their personal skills in an objective manner. These programmes further quantify this set of skills (competency development) in the shape of desired output especially in terms of managerial and leadership roles undertaken by managers and skills needed to perform them from time to time (Boyatzis, 2008; Hough, Shulock, & Thanner, 2014). Management education and corresponding personal development has turned out to be the key in keeping an organization competitive in difficult and different circumstances; managers’ defined and diversified roles take an organization further and farther on the track of success and progress, as respective changes in their personalities as an outcome of the EMBA enable them to act more confidently and precisely in a desired fashion on lasting basis (Anninos & Chytiris, 2012; Longenecker & Ariss, 2002).

Since the point under discussion is role based performance of a manager through personal development; it must be considered that the behavioural modification of a manager plays a crucial role in acquiring a set of tasks done in a proper manner. Behavioural modification is based upon operant conditions that transform or replace undesirable behaviours with the most desirable ones through affirmative reinforcements. Executive education encourages managers to evaluate their own behaviours and through inculcating new and novel ideas it enables managers to get rid of those behaviours which hinder their job performance and career progression.

2.9. Concerns and Challenges Regarding the Efficacy of the Executive MBA

Despite the acknowledged contribution of Executive MBA education towards an individuals’ development, there still exist some controversies regarding its relevance and utility for organizations. The literature has addressed a number of challenges that an Executive MBA programme faces. However, a critical challenge as addressed by various scholars in literature is meeting the diverse demands of participants and
organizations. Dubas et al. (1998) are of the opinion that the objectives of executive education are usually derived from the contemporary problems of professionals and organizations. They further state that company sponsored programmes, consulting companies and corporate universities create an environment of competition. These competitors make it more important for executive education providers to rapidly adapt to the needs of the client in order to survive in practical world. Therefore Executive MBA programmes are most likely to undergo curriculum developments with respect to global competition and evolving corporate needs (Crotty & Soule, 1997; Noronha, Tou, Cynthia, & Guan, 2013). The former will require the Executive MBA to develop executive courses with global focus while the later will require developing appropriate skills in executives to tackle diversity issues; finding new markets in the global village and developing suitable strategies for survival in a globally competitive market (Czinkota & Johansson, 2015; Mann & Staudenmier, 1991). These evolving needs will further emphasize the need for training the executives to focus on customer needs and managing successful implementation of organizational change wherever required (Executive Development Associate Survey, 1993). The business schools round the globe are in a flux to address two different frames of understanding: one comes from research community and other comes from business community and it seems difficult if not impossible to take both of them on board in one mode of study (Lockhart, 2013).

Organizational change is determined largely by the need to increase productivity and performance. The concerns of organizations for such outcomes in turn demand educational institutes to include methods and techniques based on hands on learning (Bwegyeme & Munene, 2015; Dotlich & Noel, 1998). On the other hand, the cost of university executive education has made it inaccessible for a large number of managers who seek to cope with rapidly changing corporate practices. Universities had been criticized for accepting admissions for Executive MBA programmes without setting standards and using it as a source of earning (Byrne, 1991; Scofield & Walsh, 2011).

It is pertinent to mention here that, in context of executive education in Pakistan, that specific research is not readily available; therefore the relevance of skills development and executive education is established in the light of relevant foreign studies. In the
1990s, business schools were quite flexible in making the executive MBA comprising of specialized courses and customized formats to meet market demands. EMBA programs have also been criticized for being a weaker version of standard MBA programme which undermines the credibility of standard MBA program as well (Scofield & Walsh, 2011). Graduates find it difficult to transfer their enhanced normative broader perspective to organizations where no structural change has taken place but also face resistance from those who could not benefit the executive training or education (Sasson & Dori, 2012; Subedi, 2004).

A number of challenges seem to arise in dealing with mid-life transition. First, a greater awareness of the organizationally-relevant features of transition is required, as it applies to all employees. However, few organizations have manifested an awareness of mid-life transition in specific informational or experiential programmes. Some useful attention has been given to career planning, but these newly-won beachheads require major expansion. This neglect is especially troublesome because many organizations are characterized by waves of employment. Given recent hiring practices in colleges and universities that added numerous young and highly-trained teaching scholars, for example, large proportions of many faculties soon will be coming into the mid-life transition together. Organizationally-sponsored attention to transition phenomena thus could be important not only to faculty, but also to their employing organizations, students, and families.

This is the reason why continuing education programme applicants have certain expectations governed by these perceptions. They view these programmes as an opportunity for additional human capital improvement which will be used if certain organizational changes aim to take advantage of it. It is capital formation that may or may not come in handy during their professional careers which is why it is becoming very important for executive MBA programmes to ‘attract’ this ‘consumer’ base by at least ‘appearing’ to offer much more than what it might in fact be capable of delivering. With a surplus of private and public universities offering executive MBA programme, it has become difficult for universities to establish and maintain their competitive edge.
Chapter – 3: Professional Development and Executive Education in Pakistan

Since the focal point of this study is Pakistan, in this section, discussion is diverted towards Pakistan in an evolutionary manner. The sole and principal aim of this discussion is to frame a concrete rationale for this research work and further to highlight the grey patches in significant areas regarding executive education with a particular focus on the EMBA.

3.1 The Role of Education in Professional and Socio-Economic Development in Pakistan

Education plays a fundamental role in personal and professional development of an individual. In the socio-economic development of a country, many problems and issues track their roots in those societies where education is given the least importance. The new growth theory (Domingos & Hulten, 2000) seems very vocal in describing economic performance of developing countries and suggests that one of the causes is lack of training, backwardness in education and questionable advancement in knowledge based initiatives (Hibbard, Kumar, & Stern, 2001).

Skills development is based upon education that affects the economic progress of the overall society. In the case of Pakistan; it can easily be observed that those districts where the literacy level is considerably higher are showing faster development as compared to the ones where education is given less or least significance. The high fragmentation and segmentation in the education system of Pakistan present a difficult situation, especially the quality of higher education appears questionable and the main reason was not the role of higher institutions but the initial schooling system that was not playing its part in a manner in which it was supposed to (Frey & Nguyen-Quang, 2000). Pakistan thus missed many economic opportunities in the past that were undertaken by other developing countries of the region; low enrolment rate and quality of education leave Pakistan’s labour force vulnerable in international markets.
3.2 The Higher Education Scenario in Pakistan

As an outcome of the economic liberalization policies of the 1980’s, Pakistan witnessed a major shift in its focus on professional development and higher education. However, the situation for Pakistan’s national human capital is still very bleak and depressing. Despite the re-appearance of private educational institutes in the shadow of the military (1977-86) government’s policy of denationalization, the demand for higher educational institutes has far exceeded its supply. However, contrary to the proven increase in demand for higher education, the federal budget allocation for higher education has drastically decreased. Until 2001, Pakistan was among the countries where spending on education was less than two per cent of its GDP.

In 2002, The Higher Education Commission (HEC) was established to meet 21st Century’s challenges of developing intellectual human capital by restructuring of higher education sector in Pakistan. The Commission established a Medium Term Development Framework for Higher Education (MTDF-HE) outlining the intellectual development preference for 2005-2010. It aimed to achieve the following;

I. Increase the quality and relevance of education and research

II. Easy availability of higher education

III. Orientation of good governance and higher education management

IV. Increase the feasibility of financial investments in higher education

V. Integrating higher education institutes with national policy in order to develop national human capital

The Commission has achieved substantial milestones in terms of enhancing the number of higher education institutes, the quantity and quality of educational programmes, the number of students produced, and enhancing the student-faculty ratio etc. An overview of HEC’s performance in different areas can be seen below.
<table>
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<tr>
<th>Overview of HEC, Pakistan Performance</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Higher Education Institutions</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>2006</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>118</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Enrolments</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>521473</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Enrolment Male %</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>59.15</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Enrolment Female %</strong></td>
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<td>40.85</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>PhD Faculty</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2686</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Non PhD Faculty</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9192</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>PhD Faculty %</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>22.6</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Graduate Produced</strong></td>
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<td>380995</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>PhD Enrolment in Local Uni</strong></td>
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<td>X</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>PhD Graduates from Local Uni</strong></td>
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However, according to the Task Force Report (2000) on the performance of HEC in Pakistan, the higher education system has a plethora of problems. Despite its exclusive focus on higher education, the Commission could not cope up with problems of institutions’ structure, quality of education, design and delivery of educational services, and lack of funding. These factors have long hindered the development of an educated and skilled cadre of professionals. At national level the poor academic and research culture along with lack of progressive thinking in government policies has also contributed to this academic fragility (Batool & Qureshi, 2007).

Pakistan on the whole has not given due attention to the development of human capital and as a consequence the country is facing severe shortages of skilled human capital necessary for its economic development and sustainability. The Development of a skilled and knowledgeable workforce has become a major challenge for a country facing challenges such as finding efficient alternative energy sources, improving agricultural produce to feed growing populations and understanding other cultures that must co-exist in the global village would require individuals with higher education (HEC Statistical Information Unit : 2008-09). The trickledown effect of country’ skills
shortage has created challenges for public and private organizations to acquire, develop, and retain competent and productive employees.

In order to capitalize on this substantial skills gap, various private as well as public universities have been offering higher education to a larger number of students. Since the demand of higher education is continuously increasing, the government of Pakistan is encouraging the private sector to take part in higher education (Halai, 2013). University-based executive education has gained popularity during the last few years in Pakistan and a large number of educational institutes are offering such programmes. However, the issues faced by executive education in Pakistan are many. Inexperienced faculty members, varying quality of participants, declining job market, and poor research work in local context are some of the core problems.

3.3 The Structure of the Executive MBA in Pakistan

Executive MBA degree programmes are being offered by various institutes in Pakistan with quite varying curricula and programme structure for the last couple of decades. However, after the inception of the Higher Education Commission (HEC), the curriculum and structure of business degrees in general and the Executive MBA in particular has been standardized and well regulated. The National Curriculum Revision Committee (NCRC) in Business Administration was established by HEC to analyse and address the higher degrees curriculum and academic issues. In July 2007, the committee set certain minimum standards for Executive MBAs including eligibility/admission criteria, the duration of the programme, number of credit hours etc. As per NCRC’s decision, every HEC’s recognized institute will offer minimum two years of regular Executive MBA study comprising of four semesters with requirement of 66 to 72 credit hours. Since the Executive MBA programme was exclusively designed to fulfil industry and professionals’ needs, admission criteria was set to the previous academic qualification and professional experience of applicants. Individuals with a minimum 14 years education with 2nd division or 45% marks on the final transcript, and having a minimum two years of valid job/work experience are eligible to apply. However, admission is granted on the basis of the university’s internal entry test and interviews.
In 2012, the Curriculum Division of HEC called a special meeting to discuss aims, objectives, and the curriculum of business administration degree programmes in Pakistan (HEC Report, 2012). The Division established some basic aims and objectives for Masters level degrees in business administration. For instance, it was decreed that every Master level business degree will aim at developing intellectual ability, executive personality and managerial skills among participants. In order to do so the curriculum should be based upon global as well as indigenous management practise stemming from general management education to specialization in diverse business fields. General management skills, like oral and written communication, decision-making, ethical leadership, and teamwork ability were identified as core outcomes of this degree programme. It was also discussed that the curriculum of such executive level education should encompass diverse range of theoretical and technological concepts to develop among participants’ critical thinking skills and an ability to define their roles in organizations by understanding strategic contexts and the changing environment.

In Pakistan, the recognition of university/institutes from HEC counts a lot when it comes to recruitment and hiring in job market. Public organizations across the board and private organization to a major extent consider only those candidates who have HEC recognized degrees. The HEC also regularly assess and publish ranking of higher institutes in Pakistan. Ranking is made in the light of dozens of performance indicators which HEC sets for higher education institutes to ensure and enhance quality of education. HEC’s ranking of institutions plays a vital role in enabling candidates to be a preferred choice of organizations and to seek relatively higher salary package. These factors force higher education institutes in Pakistan to comply with the standards and procedures set by the HEC in order to increase their ranking, acceptability, and market worth. HEC has also forced educational institutions to establish an internal quality assurance system and to submit periodic reports to HEC regarding the effectiveness of respective institutes to meet quality standards. In case of the Executive MBA programme, universities/institutes offering such programmes usually follow HEC’s criteria regarding the curriculum and other elements of degree programmes. Although, diversity exists in terms of class room teaching and methodology, because of HEC
regulation Executive MBA degree programmes have largely been standardized in Pakistan.

3.4 An Overview of National and International EMBA Landscape

The educational landscape of Pakistan is marked by decades of neglect and low spending on this pivotal constituent of economic and social development. According to a recent Economic Survey (2014-15), Pakistan stands lowest in the region in terms of public expenditure on education to GDP ratio. The total budgetary allocation for education by the Government of Pakistan in the last decade hovers around 2 percent of GDP, which is far less than its regional counterparts like Bhutan (4.9 percent), Iran (4.7%), Maldives (8.0%), and India (3.2%) (UNESCO, 2015). In the higher education, recent estimates show that there are 161 public and private sector universities in the country, with approximately 78000 teachers and 1.80 million students enrolled in higher education. This figure of 1.8 million is estimated by the government on the basis of 12.5% increase over the corresponding period of last financial year (i.e. 2013-14). In its vision 2030, the current government, has appreciated the role of education in social and economic development, and has pledged its commitment to comply with Millennium Development Goals of United Nations by increasing public expenditures on education to 4.0 percent of GDP by the year 2018 (Commison, 2014). The government has also announced that it will ensure proper and timely utilization of the allocated funds, and improvement in standards of quality.

Historically, higher education in Pakistan was organized as a two years Bachelors programme, two years master’s programme, two years MPhil programme and subsequently three years education for PhD degree. A student had to undergo fourteen years of education, in total, to become a ‘graduate’ in this system. However, with the establishment of the Higher Education Commission of Pakistan (HEC) in 2002, it was reckoned that worldwide universities offer four year programmes at bachelors’ level, requiring sixteen years of education. Accordingly, HEC encouraged Pakistani universities to adopt the same system and offer four year programmes for the bachelors’ degree. The following is the concurrent road map for higher education, which HEC has
approved. The road map explicates the previous education requirement for obtaining a masters level degree from universities, which could be MS or MBA, for the business students.

![Diagram of Roadmap for Business Administration Education]

Source: Higher Education Commission of Pakistan (www.hec.gov.pk)

There is a wide agreement among local and international experts that changes introduced by the Higher Education Commission in the curriculum and road map for higher education have reinvigorated the education sector of Pakistan with improved quality, research outlook and global orientation. Understandably, with revision of the road map of higher education, the requirements for Executive MBAs have also been changed for the EMBA and now universities are required to follow the following regulations set by HEC:

“The MBA Executive program shall be of two years, regular study of four semesters and 66-72 credit hours as minimum standard. To be eligible a student must have 14 years’ education with minimum second division (50% marks) with at least four years’ experience at managerial level. Students must also pass the admission test of the respective university. The change in the road map for students by HEC, offering different tracks to different students based on their previous education, is the most obvious innovation that has been brought into EMBA education in Pakistan. The changes were
suggested after extensive deliberations by the HEC’s Advisory Committee for Curriculum Development”.

The role of advisory committees for designing road-maps and curriculum of EMBA has been acknowledged in many countries of the world. According to Kilcrease (2011) the increasing pressure of competitiveness on universities for EMBA programmes has pressed them to engage professionals and experts as advisory board members and seek their insight of industry in designing and delivering EMBA curriculum. Similarly, Rose and Stiefer (2013) suggested that advisory councils for executive education are highly valuable for the programme quality because it not only brings diversified knowledge, practical insights and experience to the programmes but also provides external’s point of view about the program, its perception and scope in the market.

On the other hand, there are also some concerns that advisory councils tend to imitate curriculum and programme structures from other universities; which in juxtaposition to standardized requirements of accreditation bodies might create isomorphism in EMBA, making all programmes similar to each other. While this concern could be generalized to almost all educational disciplines; there is a need to understand that accreditation systems emphasize standards, not homogeneity. For instance, AACSB explicitly states that its standards allow programmes to be unique and innovative, and meeting standards does not mean being similar to other programs (AACSB guide).

Another important initiative of HEC regarding the Executive MBA is imposition of eligibility criteria for admission. A minimum of fourteen years of education with at least 2nd division (50% marks) and four years of work experience at managerial cadre has been made essential for securing admission in EMBA. Moreover, each university is required to set an Entry Test of the candidates for admission. Though the scope and rigor of entry tested vary across universities, the primary focus of the test is to gauge candidates in terms of their language, analytical and arithmetic capabilities. The suggested format and pattern of the entry test is similar to Graduate Management Admission Test (GMAT) which shows HEC’s commitment to raise level of quality of education up to international standards. The importance of using GMAT as a valid and reliable selection tool can be assessed as the Executive MBA Council presented
“Bud Fackler Service Award” to GMAC for the valuable service rendered by GMAC towards promoting quality in EMBA education through its testing services (GMAT) (GMAC, 2004). Accordingly, it can be concluded that HEC Pakistan’s new criteria of selecting students on the basis of admission test (which is local adoption of GMAT) is a cogent criteria.

The Higher Education Commission (HEC) Pakistan has also imposed experience as a compulsory criterion for the EMBA and as per current policy a minimum of two years of experience is essential for enrolment in the EMBA programme. This condition is also in accord with the experience criterion of the EMBA across the globe. According to the latest report of Executive MBA Council (2014), the average prior experience of enrolled students in the EMBA programmes of council’s member institutions is 13.7 years, with over 8 years of experience at a managerial level. HEC Pakistan has also suggested that business schools should give preference to those applicants of EMBA who have experience at managerial level. However, in comparison to international standards two years requirement still remains at the bare minimal level.

The low admission requirements for the EMBA in Pakistan do not bode well for its stakeholders. An easy admission criterion is one of the main reasons that HR professionals, in many parts of the world, have started to view the EMBA as less robust in comparison to regular MBAs. They see the EMBA as lighter version of MBA on account of relatively less workload and easy admission requirements than MBAs. According to AACSB report, many universities in USA have softened their admission requirement for EMBA, while some have even dropped the requirement of GMAT. The report showed that only two of the major six EMBA programmes in New York now require GMAT for admission. Relaxed admission requirements and rigor, and EMBA as revenue earning potentials by universities are the factors that have augmented the concerns of EMBA’s role in business performance. The increasing expectation from EMBA and growing negative perception of its rigor substantiates the need to study employer’s perceptions about the effectiveness of EMBA in harnessing student’s abilities to perform desired roles in organizations.
Some critics have argued that the Executive MBA programmes have been used by universities as cash cows. They argue that business schools have been charging high tuition fees; partially because working professionals were in better position to pay then professional students, and partially because in many of the instances EMBA students were sponsored by their employer organizations. Since sponsored students had to work with funding organization for a certain period of time, the universities did not need to put much effort in providing career services to EMBAs. Following the success of the first ever Executive MBA program of University of Chicago, launched in 1943, corporate organization themselves have been approaching universities to send their employees for part-time business management degrees. Consequently, universities have been able to charge a premium price for the EMBA from these organizations. Moreover, even those mid-career professionals who didn’t have sponsorship became willing to invest time and money in EMBA programs as this particular degree was endorsed and appreciated by corporate sector, and was manageable along with their job.

Another criticism of the EMBA is related to educational qualification requirement to get enrolled in EMBA. Since business schools accept undergraduate degrees in any discipline for qualifying for the EMBA, the critics argue that this may create deficiency among candidate with regard to their understanding of business (Kavanagh, Hancock, Segal, Howieson, & Kent, 2010). However, business schools claim that EMBA programmes are targeted to augment skills and abilities of those participants who have at least two year of working experience, area and relevance of previous education does not abate their ability of learning and performance. This also explains the reason that GMAT comprises of sections which test EMBA applicant for their language, mathematic and logic skills, rather than screening any field/subject related knowledge.

Owing to the phenomenal growth in the EMBA industry, in 1981 an Executive MBA Council was formed with an objective to serve as prime platform for EMBA stakeholders. Over the years, the demand as well as increase in price of EMBA has been accelerating. Recent researches in executive education have furnished convincing evidences that increasing competition among leading business schools all over the world have paved the way for accelerating tuition fee of high demand ‘cash-cow’
degrees like MBA and EMBA (Mazzarol & Soutar, 2012). This hike in prices of Executive MBAs and other degree programmes has been read by many critics as academic capitalism (Alajoutsijärvi, Juusola, & Siltajoja, 2013).

Another criticism on EMBA programs is their failure to develop ethical standards among the participants. Recent corporate scandals, especially those characterized by unethical decision making by the executives have put business education, including Executive MBAs, under question with regard to business ethics. While Business Ethics, in some form, is essential part of every executive MBA programme, persistent unethical accounts of executive behaviour leave much to say about the effectiveness of these courses. Initial research efforts in this regard have highlighted the need to include dedicated business ethics courses in EMBA curriculum and to promote ethical standards of EMBA graduates. At present, inclusion of ethics in curriculum and overall focus of institutes on the ethical aspects of graduates have become the accrediting standard of most accrediting bodies like AACSB (Lowrie & Willmott, 2009; Miles, Hazeldine, & Munilla, 2004; Schoenfeldt, McDonald, & Youngblood, 1991; Swanson, 2005).

As summarized above, since its inception HEC has undertaken a number of initiatives for higher education development in the country, including the revision of curriculum and admission criteria for the EMBA. The perennial problems faced by the education sector are multifaceted and would require many more resources and time to get to the world class standards. The foremost problem in this regard is lack of data and credible research about various facets of higher education. For instance there is no central database available, either within HEC or any other government department, where specific details about programmes like MBA, EMBA, MS etc., could be found. The only exception in this regards is PhD programmes about which HEC has been able to develop an initial but robust database. The absence of monitoring and evaluation mechanism and the resultant lack of data about the institutions’ actual practices and its economic and social impact make it a daunting task for researchers and policy makers to gauge the effectiveness of these programmes.

In view of the foregoing, it has been an unresolved obstacle to obtain data and information about the innovative features and strategies of local universities for their
Similarly, while the GMAC report (2014) shows an increased trend of EMBA applications worldwide with a 45% jump as compared to 2013 (Bruggeman, 2014); despite all possible efforts information about the number of currently enrolled EMBAs and related trends in Pakistan could not be found. Such paucity of information not only encumbers research efforts but also makes it difficult to make informed decisions and policies by policy makers in the country. Pakistan, however, is not an exception in this regards, as a similar situation is found in most developing countries of the world. Nonetheless, with the recent focus of the HEC and government on research oriented degrees like MS and PhD in Pakistani universities, a few initial efforts have been made by researchers to identify the unique features, problems and outcomes of executive education and EMBA programmes in the country.

In an initial attempt towards a baseline study of executive education in Pakistan, Tahir, Saleem, and Bashir (2009) identified that the core purpose of education, in both the public and private sector institutions, was to upgrade quality and relevance of graduating students so that they could make effective decisions at their respective levels of work. The focus on relevance underscores the fact that while professionals learn and broaden their capacity through their experience at work, they also need formal and contemporary education and training to be abreast with the changing dynamics of the world. For instance, in the wake of globalization and Chinese investment coming into Pakistan, the decision makers (professionals) tend to build their capacity for dealing and managing much broader stakeholder groups. EMBA programmes in Pakistan, thus, are striving to adopt a global orientation and provide participants with exposure of business dynamics in multiple countries.

The global orientation of the EMBA has become a hallmark of top ranking EMBAs in the world. According to the recently issued ranking (December 2014) of the Financial Times, all top Five EMBA programmes in the world are being offered in partnership with the leading universities from different countries of the world. Moreover, all the top EMBA programs have an explicit global or regional focus. First in this ranking is TRIUM Global EMBA, which offers educational modules to its student in London, New York, China, France, and India. The second best EMBA is offered by the Kellogg
School of Management in collaboration with Hong Kong’s University of Science and Technology, having a focus on Asia. The third best rated EMBA also has an Asian focus and is being offered jointly by Tsinghua University School of Economics and Management and INSEAD. The programme is offered in China, France, Singapore and Abu Dhabi. Fourth on the list is the EMBA programme of University of California Los Angeles (UCLA) in partnership with National University of Singapore (NUS). This programme also has a focus on Asian markets. The fifth rated EMBA is also being run in partnership – between Columbia Business School and London Business School with greater global focus of American and European markets.

Another well-known EMBA ranking is that of Bloomberg Business. According to the 2013 ranking of Bloomberg the five top EMBA programmes in the world are being offered by Kellogg School of Management, Northwestern University; Booth School of Business, University of Chicago; Cox School of Business, Southern Methodist University; The Wharton School, University of Pennsylvania; and Los Angeles Anderson School of Management, University of California, respectively. Columbia Business School, University of Columbia stands at sixth position in this ranking. EMBAs offered by Kellogg School of Management, and Columbia Business School are included in both the rankings. Besides these two, EMBAs of remaining four business schools also embrace a global orientation as their foremost innovation for meeting the emerging challenges for EMBA. Residential, semester abroad, study visits, multi-country programs, cross country university collaborations, and a focus on emerging economies etc. are key facets of these global EMBA programs.

A corresponding trend of ‘globalizing’ EMBA program can be found across leading higher education institutions of the world. According to the Executive MBA Council (2014), the global perspective has become a thrust of EMBA programmes in the majority of the council’s member institutions. The latest 2014 survey of member institutions of the Council shows over 93% of member EMBA programmes are offering international trips to students – an average which is 9% higher as compared to 2013 survey. Moreover the survey reported that most attractive destinations for EMBA student exposure include China, United Stated of America, Brazil, and India. Pakistan,
however, is yet to offer an EMBA programme which is jointly managed by universities from different countries of the world. Although globalization of Executive MBA is not considered as the key success factor, however, as discussed above, the top five EMBA programmes are global in their curriculum and exposure. This trend may continue in future making global orientation as essential component of EMBA programmes.

An important debate in this regard encompasses increasing trend of standardization of MBAs and Executive MBAs, across the world. Many argue that this standardization is essentially an Americanization phenomenon, which started making inroads in Europe after World War II and was lately adopted in other parts of the world (Kaplan, 2014). Being helpful in post war economic recovery in Europe (Kieser, 2004), the American Business Education planted its roots in European countries. Williams (2010) noted that Great Britain and Spain have been more forthcoming towards this trend, whereas France and Germany have adopted it with some resistance (McGlade, 1998). Another important factor in this regards has been an early establishment of an accreditation institution in the US, called Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) which enabled US based business schools to standardize their business model. Soon AACSB became one of the most, if not most, prestigious accreditation for business schools not only in the US but all across the world. The standardization promoted by AACSB accreditation, in 746 accredited business schools in 51 countries of the world, has thus contributed to Americanization of business education.

Lately, there have been efforts to offset this Americanization trend in Europe by developing new regional standards of business education. The advent of AMBA standards by UK Association of MBAs is considered landmark initiative in this regards. AMBA accreditation curbed the Americanization trend in the MBA and promoted standards tailored to UK’s unique economic and business landscape. At a broader level a similar initiative was undertaken in 1997 by the establishment of a European accreditation body called EQUIS (European Quality Improvement System). The move towards Europeanization of business education also got strengthened by Bologna process – an agreement by European Union to ensure comparability of education standards and promote exchange of students within EU member countries. Some
experts see the establishment of EMBA and EQUIS as part of the emancipation of Europe from the domination of the US business education system (Kaplan, 2014). A similar effort could be seen in South Asia where South Asian Quality Assurance System (SAQS) has been introduced by Association of Management Development Institute in South Asia (AMDISA) to promote contextual elements in quality standards of business education.

In Pakistan, business schools are open to get benefits of either one or all accreditations such as AMBA, EQUIS, AACSB and SAQS. Recently, a National Business Education Accreditation Council (NBEAC) has also been setup under the aegis of Higher Education of Pakistan. The importance of getting accreditations is expanding in Pakistan and the majority of business schools have already acquired NBEAC accreditation and SAQS accreditation, whilst many are in process to apply for AMBA, EQUIS and AACSB. The orientation of Pakistani business schools is, therefore, becoming more globalized instead of simply adapting to American business education standards.

A study conducted in University of Faisalabad, Pakistan found that MBA and Executive MBA are the most popular choice of business students because they perceived it to be most pertinent degree for sharpening and broadening their skills and hence serving as a tool for career progression (Saba, Mahmood, Khalid, & Aslam, 2011). The study incorporated a case method to explore the perceived effect of a business degree on the development of skills and career trajectory. The students were reported to perceive that the EMBA had built their personalities by providing them with new skills. This study is also consistent with the globally recognized importance of a focus on skill building in executive MBA graduates. As noted by most of business schools in the world have reinvigorated their EMBA programs by introducing an integrated curriculum that provides students with multidisciplinary views, and focuses on performance expectations and skills. Roglio and Light (2009) have also emphasized the need to revamp executive education programmes to equip students with the necessary skills for dealing with the real world challenges.
The most important skills that EMBA programme is designed to inculcate among students is analytical and decision making skills. Moreover, since EMBA programmes are meant for preparing middle tier executives to go to the next levels of their career and assume leadership roles, these programmes have an explicit focus on enhancing leadership capabilities of students. A study by Vohra, Rathi, and Bhatnagar (2015) has summarized various methods being used by universities to augment leadership skills in EMBA students. The study found that innovative methods for this purpose included experiential exercises, feedback-seeking exercises and outdoor training programs. Comparing internationally, the expectations from the EMBA programmes in Pakistan are not much different as, according to literature, in almost every country of the world working professionals intend to earn the EMBA degree hoping that it will enhance their skills and help them progress in their career (Wellman, Gowan, & White, 2006). Furthermore, while innovation has been undertaken in the curriculum and road-maps (as in the case of Pakistan), information technology has provided a platform for an innovative mode of education in all academic fields, including the EMBA. Hussain (2012) in his study examined the effect of the instructional paradigm from the learner’s perspective and found that learning activities like cases, assignment and projects are considered useful in developing managerial capacity and confidence among students.

While the expectations of stakeholders regarding outcome and design of the EMBA programme are changing internationally, these programmes remain popular among both the client organizations as well as professionals aiming to improve education and career prospects. According to EMBAC’s report published in 2014, there exists a global increase in organizations and students’ interest in the EMBA programmes. The need for competitiveness in EMBA, however, goes beyond providing students with the opportunity to study and get exposure to different countries. Some scholars have argued that instigating cross country EMBAs, has limited the choice of many professional to do an EMBA because they cannot participate in programmes which require long overseas travel on account of their employer’s demand and family problems (Schuster, 1993). Others have suggested that cross country travel is one out of many possible and desired innovations in EMBA. These innovations may include cases on international business, guest speakers from specific regions, country analyses, update curriculum, and capacity
building of local faculty to cover foreign-exposure portion for the students (Allen & Young, 1997). According to a recent report by Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB), the EMBA programmes have witnessed two major changes during the last couple of decades. Firstly, there has been a decline in company sponsorship of EMBAs. As shown by 2014 survey of Executive MBA Council (EMBAC), 24.6 percent of total EMBA enrolled students in member institutions were on full support by their organization, whereas 39.8 percent students were self-financed. Secondly, the expectations of current EMBA students have moved from a skill improvement objective to promotion seeking objective.

In initial attempts to study EMBAs in Pakistan, researchers have been more oriented towards EMBA students’ perception and problems with regard to their program. However, the perspective of clients — organizations which fund their employees for Executive MBA or provide better career opportunities to EMBA graduates —, has faced relative neglect. In a somewhat related study Ahmed, Nawaz, Khoso, Arif, and Palwishah (2014) included EMBAs in their sample, along with professionals working in banks and Fast Moving Consumer Goods companies (FMCGs) in Pakistan, to explore the link between competitive intelligence and marketing effectiveness in Pakistan. The study reported that market intelligence is important for Pakistani organizations in making marketing strategies; however, it did not present results drawn from respondents having the EMBA. The present study, therefore, is the very first attempt in Pakistan to evaluate effectiveness of EMBA with perspective of employers.

3.5 Challenges and Concerns Regarding the Executive MBA in Pakistan

Pakistan remains focused on maintaining macroeconomic stability, growth, mobilizing domestic resources and increasing exports, balanced regional development and providing safety nets for vulnerable groups. Despite numerous challenges, the economy performed better in 2011-12 than many developed economies, (Finance, 2011-12). However, it is exposed to regional and global challenges at many frontiers, as the worst and negative geo-political situations, energy crisis and related problems leave very little room for a commercial organization to maintain the curve of survival and growth.
Industries and companies across the country need managerial staff, especially at the middle management tier with the help of whom they can succeed in the face of high business turbulence. Organizations develop these managers either by directly hiring from recognized institutions across Pakistan, or by giving required qualification to their junior managers through sponsoring executive education. Since, the managerial labour market in Pakistan is short of skilled and trained middle-level managers, the role of educational institutions in honing industry specific knowledge and skills becomes crucial. However, the main concern which arises in this regard is the ability of educational institutes in translating and transforming the needs and wants of the industrial and services sector into action. Educational institutions are expected to provide industry with the skilled human capital but unfortunately, their role gets questioned when industry feels that they are producing their end product (students) in the market without analysing the needs and demands of industry (Abbasi, Malik, Chaudhry, & Imdadullah, 2011). Although specific research is not readily available in Pakistan, educational institutes are criticized for their lack of research orientation and provision of curriculum and teaching methods that seem highly disconnected from the market (Memon, 2007).

The requirement of the industry is to be addressed by the institutions in a joint effort. Universities produce graduates and industry accommodates them and measures their quality at work as they are the ones who pay the price (Karatepe, Yavas, & Babakus, 2005) and employers closely focus upon desired set of skills as intellectual, personal, social and professional development skills (Raza, Majid, & Zia, 2010). In another study, an attempt was made to find out the perception of employers with reference to these four skills and the findings indicated that the employers were not fully satisfied with the quality of university graduates (Raza & Naqvi, 2011). There could be many reasons for this dissatisfaction, such as poor faculty performance, curriculum, and individual student’s commitment etc. however, the findings of this study revealed the need for an improvement in teaching process of these universities in which teachers play a pivotal role.
EMBA programmes that are being offered in Pakistan claim to provide working managers with the prospect of elevating their skills and qualifications, even though working in a progressively modest business environment (HEC Annual Report 2009-2010). The duration of the EMBA program in Pakistan ranges from 24 to 36 months and classes are held in the evenings thereby allowing in-service managers to undertake this academic up-skilling with ease. EMBA programmes in Pakistan are intended to deliver in-service managers with complete exposure to management theory and applied skills so that they can turn out to be better professionals, active front-runners, accomplished managers and more industrious organizational members. There is a need to look in depth at the disjunction of what is claimed by universities and the reception of graduates by industry.

The Institute of Business Administration (IBA) Pakistan, the state of the art business institution in Pakistan, recently signed a MoU with University of Maryland and at the signing ceremony; both the institutional heads expressed deep concern over growing industrial requirements and need for skills development on the part of business schools in Pakistan and leading global institutions. There are number of reasons and factors that hinder the performance of business schools in Pakistan and the concern of industry and stake holders is not being addressed properly as they are using out-dated syllabi, lack of research facilities, less training opportunities for working faculty and weak ties between academia and industry.

The intellectual frontier needs overhauling too, instead of teaching what is taught at Harvard and other business schools round the globe, the need is to create a business sense and value among students of business education in Pakistan. In order to bridge the lag between industry and the institutions more and more business professionals must be taken on board so that they may share life time experience with students. If critical thinking ability, leadership acumen and corporate culture understanding is not inculcated in executive business students then the production of such graduates will not further the cause of corporate Pakistan.
Chapter – 4: Perspectives on Managerial Performance Measurement: 
Towards Role Based Performance Measurement

4.1 Chapter Overview:
As the following literature review delineates, there are multiple perspectives of performance measurement. Two fundamental questions in this regards have been “what to measure” and “how to measure”. In the following section, a review of major perspectives on managerial performance has been made. Subsequently, rational and pertinence of role based performance management have been discussed.

4.2 What to Measure? Executive MBA Outcomes
A sharp shift can be witnessed in industrial performance measurement standards, as measuring productivity is not any more the focus of performance measurement as scores of other rapidly changing factors are influencing individual performance (Ghalayini & Noble, 1996). The prime focus of individual performance measurement in current settings is to collect, index and report information regarding overall work behaviour of an individual. Gamble, Strickland, and Thompson (2007) propose four specific perspectives that constitute a framework to measure individual performance: customer perspective, internal business perspective, innovation and learning perspective and the financial perspective.

In line with R. S. Kaplan and Norton (2007) performance measurement framework, most of the industries round the globe have reshaped their performance measurement standards and have developed more result/outcome oriented performance management systems. They need setting individual targets, measuring performance and eventually gauging success based upon set standards and quantifiable achievements of derived goals. Every organization maintains key performance indicators (KPIs) to review measure and manage the progress of an individual towards strategic organizational goals. These KPIs incorporate overall performance of a manager in holistic manner and include both quantitative and qualitative measures.
There is growing emphasis on developing evaluation techniques in order to determine quality indicators of executive education. Executive education is often criticized for not being able to measure its outcomes. The value addition of continuing education is of high importance due to its impact on individuals, organizations, and society. However, there is an increasing pressure on the educational institutions to evaluate the impact of their continuing education on the developmental outcomes of individuals and organizations. The evaluation of education and continuing education has been considered by many researchers (Eisner, 1985; Houle et al., 1972) with a traditional focus on the evaluation of intended objectives of the programme. Given the concerns of various scholars and practitioners regarding the viability of traditional evaluation techniques, an orientation towards contemporary approaches of evaluations has emerged. Researchers have discussed outcome based evaluation as an effective way to address the major trends currently impacting service industry including education. They believe that quality revolution, customer focus, accountability demands and practical programme evaluation patterns require that we adopt an evaluative approach to respond to the needs of recipients and stakeholders (Glatthorn, 1993; Schalock, 2001).

4.3 Why EMBA Outcomes Measurement is Important

The evaluation is used to measure the extent to which the objectives of individuals and organization have been achieved. The evaluation process is instrumental in identifying why performance outcomes have not met and what lessons can be learned to improve the situation in future (Gentry & Martineau, 2010). Accordingly, for EMBA programmes, evaluation helps to identify its effectiveness in meeting its targets and identifies the need to bring improvement in curricula and/or teaching methodology. It also is necessary to check if graduates have applied at their work the learned concepts and tools, during the programme (Clark, Estes, Middlebrook, & Palchesko, 2004). Various scholars have contributed towards highlighting the needs and proposing scope of evaluation of executive education. Gentry and Martineau (2010), for instance, focus on the practice of evaluation in leadership development programmes. The authors included cycles (frequency) of assessment, the practices and learning that help in planning for bringing improvements in their proposed future evaluation practices
model. McEwan and McEwan (2003) stressed the need to use both qualitative and quantitative data in the evaluation process. Furthermore, these authors proposed a user-driven research model for evaluation and suggested that to evaluate the efficacy of tools and methods in the classroom, by collecting relevant data. It could facilitate educators in determining if the programme is good enough or needs to be improved. This research, however, is different from pure academic research. Rather, it aims to undertake collaborative research of practitioners and researchers to use data for bringing improvements in education system. EMBA programmes are aimed at further augmenting capacity of experienced professionals. Collectively, the evaluation process in EMBA programmes through quantitative and qualitative research is important for practitioners to ascertain the purpose of management initiatives and to understand how their students apply their learning to behaviour and perform leadership practices at their workplaces (Choi, 2011b). As noted by Faerman and Ban (1993), in the US, over a billion dollars is spent per year on executive development and training, however, there are very few systematic studies which measure the usefulness of this spending. Interestingly, while a huge amount of money is spent on programme design and delivery, very little targets the evaluation of its effectiveness. Understandably, if effectiveness of money and time spent is not measured, all expenses on executive education and EMBA remain a doubtful and uncertain investment for individuals as well as organizations.

A reliable and widely used four level measurement model in this regard, was proposed by (Kirkpatrick, 1975; Kirkpatrick & Kirkpatrick, 2007). The author proposed a four level evaluation model to measure if a programme contributes towards organizational goal achievement, should the programme be continued and how could it be improved. Faerman and Ban (1993) proposed titles to each of the four Kirkpatrick levels i.e. 1) Reaction (participant satisfaction) 2) Learning (cognitive reaction), 3) Transfer (actual changes in individual behaviour on the job), and 4) Results (organizational changes). At the first level, named Reaction, evaluation focuses on the level of customer satisfaction. This evaluation includes content of material, instruction methods, facilities etc. At level two, called Learning, new knowledge gained, improvement in skills, and change of attitude is measured. The third level, named Transfer, the extent of transfer of
learning is measured; it specifically focuses on measuring if learned knowledge and skills have been applied at the workplace or not. Indeed, this level of measurement is most difficult and requires a comprehensive as well as instrumental framework. Finally, at the fourth stage, named Results, evaluation is done to measure the impact of learning on the effectiveness of organizations. Although there is criticism of being over simplistic, the Kirkpatrick (2009) model is a significant contribution towards a comprehensive programme evaluation.

4.4 Perspectives on Managerial Performance:

Despite being one of the most researched areas, managerial effectiveness at the workplace lacks agreed upon frameworks and indicators. A large number of studies have been undertaken over the last three decades on this topic. However, the question of what could be a generalized model, encompassing all essential dimensions, for performance evaluation of managers still lacks a concrete answer. A parallel research is focused on developing and refining the measurement tools for individual performance. However, understandably, unless the dimensions to be included for performance evaluation are clear, the tool to measure them remains a secondary issue. Nevertheless, a deep insight also divulges that performance evaluation is persistently being shifted from the core task or job related indicators to an inclusive job and context centric criteria. This understanding, paves the way to an analysis that in pursuit of developing performance models which could skilfully cover job and other context related indicators, researchers have proposed a large number of indicators and dimensions. Welbourne, Johnson, and Erez (1998) have suggested that this proliferation of criteria and dimensions is caused by the lack of theory behind these dimensions. Accordingly, the authors proposed a comprehensive role based performance model, covering task as well as context dimensions, supported by role and identity theories. Since, this study is using Welbourne and colleagues’ proposed approach to measure EMBAs’ performance, it is necessary to explore the theoretical and methodological grounds of this framework.

It is also necessary to explicate, at the outset, that organizational performance and managerial performance are distinct but inextricably linked phenomena. Organizations
are goal directed entities and, over the last five decades, different indicators for determining their progression towards goals have been employed. A review of research suggests that number of variables have been used related to eight major performance dimension of organizational performance, including “profitability, operational, market-based, growth, efficiency, liquidity, size and survival dimensions”. Organizations opt among these dimensions and variables of organizational performance on the basis of their unique circumstance – caused by external and internal forces of the organization – thereby making performance measurement task essentially situational. Another key issue in this regard is the question of efficacy of subjective or objective measures of organizational performance. While both of these issues have made it a daunting task for researchers to propose multi-dimensional and all inclusive generalized models of organizational performance; the situational and subjectivity notion has also influenced the approaches to managerial performance. Accordingly, it is observed that traditional measures of managerial performance were fairly simple and hinged on task or job related indicators. This approach was embedded in the scientific management approaches where efficiency was held the key goal of organizations, operating in a relatively simple and stable business environment. Scientific management theory, the task/job centric approach for employee performance insisted on meticulously analysing the job and accordingly developing the performance indicators for persons performing that job.

Since performance, at core, is a behaviour that employees demonstrate at work, the substance of the association of culture with effectiveness of organization (Hofstede, Neuijen, Ohayv, & Sanders, 1990) persistently got attention of the researchers. Accordingly, researchers like Denison and Mishra (1995) suggested that the culture of organizations was of pivotal importance and was an important ingredient for its effectiveness. A supportive culture could foster organizational performance and hence could become a source of sustainable competitive advantage for it. In addition to this, a plethora of research has been undertaken to study varying relationship between performance and organizational culture. Hartnell, Ou, and Kinicki (2011) conducted a meta-analysis of organizational culture and effectiveness by employing the Competing Value Framework (CVF), which included three dimensions of an organization’
effectiveness, i.e. financial performance, operational performance and employee attitudes; their relationship was tested with three cultural types including market, clan and adhocracy cultures. This particular study is a significant work, because of its pertinent theoretical underpinnings and meta-analytical testing of hypothesis. These researchers took the evaluation of the experts and analysed the responses with multidimensional scaling to derive taxonomy of these broader dimensions which comprehensively represented 30 standards. These three dimensions include focus (main thrust), structures and mean-ends; and are referred as the Competing Value Framework. Because of its inclusivity, the CVF has been widely used in the literature, and applied for culture evaluations in organizations across the globe, and statistically tested in multi-method analysis, multidimensional scaling, and structural equation modelling. This widespread usage and reliability of the CVF makes it a cogent choice to provide a theoretical base to the study of the link between cultural types and organizational effectiveness. The study takes theoretically derived hypotheses and undertakes a meta-analysis to assert that market culture is positively correlated to financial performance, clan culture is positively linked to employee attitude and adhocracy culture supports the spurt of innovation in an organization. The findings of this study and the above discussion of culture and effectiveness is relevant to the present thesis because it corroborates the assertion of role theory that the behaviour of employees at work is a function of individual traits as well as the context in which they are working. The stream of research on culture, therefore, adds to the role theory and the identity theory in putting forward the view that organizational context can emphasize the key roles which the organization wants its employees to perform for fostering organization performance.

In another meta-analysis Howard and Feldman (2008) brought a reinvigorated focus on the relationship between age dimension of personality and performance. The author argued that literature on age and performance had an ascent towards core performance task and thus overlooked other behaviours at work, which contribute towards productivity. Based on a meta-analysis, the authors proposed an expanded ten dimensional framework of performance. The framework included core task performance, creativity, performance in training programmes, organizational citizenship
behaviours, safety performance, general counterproductive work behaviours, workplace aggression, on-the-job substance abuse, tardiness, and absenteeism. Results of the study revealed that age has a strong correlation with seven performance dimensions, including core task performance, creativity, and performance in training programmes.

Multidimensional performance evaluation has also been a key interest of scholars during last three decades. While stressing the significance of the five factor model of personality for measuring performance of employees, Oh and Berry (2009) suggested that error-free performance criteria, being the core of performance measurement systems, could be ensured by using 360 degree feedback; and that feedback should be solicited on two dimensions of performance, including task and contextual performance. The authors therefore, underscored the importance of considering personality, as fundamental to both task related and context related performance. Borman and Motowidlo (1997), however, posited that while managers give an equal importance to task and contextual performance of employees, personality is more pertinent predictor of contextual performance than task performance. A similar postulation was made by Johnson (2001) who evaluated the extent to which supervisors place importance on the contextual and task dimension of performance. This study showed that supervisors gave even more importance to context performance instead of the task performance of the employee. Studies on context versus task performance, therefore, put forward that in addition to the work related indicators, other elements or role of employees are essential elements of performance measurement and evaluation. Furthermore, a major element of contextual performance has been suggested to be organizational citizenship (Dorsey, Cortina, & Luchman, 2008) and cooperative behaviour at work. Likewise, while cognitive ability is suggested to be linked with task behaviour, personality as a source and predictor of context related performance have been affirmed (LePine & Van Dyne, 2001).

Recent shifts in thinking about organizations, such as multifaceted entities which are many things at the same time, like social networks, mechanistic systems, information processing mechanisms, source of dominion etc. (Morgan, 1986) necessitated a drastic change in fundamental thinking about basic management functions as performance
management. Furthermore, a more robust consideration of the accelerating rate of change of the factors that could externally affect performance of organization, has heightened the need to think about more pragmatic and comprehensive performance indicators and vis-à-vis performance management systems. In this regard, Skaržauskiene (2010) undertook a thought provoking study, whereby the author proposed an empirically tested model of organization performance which put system thinking as a catalyst to organizational performance. The model proposed that system thinking orientation in cognitive components of organizational competencies influences social and emotional intelligence competencies in such a way that the leadership of an organization becomes apt to deftly steer the organization as a whole and better manage its performance in the face of significant environmental complexity. The model, thus, puts forward the system thinking as a driver or catalyst and associated understanding of mental models, process orientation, dynamic thinking, system logic, interactivity and continuous learning as indicators of performance. However, the author acknowledged the limitation of the model in devising or incorporating objective measures of organization performance. The model however, showed that internal processes of organization could be the criteria of organization performance. Hence, it also underlined that individual performance measure could be cognitive, social and emotional roles which employees perform at work. The model, therefore, dovetails the notion that performance management systems should be comprehensive and must also include non-job based indicators like thinking, socializing and emotional intelligence roles of employees.

The complexity and system thinking about an organization, also takes note of the increasing expectation from internal and external stakeholders that organizational practices should give due consideration to the ethical and moral obligations as well. While contemporary management theories and literature tend to demonstrate an increasing trend of applying ethical challenges to basic management functions, including decision making, leadership, motivation, planning, controlling etc., there is a relative dearth of studies on the inclusion of ethical standards in performance indicators of the firm. To bridge this gap, O'Boyle, Solari, and Marangoni (2009), proposed that organizations could be ethical (the good company), by adopting eight principles
namely: subsidiarity and decision-making in economic affairs, justice and ill-gotten


gain, the duty of the company in selling to the poor, entertainment, workers’ rights,
labour’s priority over capital, personal capital, and sustainable development. These
indicators have been derived from Catholic traditions and are not inclusive of ethical
consideration of the diverse religious factions, but provide another legitimate position
towards performance debate. Meantime, this work also substantiate that various roles of
the members of organizations, especially those which are emphasized by the leadership,
are important for performance management systems.

The concept of systems thinking was introduced by Peter Senge and Sterman to build
the notion of the learning organization. Learning organizations put high emphasis on
building a system which spurs sharing and hence augmenting tacit and explicit
knowledge of employees for an organization to be effective (Senge & Sterman, 1992).
There are various types of knowledge and skills which could bolster employee
citizenship performance. Senge took citizenship as key performance indicator and
proposed that five types of knowledge and seven types of skills result in citizenship
performance.

As discussed before, role theory suggests that performance of individuals depends on
the roles which they perform. This postulation gets endorsed with a meta-analysis
conducted by Pritchard, Harrell, DiazGranados, and Guzman (2008), whereby the
authors found that productivity measurement and the enhancement system itself is
source of fulfilling needs and hence motivation and this intervention paves way to the
improvement in productivity across various type of work, employees and organization.
Kacmar, Collins, Harris, and Judge (2009) suggested that in addition to the performance
management systems, self-evaluation was a major contributor towards high
performance. The authors also asserted that contextual variables like organizational
politics and perception among employees about effectiveness of leaders played a
moderating role in the relationship. They also included the environment of the
organization as a key variable for performance by suggesting that there exists a positive
relationship between self-evaluation and the perceived favourable environment of the
work place.
The above review of the literature reiterates the already held view that performance management research lacks agreement on what to measure and there is a continuing debate on this topic. Traditionally, the job and its requirements have been the central focus of the performance measurement approach. In this tradition – embedded in the scientific management approach – the requirements and scope of the job were meticulously studied and based on it, indicators of performance were established. The increasing complexity and uncertainty in the organizational environment, however, induced professionals and practitioners to appreciate the fact that job centric performance inculcates a somewhat skewed focus and tends to exclude the potential of employees to bring ‘out of the box’ suggestions for non-routine problems and cater to the emerging opportunities. Accordingly, researchers challenged the efficacy of job centric measures of evaluation and stressed the need to bring in the competency based performance indicators. Corresponding evidence of increasing level of adaptation of competency centric performance indicators have been provided by a large number of studies during the last decade.

The research emphasizing the importance of including task centric and context centric dimensions of the job in performance evaluation systems brought attention towards the position that the attributes of individuals which enable them to excel in performing task related indicators might be different from the ones which are required to perform on context related dimensions (Borman, 1997; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996). Overall, the research suggests that the cognitive abilities of individuals are linked with task performance, whereas personality related variables better explain context performance. This strand of performance research brings into the discussion the research on curriculum in business education. The competencies required for catering to the task and contextual requirements are taught in business educational programmes, and therefore the curriculum and efficacy of these programmes are pivotal for enabling employees to perform at the work place. As noted by Sudsomboon (2007) If specific competencies are not focused in curriculum design, the graduates may not be “work-ready” and therefore not readily accepted by the industry.
4.5 Emergence of Role-based Performance Evaluation

This section argues for the emergence and rationale of roles as predictors of managerial performance in the contemporary business environment. In previous sections, an attempt was made to highlight the contemporary theoretical developments regarding managerial performance measurement. This section will attempt to bring a behavioural perspective to establish a theoretical link between employees’ role-based performance and organizational competitiveness. The objective is to argue that contemporary frameworks for managerial performance measurement are based on diversified behavioural outcomes which employees demonstrate in organizations.

As mentioned above, the shift from a resource based view (RBV) to a knowledge based view (KBV) was the most significant and prominent move undertaken by key management thinkers, which substantiated the role of human resources in organization by declaring them ‘knowledge workers’ who primarily undertake ‘knowledge work’ (Davenport, 2005). The concept of knowledge work holds the elements of creativity, innovation, and non-routine tasks in its core and thus requires a knowledge worker to undertake multiple tasks and roles for the progress and profitability of their organization (Zack, McKeen, & Singh, 2009). Consequently, to ensure competitive advantage in respective markets, organizations have brought about programmes as training, education, career development planning, incentives (Gomez-Mejia, Berrone, & Franco-Santos, 2010) and other schemes like job enlargement etc. to increase and enhance the performance of the company by transforming the work place behaviours of their managers. Multi-dimensionality in a manager’s role is needed to be undertaken while reviewing performance through generalizable performance measures (Welbourne et al., 1998).

Many researchers have emphasized the significance of the roles played by employees in social settings (Westring & Ryan, 2010); while these roles have been acknowledged as fundamental for understanding the behaviour of employees in an organization. In the modern organizational setting, managing selves, time, resources and related activities provide altogether a different state (Montgomery, McCrimmon, Schwean, & Saklofske, 2010) in contrast with the conventional concept of management. As mentioned above
that middle managers’ core task is to mobilize organizational resources and in turn the top management of the organization expect them to perform in a consistent manner on long term basis. Because of the behavioural patterns, the propensity of employees to perform the desired roles in organization gets affected. However, generally, the job description of managers exhibits only the jobs they performs not the roles they play to perform these jobs at different levels. It follows from this that understanding the role set of managers and the behaviours that are required in each role is a key component of managerial and organisational performance. It can be said otherwise that roles that are more prominent to people offer sturdiest implication or determination; in return, the more meaning resultant from a role, the larger the behavioural regulation that eventually hints to the behavioural guidance allied with that specific role.

The multiplicity of differential roles shows the complexity of middle management’s locus in an organization and it is the responsibility of senior and top management to take into account the performance potential of the number of middle management roles and their effects on overall organizational outcome (Mantere, 2008). It is usually the case that the tier of middle management is aware of the notion of the number and complexity of their roles. They also understand that they need to play these roles in a complex environment. The diversified role of middle managers is detailed in an empirical study conducted by (Huy, 2001a) that undertook extensive observation and interviews of 200 middle and senior managers. The study reveals four specific roles of middle managers as: First, middle managers often have value-adding entrepreneurial ideas that they are able and willing to realize—if only they can get a hearing. Second, they’re far better than most senior executives at leveraging the informal networks at a company that make substantive, lasting change possible. Third, they stay attuned to employees’ moods and emotional needs, thereby ensuring that the change initiative’s momentum is maintained. And finally, they manage the tension between continuity and change—they keep organization from falling into extreme inertia, on the one hand, or extreme chaos, on the other (Huy, 2001b).

The above discussion clarifies that managers’ performance is based upon the roles that are given to them in light of organizational operational, strategic and social context.
Organizations need to comprehend that the performance of a manager is a collective outcome that is influenced by the type of roles and circumstances provided by an organization. Therefore, it is logical to measure any higher level academic programme in general and the Executive MBA in particular against its ability to develop participants’ capacity to enhance their performance against strategic roles in organization instead of operational tasks.

4.6 Theoretical Framework

This research intends to evaluate the impact of Executive MBA programmes on mid-career managers’ role based performance. The major assumption behind this study is that executive education can develop certain skills and capabilities that enable participants to effectively perform critical roles in organizations. The theoretical rationale behind the proposed link between education and role based performance comes mainly from adult learning theory and role theory. However, the use of multiple roles as indicators of managerial performance stems from (Kirkpatrick, 2009) four-level evaluation model and from (Welbourne et al., 1998) role-based performance framework.

Organizational effectiveness and survival, in the face of complex and ever-changing business world, necessitates organizations to be competitive through value creating strategies (Clulow et al., 2003). In this regard, the literature usually focuses on the conventional and widely adopted resource based view (RBV) of the firm which presents a model that considers human resources as a nucleus for gaining sustainable competitive advantage and resulting greater performance. (Barney, 1991; Fuller & Rothaermel, 2012). The assertions of RBV in general and conception of KBV in particular, established the pivotal role of organizational knowledge, continuous learning and development as the factors critical for organizational performance and sustained competitive advantage.

The theoretical support to the growing organizational interest of employee development comes from adult learning theory. Adult learning stems from the theory of andragogy, which was developed by (Knowles, 1980). This theory is one of the most well-known
theories in adult teaching (Glickman et al., 2013). Based on the principles of adult learning theory, adult educational programmes are designed to change the values embodied within an individual, his/her attitudes and ultimately leading towards productive behaviour (Rivera, 1973). Since, adult learning programs are envisaged to be a tool of ultimately contributing towards organizational performance; both the researchers and professionals, have been in search of the frameworks that could explain the process through which individual learning transforms into organizational performance.

The present thesis is aimed at measuring the effectiveness of an important adult learning programme, the Executive MBA. A comprehensive model of measuring effectiveness of an andragogical based adult education program has been given by Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick (2007), in which four-level evaluation model encompassing four dimensions namely participant satisfaction, cognitive reaction, actual changes in individual behaviour on the job, and organizational changes in result of this was proposed. In line with this model of educational program evaluation, the scope of present study is to measure effectiveness of the EMBA through actual changes in individual behaviour on the job (one dimension of the Kirkpatrick model). However, the challenge in this regard is to know what behaviours of EMBA professionals should be studied. To this end, Role-Based Framework developed by Welbourne et al. (1998) is used. The Role-based performance model has been proposed on the basis of role theory – that explains why roles should be used for multidimensional performance measurement – and identity theory – that explains which dimensions to include in a model of work performance. The two theories suggest a measure of performance that includes five different roles: job, career, innovator, team member, and organization citizen.
Chapter – 5: Research Methodology

5.1 Overview of the Chapter

The terms “methodology” and “method” have been widely used interchangeably in the literature. Research methodology is defined as an overall approach and theoretical basis that the researcher assumes while investigating any particular phenomenon, whereas “method” is a particular way of collecting and analysing data. (Mason, 2002) declares that research method is a part of research strategy which itself is a function of methodology. In the light of these different interpretations about research strategy, method, type, and design, this chapter will explain the research approach, research type, research strategy, research design, and data collection method under the parent heading of research methodology.

5.2 Research Paradigm/Philosophy

A research paradigm is a set of beliefs or assumptions about the nature of phenomenon under study that a researcher uses to establish a relationship between different variables and to identify any particular method to study that relationship (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Every research perspective is based upon certain assumptions which we may refer to as the research paradigm. The research paradigm can, therefore, be defined as a world view, a general perspective, a way of breaking down the complexity of real world (Patton, 1990). In fact a paradigm is an interpretative frame work under the influence of a specific set of beliefs regarding the world, as to how the world should be understood and studied. Kuhn (1962) is of the opinion that a paradigm is an integrated cluster of substantive concepts, variables and problems attached with corresponding methodological approaches and tools used to investigate any social phenomenon.

Researchers in educational context primarily tend to explore and study formalized and/or emergent different social, cultural, and psychological phenomena that are more educational in nature. While doing so, they come up or decide on the multiple substantive concepts, questions, and variables that can be most appropriately
investigated and the corresponding methodological approaches that can produce really usable results (Dash, 1999). Since, these educational phenomena and corresponding theoretical conceptions can exist in multiple forms of social reality; different philosophical paradigms have been evolved in educational context to define the conceptual boundaries and nature of reality under investigation. The selection of a philosophical paradigm for a research generally includes the choice between Positivist and Interpretivist paradigms (Bryman, 2012). A selection of a particular philosophical research paradigm is important as it provides the researcher with a general framework to interpret the influence of a specific set of beliefs regarding world and social reality.

The main theme of positivism is that a social behaviour can be investigated objectively by using a scientific perspective (Travers, 2001). Positivists endorse the use of deductive reasoning, the development of number of propositions, empirical investigation, and the use of quantitative methods in order to create generalizable knowledge. This philosophical paradigm assumes that measurement of a social behaviour being objective and without the intervention of external context is possible (Hughes & Sharrock, 1997). Similarly, by looking into the inter-relationships between the previously observed and already explained realities inferences can be made and new predictors be established. The positivist school of thought not only acknowledges but uses scientific methods as a source of knowledge generation within a framework of principles and assumptions. In order to generate knowledge, all positivists adopt method of reasoning based upon certain assumptions such as:

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Determinism</th>
<th>Every event is caused by varied circumstances and they are required to be understood in order to gain control of the phenomenon</th>
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<tr>
<td>Empiricism</td>
<td>Collection of verifiable evidence in support of theory and hypothesis</td>
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<tr>
<td>Parsimony</td>
<td>Explanation of phenomena in most economically possible way</td>
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<tr>
<td>Generality</td>
<td>Generalizing the observation of a particular phenomenon to the world at large.</td>
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The interpretivists however on the other hand view the world differently and assume that an objective and intervention-free study of social behaviour is not possible. (Bryman & Bell, 2015) assert that social science is a different field from the natural science and thus the study of the social world needs a different and unique way to undertake research. Interpretivists endorse the use of inductive reasoning and the utilization of subjective observation and data to construct theory by giving meaning to the socially constructed realities. This paradigm assumes that there is no objective reality out there- instead reality is based on the perceptions and experiences of the people (Robson, 2002).

Given the nature of the research objective and questions, this research used the philosophical assumptions of the positivist paradigm to identify the improvement in performance of Executive MBA graduates at their workplace. According to (Kreuger & Neuman, 2006), the selection of any specific paradigm is largely determined by the assumptions about the social reality and the role of researcher in the research process. Positivists assume that reality is real, single and exists ‘out there’ and thus should be studied and explained through general principles and accurate numerical data without any external influence of researcher. The positivist paradigm assumes that real events can be empirically observed and explained with logical reference and analysis. The main objective of this research is to objectively know and numerically present the perspective of employing organizations regarding the extent to which attendance of their mid-career managers at an Executive MBA programme brings improvements in their performance at workplace. Positivists believe that events are caused by some circumstances; and hence, understanding of casual links between events and circumstances through collection of verifiable empirical evidences is possible for further prediction and control.

A positivist paradigm also becomes more relevant for studies where the objective is to study visible manifestation of a phenomenon rather than underlying invisible mechanisms. Since this study is focusing on organization’s perspective on managerial performance which assumingly be caused by EMBA curriculum, the positivist paradigm was found better to serve this study’s objectives. Performance is always
measured against some pre-determined standards/indicators that make the objective evaluation possible. On the other hand this study did not include any notion of social construction i.e. study did not want to explore the perceptions of organizations regarding the criteria development of performance measurement rather study aimed to see perceptions of organizations against ‘a priori’ set of performance standards. The role of positivism in this study thus would be to help systematize the knowledge regarding organizations’ preferences about critical managerial roles and their judgment about the improvement that a specific educational program (i.e. EMBA) brings in those roles.

It is also pertinent to mention here that, although literature largely discusses the selection of any specific paradigm in terms of researcher’s assumptions about the nature of reality, in this research the selection of positivist paradigm was also associated with the role of researcher and appropriateness of methodology in data collection process (Kreuger & Neuman, 2006). The elaboration of this aspect is necessary to leave guidelines for researchers endeavouring to undertake research in similar conditions. The role of researcher in the positivist paradigm remains objective, distant, non-interactive, value and bias-free, and is non-influencing on the research outcomes or the collected data. For instance, this study used particularly survey method for the collection of data. Within the positivist paradigm and corresponding quantitative research strategy, researchers usually make a choice between experiments, surveys, observation, and secondary data (Zikmund, 2003). However, making a choice between these available methods is not an easy task as each method has its own advantages and disadvantages. According to Kreuger and Neuman (2006), researcher’s choice to deploy any particular method largely depends on the cost, speed, nature and length of instrument, response rate, and access to respondents. In this study’s case, the major hurdle related to data collection was nature of instrument and access to respondents. One major component of this research’s instrument was to obtain information about the performance of employees and the criteria that organizations had used to measure those employees’ performance.
Although performance criteria and evaluation is considered ‘secret information’ all over the world, but in Pakistan the reluctance of organizations to share this information is very strong. At several stages of this research, especially at data collection, it was clearly told by majority of the organizations that as per their policy, any external member cannot interact with their employees in isolation to obtain any kind of information, especially related to performance. If any researcher wishes to do so and brings written proofs that the interaction is purely for academic reasons, then the researcher has to show the questions that will be asked and the information that will be obtained. In case, the questions are of subjective nature and require employees to demonstrate their critical thinking about performance’s aspect, then organization will not allow researcher to ask such questions. The reason behind this restriction is simple, since organizations cannot put checks and filters on the subjectively obtained information, so it’s better not to take a risk and allow any external interference especially when there is no benefit of taking this pain. In this study, majority of the organizations provided access to the respondents with the condition that all the questions will be provided in-writing to the higher authorities to take approval and then the obtained information will also be shared with them to get approval before leaving company’s premises. In this context, it was not practically possible to deploy any method other than quantitative with cross-sectional survey design for the collection of data.

The above mentioned aspects present a generalized scope of Pakistani culture with reference to research. If we combine both then we come across a two-fold conclusion that on one hand there are many built-in and brought-in drawbacks in Pakistani research culture and on the other hand, overall research environment in Pakistan is needed to be overhauled conceptually, socially and intellectually. The complex and intricate cultural paradigm in Pakistan restricts researchers: the use of an interpretative paradigm involving interviewing, particularly be a woman would be inherently problematic. Focused, objective, close-ended and quantitative research approach seems both appropriate and possible to fulfil the purpose of the research. Keeping all these limitations and assumptions of science in mind, it is also important to consider that the ultimate goal of science, and especially social science, is not to explore any ultimate
truth, instead it is just an attempt to systematically and logically integrate findings into any tentative theory, that will be subject to revision or modification when new evidence is found (Popper, 1972).

5.3 Research Strategy

A research strategy encompasses a choice related to the use of either quantitative strategy or qualitative strategy or the mix of both to answer the research questions. The methodology literature has highlighted the need for the selection of a particular research strategy in every research i.e. see (Collis & Hussey, 2009; Leedy & Ormrod, 2001).

A quantitative research strategy is undertaken to convert observations into comparable discrete phenomenon by using statistical analyses. Qualitative research on the other hand tends to narrate or describe the experiences and perceptions of people by capturing their opinions and interpretation about a particular phenomenon in their own words (Creswell & Clark, 2007). The selection of a particular research strategy i.e. quantitative and qualitative can be understood in relation to the objectives that a research study aims to achieve and the philosophical assumptions/paradigm that a research primarily follows. For example, a quantitative strategy usually follows the positivist paradigm as it belongs to a natural scientific model that views the reality and knowledge as objective truths that can be known or revealed by being detached from the phenomenon. Qualitative strategies on the other hand follows the Interpretivist paradigm that holds the subjective and dynamic assumption about reality that can be known or revealed by being part of the social reality or by capturing subjective insights of the people who are part of that phenomenon. Quantitative research strategy circles empirical investigation and tends to accept/reject the proposed hypothesis that is derived from existing theories, by analysing the results of data.

The aims of this research were to objectively study and numerically present the feedback of organizations about performance improvement that the Executive MBA brought in their employees. This objective could have better been achieved if the feedback of organizations about their graduate managers’ performance could be gauged against a set of pre-determined comparable and generalizable performance standards.
Therefore, in view of the research objective, positivist paradigm, and research questions, it was expected that quantitative research strategy would be the most suitable strategy for this research to be undertaken.

5.4 Research Type

The decision regarding the research type involves the selection between descriptive, exploratory, and/or explanatory research. Saunders, Saunders, Lewis, and Thomhill (2011) argue that research types are in direct link with different research philosophies/paradigms. For example, a positivist paradigm is undertaken to develop and test hypothesis which is more aligned with the descriptive and explanatory types of research; whereas the interpretivist paradigm undertakes the theory development process which is more aligned with the exploratory type of research. It is pertinent to note that different research types are not mutually exclusive and selection of any type is based on the researcher’s emphasis on the purpose and problem of the research.

Descriptive research defines the phenomenon under investigation as it exists. In this type of research information about the characteristics of a specific problem or issue is identified and then attained. According to Dane (1990) every research is partly descriptive in its nature as long as it describes the what, how, who, when, where, and why of the phenomenon. Explanatory type of research is an extension of descriptive research. On the other hand, the aim of the exploratory research type is to explore the patterns of underlying structures and processes instead of testing or accepting/rejecting a hypothesis. Exploratory research mainly focuses on exploring the insights and hidden elements of a phenomenon to be scientifically or empirically investigated in future.

The present research has the characteristics of both the descriptive as well as explanatory types of research. By measuring the prevailing perception of organizations regarding performance enhancement of their managers as a result of the Executive MBA degree, this research encompassed the very characteristic of a descriptive research. However, the efforts undertaken to explain the direction and strength of impact of the Executive MBA on performance improvement of graduate managers,
made this study an explanatory research that endeavoured to explain findings in the light of relevant theories.

5.5 Research Questionnaire

This study used a self-administered structured questionnaire to collect data from the respondents. The questionnaire is considered as a more reliable instrument to collect data than any other technique because of lesser influence of the researcher on respondents which other techniques are very susceptible to (Oppenheim, 1998). Most of the studies while following cross-sectional method have used questionnaires as a tool for collection of data. Blaikie (2007) declares questionnaire as a most appropriate tool for quantitative research especially where aim is to present results numerically.

The questionnaire used in this study consisted of three parts. The first part included the general information related to the participating organization and the executive MBA graduate. The second part included the information related to the importance of Role-based Performance dimensions by the respondent organization. The third part included the perception of organization about the performance of executive MBA graduate managers against given role-based performance dimensions.

Role-based performance-Importance Dimension: The importance of role-based performance indicators was measured against six performance categories, as proposed by Welbourne et al. (1998), on a rating scale of 1 to 5 where 1 denoted “Not at all Important”, and 5 denoted “Indispensable”. The main heading was “please indicate the extent to which the given indicators are considered important by your company’s formal performance appraisal system. Sample questions include “Quantity of Work; Quality of Work”.

Role-based performance-Effectiveness Dimension: The performance of executive MBA graduates was measured against same six performance categories, as proposed by Welbourne et al. (1998), on a semantic rating scale of 1 to 5 where 1 denoted “Needs much Improvement”, and 5 denoted “Excellent”. The main heading was “please rate the performance of your executive MBA degree holder employee against the same given
indicators”. Sample dimensions of performance include “Quantity of Work; Quality of Work”.

The original instrument was designed as a self-administered questionnaire for self-evaluation. Since the objective of this research was to gauge employees’ post-degree performance with regard to the improvement in role-based performance; changes in questionnaire content were required to make it self-explanatory and understandable according to the context of the research. In order to make sure that language changes would not affect the original content and intent of the questions, all the precautionary measures were taken. For example, statements were developed by maintaining original content of almost all of the questions. Statements were developed in the light of the original rating scale. Furthermore, before the collection of data, this questionnaire was sent to academics and practitioners to seek feedback on the language, content, and understanding of the respondent. In the light of the feedback from experts the required changes were made. Issues regarding validity and reliability of this instrument are discussed in detail in a later part of this section. The language of the questionnaire was English. In countries where the first language is not English, it could be problem for respondents to understand questions. However, in this study’s context this was not the problem as respondents were senior supervisors or HR managers who are hired on the basis of a university degree. In Pakistan, as per Higher Education Commission of Pakistan, the medium of instruction for every university is English.

5.6 Questionnaire Development and Pilot Testing

The questionnaire is a special kind of conversation to collect information about a phenomenon under investigation and the design of a questionnaire is very critical for the collection of reliable information. For example, vocabulary, structure of the sentence, and clarity in statements can affect the quality and accuracy of the obtained data. Critical features related to the design of the questionnaire include comprehension (that respondents should understand questions as per intended way), retrieval of information from memory (that respondent should be able to retrieve information from
memory to answer question), and creation of response (that respondent should be able to produce accurate responses).

The main objective of this research was to empirically investigate whether or to what extent the Executive MBA (EMBA) programmes in Pakistan have been able to increase the role-based performance of graduate employees at their workplace. For this investigation, Welbourne et al. (1998) role-based performance scale, published by Academy of Management Journal, was adopted. Permission to use this instrument was duly obtained from the corresponding author in advance. Primarily developed and tested in Western contexts, this scale measures individual performance against five role-based performance dimensions. Before applying this scale in an Eastern context, it was recommended to ensure if the performance dimensions given in this scale were also relevant to Pakistani context. It was sought appropriate to identify any additional dimensions that were being used by Pakistani organizations to measure employee’s role based performance but were not given in the scale proposed by Welbourne et al. For this purpose, 15 interviews of approximately 30 to 45 minutes, with senior HR professionals from various business organizations including national/multinational, small/medium/large, private/public etc. were conducted.

5.7 Interviews and Findings

In light of this research’s fundamental objectives and aforementioned arguments, semi-structured interviews were conducted with employing organizations to identify the most pertinent roles that are used to measure managerial performance. The main objective of this interview phase was not to collect data to be used in the analysis part of this research; instead it was meant to maximize the objectivity in the apparently subjective feedback of organizations about the performance of their EMBA graduate employees, and to ensure the accurate inclusion of items in the instrument; in other words validity assurance. The element of objectivity was important to address because of the philosophical assumptions of positivism which this research has adopted as the guiding paradigm. As it has been explained earlier, the essence of positivist paradigm lies in its claim of an objective assessment that will be free of any external influence or social
bias. It was a real challenge in this research to maintain objectivity especially when objective data about individual performance was not available. Since this research was aiming to seek feedback of EMBA graduates’ role-based performance from the employing organizations’ perspective, there were some expected personal biases. For instance, the person who would give information about any individual’s performance (EMBA graduate in this research’s case) could be misleading due to his personal liking/disliking, unawareness of the organization’s criteria, and/or self-defined criteria of performance excellence. It was therefore vital to ensure that all the respondents would give feedback by using the criteria set forth by their organization for all the employees on the same level. The ideal solution to overcome these biases was to use performance dimensions given in the organization’s formal appraisal system and previous annual appraisals of EMBA graduates according to those dimensions. Since, access to organization’s formal appraisal forms and employees’ evaluation was not possible, an attempt was made through interviews to make sure that only those items remained in the final survey that were being used by the organizations in their formal appraisal system. Therefore, all the dimensions and items of role-based performance, as described by Welbourne et al., (1998) were discussed with the interviewees and they were asked to confirm if their organizations were using those roles to formally evaluate employees performance. Although, this was not the ideal step taken to ensure objectivity, but within the above mentioned constraints this seemed to minimize the feedback biases. At this point in time no distinction was made among the EMBA and non-EMBA as the objective was to obtain organizations’ version of performance dimensions that was applicable to everyone.

5.7.1 Interview Sampling

The Sample for interview was derived by using the purposive sampling approach. According to standards suggested by The American Educational Research Association, American Psychological Association, and National Council on Measurement in Education, the selection of experts for instrument development/verification should be based on the relevance of their training, experience, and qualification with the content of instrument. According to the Standards for Educational and Psychological Testing
(1985), if an instrument has clear theoretical basis then the selection of members should be based on expertise related to the conceptual framework (Davis, 1992; Grant & Davis, 1997). Since, the objective behind conducting interviews in this research was to identify role-based dimensions of employees performance being used by organizations in their formal appraisal system, HR managers were selected as experts to obtain the feedback. A list of 40 organizations was obtained from the office of Executive MBA of a reputed university. These organizations had sent their employees to obtain an EMBA degree from that university. Researchers have suggested to include 3 to 20 experts to produce a comprehensive and well-validated instrument i.e. see (Gable & Wolf, 1993; Tilden, Nelson, & May, 1990). It is also recommended to include members from a variety of organizations i.e. size (large vs. small), nationality (national vs. multinational), ownership (private vs. public) and so on. This strategy is more suitable to obtain more representative or comparative view of a population of study which in turn enhances the generalizability of findings (Krefting, 1991). Therefore, a final list consisting of 25 organizations of varying characteristics was developed. All the organizations were contacted and re-contacted to obtain their consent to participate in the interviews, however only 17 gave consent. It is pertinent to mention that this relatively big response rate took place due to the personal influence of the Director of the EMBA Program on the graduates who further requested their HR personnel to accommodate request from their university. As the aim of this part was to create a meaningful and contextualized instrument so this sampling approach was really helpful in meeting this objective.

5.7.2 Interview Process

15 interviews of approximately 30 to 45 minutes each, with senior HR professionals from various business organizations including national/multinational, small/medium/large, private/public etc. were conducted. The selection of HR professionals was made mainly due to the fact that they could be the most informed persons about their organizations’ criteria to evaluate employees’ performance. Formal requests through emails and phone calls were made and appointments were obtained well in time before visiting respondent individually. The overall objective of the research and interview session was explained to each respondent before starting the
interview. During the interviews, they were asked to confirm if the twenty items to measure role-based performance on the five performance dimensions, as proposed by Welbourne et al., (1998) were being used by their organizations to measure middle managers’ performance. They were also asked to highlight any further role-based performance dimension/indicator that their company was using but not given in the scale. In the interviews it was also observed if the statement given in the original instrument was clear in its content and will bring the desired information.

5.7.3 The Interviews

Regarding the very first objective of the interviews, which was to obtain confirmation for the relevance/prevalence of different role-based performance in organizations; on the whole majority of the organizations confirmed the prevalence of all twenty role based performance indicators in their formal appraisal system. However, organizations varied in terms of the relative importance of different role-based performance dimensions. Some organizations considered all the dimensions important, whereas others considered few of them important. Table 1. Shows the percentage agreement/disagreement of organizations with the instrument items. Looking deeply, 7 organizations in the sample of 15 (45%) confirmed the presence of all twenty role-based performance indicators whereas 6 out of 15 sampled organizations (40%) confirmed the prevalence of at least 16 to 17 performance indicators. Only two organizations (13%) confirmed the prevalence of less than 10 indicators in their performance appraisal. It is pertinent to mention here that upon the close examination of the pattern of agreement/disagreement of organizations with statements, it was found that most of the disagreements were reported by organization no. 2, 5, and 12. After locating the general information of these organizations from the interview sheet, it was revealed that all these organizations were from the manufacturing sector and of small to medium size. This insight could be used to infer that the services sector and large scale organizations seem more inclined toward the adoption of modern performance evaluation framework such as role-based performance, compared with manufacturing and relatively small size firms.
The second objective of this interview was to identify any additional performance indicators that organizations operating in Pakistani context. Five new role-based performance indicators were identified as critical/important that according to majority of the respondent organizations (i.e. 13 out of 15) were being used in the formal appraisal system. Table 2 shows the items and organizational exploration of these new performance indicators. The newly identified performance indicators were related to knowledge sharing, adherence to rules, adaptability, ethics, and rational decision making. Rationale and theoretical grounds for the inclusion of these five new performance indicators will be discussed in later part of the thesis. However, it is important to mention here that according to some respondents although due importance is given to ethical conduct, knowledge sharing and decision making, these indicators are not objectively measured in employee appraisal. Instead these two indicators are judged through observation by the immediate supervisor, members of the appraisal committee, and top management on the basis of their subjective judgment and overall experience with any specific employee during the whole year. For instance, as one large size bank’s HR manager said while replying to the questions, what else is considered important by your company while evaluating employees’ performance?

“Well; I think all these dimensions are important for us, but we pay a lot of attention to ethical behaviours of the employees. In our organization, an employee cannot survive if he/she is caught in any kind of unethical conduct, doesn’t matter how good he/she has performed in all other areas”.

Another female HR director from a large telecom-based company said:

“Although we don’t give any extra points if one remains ethical in his/her matters, but if one is not then the value of whole appraisal will become zero”

Another HR & Admin manager from a medium sized pharmaceutical company said:

“Decision making is part of our managers’ everyday lives, but we appreciate decisions that are taken on the basis of facts and figures and thus recognition is given to those who demonstrate that they have taken really informed decisions”
One Assistant Manager HR from a medium-sized insurance company highlighted the importance of knowledge sharing and said:

“We are operating in an industry where competition has reached its peak. We cannot survive any longer if we do not work as team and produce truly knowledge based products and services. For us, and I think every organization in this industry, the most important indicator of performance is to produce, acquire, and share new knowledge with peers and team members”

Two other HR professionals from banking and educational institutes repeated almost the same messages but also added:

“When posted, the employees need to have the flexibility to adjust in new cultures and geographic areas. According to them, this indicator was added last year into formal performance appraisal when company received repeated denials and resistance from employees who were posted to other regional offices especially located in remote areas”

In light of the aforementioned findings two amendments were made to the original instrument. First, a sixth dimension carrying five new performance indicators was added to the questionnaire. Second, the rating of all six performance dimension in terms of their relative importance in the organization was also added. Therefore, the final instrument carried 25 field questions related to role-based performance indicators to be rated by respondent organizations against the importance of those indicators in their formal appraisal system, and current performance of their Executive MBA graduate/s on those indicators (see Appendix-1). The final questionnaire, after careful examination, was sent to five Pakistani and one overseas professor. After adding their feedback, the questionnaire was then sent to working HR professionals for further improvement. After adding their feedback, the questionnaire was pilot tested. For pilot testing, data was collected from 30 respondents using convenience sampling. For instance, HR managers from 10 organizations, that were selected from the list provided by one university, were asked to rate their middle managers’ performance against the given set of questions. However, representation of different business organizations was ensured to avoid any
possible bias. For instance, organizations of medium to large size, private and public, manufacturing and services, and local and international were included in the pilot testing.

5.8 Validity and Reliability of Pilot Tested Instrument

The next step important for this research was to ensure the validity and reliability of questionnaire. Norland (1990) referred to validity as the built-in error in measurement. This built-in error can be reduced through the careful conceptualization of statements and by using a panel of experts and a field test. Usually the main questions regarding the validity of an instrument include: Does the questionnaire measure what it intends to measure? Does it represent the content? Is it appropriate for the sample population? And is it comprehensive enough to gather the required information? In order to address validity issues in this research, those questions that were explored through industry interviews were included after finding their theoretical foundations from the literature. On the other hand, opinion from academic experts was obtained to see its theoretical relevance with the study’s objectives. Practitioners’ feedback also ensured the relevance and suitability of instrument for commercial organizations. Reliability on the other hand deals with the random error in measurement and ensures the ability of an instrument to produce same results in similar circumstances (Norland, 1990). In order to ensure higher reliability of instrument, collected data was checked using Cronbach’s Alpha.

After obtaining the satisfactory pre-test statistical results and ensuring the overall suitability of questions in the local context, the final questionnaire was designed to be sent out for the final data collection process. Further details of the instrument’s validity and reliability are given in next sections.

It is also relevant to mention that, the pilot findings also created a rationale to include some more research questions in this study i.e. “what role-based performance dimensions are more prevalent in the Pakistani context?” and “do organizations use different or the same role-based performance indicators to measure their managers’ performance”? 
The following are the steps that were followed to develop the final research instrument:

Step 1- Interviews with different organizations were conducted

Step 2- Confirmation of given variables was obtained, and additional variables (performance indicators) were identified and inculcated in the scale

Step 3- The scale was sent to five local and one international professor of relevant disciplines (Doctoral Faculty) to seek their comments on theoretical relevance and appropriateness of rating scale and language of the field questions

Step 4- The scale was sent to industry professionals to seek their comments on the appropriateness of language, easy to understand, and rating scale

Step 5- Data was collected and checked for validity and reliability issues

Pilot testing was undertaken before distributing the final instrument for data collection from respondents.

5.9 Data Collection Method

Data collection refers to a particular technique which is used for the collection of data. There are various techniques such as surveys, interviews, experiment, focus group etc. which can be used for data collection and selection of any particular technique depends upon the topic and questions which are being investigated. The decision of research method largely depends upon the suitability and appropriateness of one method with research objective as some methods serve research objective better than others (Creswell & Clark, 2007).

Although any discrete segregation regarding appropriateness of different methods is difficult in the social sciences, generally surveys and experiments are considered more appropriate for the collection of quantitative data, whereas participant observation and interviewing methods are thought to be more appropriate for collection of qualitative data (Bryman & Cramer, 2009).
In the light of the objective, questions, and strategy of this research study it seemed more appropriate to use a cross-sectional survey method for collection of data. The word “survey” is used most of the time while referring to the definite procedure that is applied to gather information in the form of data from specific set of individuals and this set is just a segment of the population under study (Ferber, 1980). Surveys can be carried out either through cross sectional or a longitudinal approach (Creswell, 2003). Since, the aim of this study was to identify the feedback of organizations regarding performance improvement of their Executive MBA graduates in relation to their experiences which they have had with their graduate managers at a given point in time, a cross sectional survey method was considered more appropriate. A cross-sectional survey measures objective truth, beliefs, opinions, and the attitudes of people toward a specific phenomenon at a specific point in time. A cross sectional survey provides researchers with an opportunity to collect data about a particular phenomenon at one point in time through questionnaires or interviews. The collected data is then used to build inferences regarding the predicted relationships. The main advantage of the survey method lies in its ability to study multiple variables simultaneously. The dis-advantage usually associated with survey design is the inability of this method to capture the insights involved in the process of phenomenon’s measurement. The procedure of survey execution is elaborated in next part of thesis.

5.10 The Study Population

According to Parahoo (2006) a population is defined as “the total number of units from which data can potentially be collected”. A research population is a number of individuals or objects/items that become the core focus of the whole research activity and act as data providing source in terms to test the hypothesis. A research population can also be named as the group of individuals/objects in possession of similar characteristics.

The population of this study included the organizations that formally sent/sponsored their employees’ Executive MBA education or where Executive MBA graduates were working at the time of research. It was expected that graduate managers after
completion of their degrees could leave their sponsoring organizations. Since the current study aimed to study post-degree performance enhancement of graduate managers, it seemed logical to include only those organizations where graduates were serving after completion of their degrees and as such these organizations served as a unit of analysis. It was decided to obtain the list of sponsoring organizations from universities where the Executive MBA was being offered and were recognized by the Higher Education Commission of Pakistan. The majority of such institutes were located in five major cities of Pakistan which are Lahore, Rawalpindi, Islamabad, Karachi, and Faisalabad.

5.11 Sampling Framework

Sampling is the selection of a fraction of the total number of units of interest to decision makers for the ultimate purpose of being able to draw general conclusions about the entire body of units (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 2004). However, it is uncommon for a research to include the total population into the research due to the limitations of finance, time, and accessibility.

The decision regarding the selection of a particular sampling method and sample size in this research was complex and thus needs explanation. There are different ways available for the selection of a sample from the defined population. Researchers divide these methods into two general categories namely probability sampling method and non-probability sampling method. Probability sampling selects a sample from a list of a known population by using a known randomization mechanism. In probability sampling each unit of population bears an equal chance to be picked up for the final sample. Probability sampling usually uses three basic methods i.e. simple random sampling, systematic random sampling, and stratified random sampling for selecting a sample from a given population. Despite its serious limitations because of the cost involved and the readily available list of complete set of population, probability sampling method is important for quantitative studies due to the high generalizability of findings.

Non-probability sampling on the other hand involves any method other than the probability method to obtain a sample from the population. In this method inclusion
probability of the population’s unit is not known and sometimes even the population is not well defined. Non-probability sampling methods are known for convenience of the researcher, low cost, and less time, however they carry serious problems of generalizability as findings obtained through non-probability methods are considered to be applied only on the sampled units and not on the whole population. Generally used methods in non-probability sampling are convenience sampling, snow-ball sampling, quota sampling, and judgmental sampling.

This study used the probability sampling method to identify the sample out of the population. This study aimed to generalize the perceived impact of Executive MBA programmes on the post-degree performance enhancement of graduate managers at the workplace to all the organizations included in population, for which the probability sampling method was viewed as most appropriate. However, for probability sampling method, the very first condition that had to be met was the availability of a list of the population from which the sample was to be taken. In this research, the population of interest included the organizations where executive education was formally sponsored or where graduate managers were serving after completion of their EMBA degrees at the time of data collection. In Pakistan such a list was not readily available for this research and thus the identification of organizations that sponsor executive education was not possible unless such a list could be generated by the researcher. Therefore, it was decided to produce a list of targeted organizations (population) by collecting details of such organizations from the institutes offering Executive MBA programmes. Information related to candidates’ sponsoring information is usually collected at the time of admission. Since this information was not a secret, it was expected that institutes would be willing to share that list with researcher for research purposes.

A list of institutes/universities offering Executive MBA degrees was downloaded from the website of Higher Education Commission of Pakistan. 40 institutes/universities were identified from the list where EMBA programmes were being offered. A contact detail of those universities was obtained from their websites. An email message containing the introduction of the researcher, context and purpose of the research, assurance of confidentiality and professional ethics along with the request for
information of EMBA participants’ organizations was sent to the directors/custodians of EMBA programmes of all the universities. However, none of universities responded to that email. After a week, a reminder was sent to all by putting Deans and Rectors on cc but the result was not much different. Only three universities responded by either regretting of not being able to share that information or due to non-availability of such information. In a third attempt, it was decided to send letters to programme director/custodian and Dean of relevant universities on their mailing addresses by putting researcher’s contact details on the bottom of letter. After a week wait no response came. As a last resort, telephone numbers of those universities were obtained from their websites and personal calls were made to relevant people. Only three of the people agreed to share the required information whereas the rest of them just denied by declaring it as confidential information. This situation left researcher with no other option but to surrender the probability sampling method and to consider other viable sampling methods in order to undertake this research. Therefore, this study ended up with a convenience sampling technique where information about the respondent organization was taken through personal contacts.

5.11.1 Sample Size

The sample size of a study is directly influenced by the nature, size, and availability of the targeted population. In order to calculate sample size, the desired precision of results, confidence level, degree of variability, and response rate are important elements to be considered. This study intended to deploy a purposive sampling method for data collection. In line with the arguments developed by Hair, Anderson, Tatham, and Black (1995) regarding the appropriate size of a study’s sample, this research aimed to collect 125 responses to obtain valid and reliable findings from the collected data. According to Hair et al. (1995), five responses against one field question are usually enough to run factor analysis and to apply other statistical tools.
5.12 Instrumentation, Validity and Reliability

Validity is the most critical and important aspect of a research instrument. The validity of a research instrument is defined as the “degree to which instrument measures what it intends to measure” (Polit & Beck, 2010). Although some researchers have highlighted four aspects of instrument validity, Parahoo (2006) declared two aspects i.e. content validity and construct validity as the most frequently discussed issues related to the validity of a questionnaire. Content validity is basically a non-statistical type of validity that involves "the systematic examination of the test content to determine whether it covers a representative sample of the behaviour domain to be measured." Content validity involves the degree to which the content of the test matches a content domain associated with the construct and if listed items are chosen so that their compliance can be ensured with relevance to the test specification which is finalized after thorough analysis of the subject. Construct validity focuses upon ensuring that the construct is not subject to common method bias and other related forms of bias.

Kimberlin and Winetrstein (2008) recommend the use of a valid and reliable existing instrument that can measure the research’s construct of interest as use of existing instrument is more cost-effective than developing the new one. However, they highlight several questions which need to be addressed when using an existing instrument.

This study used the instruments as proposed by Welbourne et al. (1998). The authenticity of this scale’s theoretical foundations, validity, factor exploration, and generalizability has been acknowledged by a number of researches, see (Bono & Judge, 2003; Cardon & Stevens, 2004; Chen, Kirkman, Kanfer, Allen, & Rosen, 2007; G. Chen & Klimoski, 2003; Griffin, Neal, & Parker, 2007; Rotundo & Sackett, 2002; Wright & Boswell, 2002). All the aspects of validity such as construct validity, discriminant validity, content validity etc. were well addressed and properly explained during the development of this scale by the authors. However, since some questions were added into the original instrument it was necessary to ensure the validity aspects of the improved instrument. Multiple steps were taken to ensure this crucial aspect. For instance, all new questions were derived from the detailed interviews with organizations’ HR managers. The theoretical relevance of those questions was ensured.
through a literature review, experts’ opinion and pilot testing. It was also decided to apply factor analysis in order to ensure the appropriateness of the loading of factors on the hypothesized dimensions. The result of factor analysis is given in next chapter.

Reliability on the other hand ensures that the instrument has the ability to generate the same data under similar circumstances. The reliability of a questionnaire is measured in terms of questionnaire’s ability to yield the same data again and again under the same conditions (Norland, 1990). One of the important concerns of researchers in social research and especially in quantitative research is the ability of research instrument to measure repeatable and consistent results (Bryman & Cramer, 2009). The instrument used in this study has already yielded high level of reliability scores during its empirical testing by many researchers. However, since the changes in questionnaire’s content were made to make it contextually relevant, it was decided to check the reliability scores of the data before proceeding for further analyses. Cronbach’s Alpha test was used at pilot testing and final stage to test the reliability of the obtained data. The results of this test are given in next chapter.

5.13 Survey Procedure

Since information about the study’s targeted population (i.e. organizations where Executive MBA graduates were working after completing their degrees) was not readily available, the first challenge for this study was to identify such organizations. A list of around 800 HR professionals containing contact details (i.e. emails, cell numbers, addresses) was obtained from a company called “Professional HR Forum” which had been conducting monthly HR forums (workshops/seminars) for the last 10 years in different cities of Pakistan. HR professionals were targeted due to the fact that they are the only professionals in any organization who usually have the academic and performance history of every employee. It is pertinent to mention here that the feedback about EMBA graduates’ performance was not subjective judgment of HR manager or immediate supervisors; instead it was based on their performance which was evaluated by the formal performance appraisal system of the respective organization. It was necessary to avoid any personal bias or error of subjectivity. On the other hand this
study intended to include only those role behaviours that were part of an organization’s formal system and on the basis of which decisions of increment/promotions were taken. In the light of these factors only those organizations were targeted where formal appraisal systems was prevailing. In order to ensure that response comes from the right sample, it was explicitly mentioned in the instructions that the questionnaire will be completed only by the persons who formally appraise EMBA graduate’s performance. This was one of the reasons that “importance” dimension of role-based performance indicators was added into this research.

An email, with reference to the Forum’s organizers, stating the objective of the email was sent to all professionals requesting their support for the data collection. They were requested to intimate if any Executive MBA having less than three years of post-EMBA experience was working in their organization. Around 30% of the emails bounced back due to the inability of the server to identify the valid recipient, around 200 emails were expired and thus deleted from the list for reminders and further pursuits. After one week’s wait, only 20 HR professionals responded and confirmed the presence of an Executive MBA in their organizations and also consented to participate in the requested survey. Three options for the distribution of questionnaires were used i.e. 1) online questionnaire with web-link of the survey; 2) attachment of a hard copy of questionnaire through email; and 3) hard copy of the questionnaire through courier service or by hand. Willing organizations were asked for the number of Executive MBA employees along with their convenience with any of the available survey options. An email explaining the objective and procedure of the survey was sent to the willing organizations followed by the personal call to ensure the understanding by respondent of the survey instructions. In the second and third week, three reminders were sent that resulted in 22 more responses. After this disappointing response rate, personal calls on cell phones were made to more than 200 people. At the same time, some HR professionals, who had very positively participated in this survey, were requested to influence their fellow HR professionals to accommodate the request of this survey. These methods, over the period of two months, finally produced 185 responses out of which 140 met the study’s criteria. 45 questionnaires were received with either 5-10 missing values or with circles on more than one option against a single question. Since,
it was difficult to deal with so many missing values and multiple answers of a single question; it was decided to eliminate those responses from the final data.

5.14 Issue of Confounding Variables

This study while investigating the post-degree role-based performance of EMBA graduates at their workplaces, fundamentally assumes that the observed performance of EMBA graduates is mainly due to their EMBA degree. This assumption holds some potential implications for this research. For instance, it would be relevant to identify if the observed performance of EMBA graduates would not be result of or influenced by some factors other than their EMBA degrees. Literature defines such factors as confounding variables or confounders that have any possible association with cause or its effects i.e. see (Maheux et al., 1982; McNamee, 2003; Wunsch, 2007). In this study it was also important to consider those factors that could have potential effects on the post-degree role-based performance of EMBA graduates at workplace. This study has identified and included in the research questions some contextual and organizational factors such as nature of industry which an organization operates in, size of the organization, geographic span of operations of the organization, and ownership status of the organization. These factors have an influence on the structural and management arrangements of the organizations. An organization’s management structure and associated practices greatly influence the way individuals transfer and apply their learning at workplace (Haskell, 2004; Lim & Johnson, 2002; Quinn & Leligdon, 2014). For instance, services sector organizations usually hold more organic management structure and practices than manufacturing sector organizations. Organic structures, compared with mechanistic structures, fundamentally give more empowerment and opportunities to managers to apply new concepts in their jobs which they learn or acquire (Lim-Hun & Morris, 2006) during EMBA. Similarly, large size of the organization and cross-regions/borders operations of an organization add more hierarchy and relatively strong management control system which also ultimately shape that organization’s structural and cultural facets that further influence knowledge creation and transference activities (Chung-Jen & Huang, 2007). This was the reason due to which this study decided to include all such factors in properly research
questions so that it could be identified if such factors have any influence on the role-based performance of EMBA graduates.

However, one another pertinent factor having potential implications for this research was the inclusion and comparison of EMBA graduates’ performance with those who have an MBA degree or those who do not have business degree at all. Such kinds of comparisons are usually done in experimental designs to address the issue of ‘attribution’ by comparing the control group with treatment group after making any intervention. Since, this study could not have control on the independent variable (i.e. EMBA programme) to make any intervention, so it was practically very difficult to include control group of non-EMBA for comparison in this study. However, it was still logical to address if the observed role-based performance of EMBA graduates at workplaces was due to their EMBA degrees. This was done through explicit verbal and written instructions to survey respondents that the given survey was purely for those employees who had completed their Executive MBA degrees (please read instruction in the questionnaire attached as Appendix-1). Normatively speaking, this could have been done through the comparison of two groups i.e. EMBAs and non-EMBAs on their role-based performance. This comparison was considered but a number of following considerations ruled it out.

1- Firstly, organizations usually send their most competent and high performing employees to ensure greater return on the investment and who they think can be promoted to the next level in future (Carrel & Schoenbachler, 2001). If this is the case then there would be little point in comparing the performance of those who had the EMBA with those who did not.

2- Another consideration, as has been discussed earlier, is that the MBA and EMBA differ in terms of format, curriculum and teaching methodology, so it is not appropriate to compare products which have different processes and outcomes.

3- In order to compare EMBAs with non-EMBAs it was necessary to obtain performance feedback of non-EMBA employees on the same role-based performance indicators, which was very difficult to do in this study’s context.
4- During the interviewing and pilot testing stage it was observed that the length of questionnaire was a serious concern of respondents. So asking them for more information (i.e. filling up two lengthy questionnaires about 4 to 6 employees) could have negatively influenced their willingness to participate in the survey.

5- It would be very difficult to identify those non-EMBA employees whom performance feedback could have been obtained. Since, majority of the respondent organizations neither shared data/information about their employees nor allowed the researcher to interact with employees to obtain data, it was very difficult to identify the comparison group’s characteristics. A comparison of groups with dissimilar characteristics could therefore bias the results.

6- The last but not least point regarding the inclusion of only EMBA graduates here is that, this study intends to identify only if the EMBA is contributing toward graduates’ performance at workplace.
Chapter – 6: Data Management and Factor Analysis

6.1 Chapter Summary

This chapter explains the data management process, analysis of results and subsequent findings. The first part explains the process of coding, feeding, and normalizing the data. The profile of respondents is given followed by the reliability scores. Factor analysis is used to remove the redundancy or duplication from the set of correlated variables. Mean scores and paired-samples t-test are used to analyse the results respect to each hypothesis.

Data was coded, fed, and analysed through Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 16. All collected questionnaires were numbered and entered into SPSS. However before proceeding to further steps, responses meeting basic criteria of this research were retained whilst any questionnaire in which the Executive MBA graduate’s total time spent with that organization was less than a year or more than four years was rejected.

In the next step, by following the guidelines of Schafer and Graham (2002), missing values were replaced by using the Mean method. Missing values in the given data set were few, random, and apparently had no pattern. Given the situation it sought to be more appropriate to deploy the Mean method to deal with missing values.

By using the guidelines of Tabachnick and Fidell (1996), data was then checked for normality and any possible skewedness. Normal distribution of data is critical for the stronger assessment, even if the normality is not much required. Skewness and Kurtosis were measured to ensure normal distribution of data in this study. The skewness’s score and the standard error for Skewness were calculated through SPSS. The skewness value was then manually divided by the standard error for Skewness to get a score. The final value was more than 3.3 and that according to Tabachnick and Fidell (1996) denotes that there is no problem of normality. The kurtosis’s score was also calculated by using the same procedure and the final value of this test was also greater than 3.3, mean there were no problem of normality.
6.2 Instrument Reliability

After going through the basic data set analyses, the scores of reliability were measured by calculating Cronbach’s Alpha. For quantitative research, the ability of the deployed instrument to produce reliable, repeatable, and consistent results is very critical (Bryman & Cramer, 2009). To ensure the ability of a survey instrument to measure free of error corresponding construct, Cronbach (1951) Alpha test is frequently used. Therefore, Cronbach’s Alpha test calculated the reliability scores of all the individual six performance dimensions used in this study as well as the combined score of all the field questions in the questionnaire. As can be seen in Table-1, the reliability score of all the separately categories and full length questionnaire was minimum .834 thus, as per standards described by Hair et al. (1995), established high reliability of data for further analyses.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Cronbach's Alpha</th>
<th>Number of Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Job Related Performance</td>
<td>.857</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career Related Performance</td>
<td>.834</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Innovation Related Performance</td>
<td>.879</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Team Related Performance</td>
<td>.875</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCB Related Performance</td>
<td>.855</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managerial Behaviour Related</td>
<td>.820</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performance</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All Items</td>
<td>.949</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.3 Respondents’ Profile (Organizations and Executive MBA Graduates)

The demographic profile of this study encompassed information about the respondent organizations and the Executive MBA graduates whose performance feedback was obtained from their respective employers. In total, 93 organizations from almost all of the leading industries i.e. banking, telecoms, pharmaceuticals, education etc. responded
to this study’s survey. As can be seen in Table-2, on the whole there was a reasonable and balanced representation from the manufacturing/services, national/multinationals, and private/public organizations. 74% (N-69) of the respondent organizations formally sponsor/encourage their employees to receive executive education. 54% (N-50) respondents were relatively large scale firms having employment size of more than 1000 employees, whereas only 11% (N-10) belonged to small scale organizations.

Regarding Executive MBA graduates gender, the majority of the graduates were male i.e. 71%. 43% of graduates had secured above 3.5/4.00 CGPA, and 78% of the graduates had spent more than two but less than four years in the same organization at the time of data collection.

Table-2  Participants’ Profile

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographics</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Responding Companies (N-93)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Services</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Span of Operations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multinational</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ownership</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semi-Govt.</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sponsor Executive Education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Size of Company (No. of Employees)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;100</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>101-300</td>
<td>301-1000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td>----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time Spent in Organization</td>
<td>More than 1 but Less than 2 Years</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>More than 2 but Less than 3 Years</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade in EMBA</td>
<td>&gt;3.5</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&lt;3.5</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.4 Factor Analysis

Since this study used instrument which contained different old and new latent and observable variables, so before moving on to data analysis and findings part, it was necessary to identify the underling structure of relationship between these variable for the convenience and better organization of subsequent analyses. Factor analysis in this regard is a commonly used and widely accepted statistical technique that allows researchers to cluster variables into homogenous sets, create new factors/variables, and gain deeper insights of the already established structure/factor (Mulaik, 2009; B. Williams, Brown, & Onsman, 2012). Factor analysis technique also helps to reduce data, remove redundancy and duplication from a set of correlated variables, represent correlated variables with a smaller set of ‘derived’ variables, and identify factors that are relatively independent of one another. In the literature, depending upon the nature of latent and observable variables in the dataset, factor analysis could primarily be
performed in two ways that is called exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) (Hurley et al., 1997; Thompson, 2004). EFA is used when there is no specified structure of the relationship between latent and observable variables in the theory and there could be a possibility of correlation of each observable item/variable with each latent factor. EFA statistically identifies that which observed variable/item relate to which specific construct or latent factor. EFA is used to explore any possible underlying factor structure without imposing any preconceived structure (Child, 1990). Based on ‘a priori’ theory, CFA on the other hand helps researchers to identify any specific relationship structure between observed items/variables and latent factor. CFA is usually used when the relationship between the latent factor and its respective observable items is developed from the literature and/or backed by any theory, and researcher intends to verify the preconceived structure. Although researchers tend to use either EFA or CFA in their studies, EFA can be used if CFA fails to provide the required results (Firat, Kulakaç, Öncel, & Akcan, 2009; Suhr, 2006).

In the literature, debate regarding the efficacy of factor analysis to provide desirable and accurate result is mixed and there are people who find it an ultimate technique whereas others declare it totally useless in all means. Since both groups carry convincing arguments, it seems, as is usually the case, the truth is somewhere in between. If applied with due diligence and in appropriate research settings, factor analysis can largely help explore the data to identify underlying factor pattern, confirm hypotheses (if any), or reduce relatively a large set of variables to a manageable number (Streiner, 2013). The use of factor analysis technique is most recommended for the studies where instruments are used for evaluation (Briggs & Cheek, 1986).

In this study, factor analysis was applied to identify the relationship structure between the latent factor i.e. job, career, innovation, teamwork, citizenship, and management, and their respective observable items/variables duly identified from the literature. It is pertinent to mention that, the survey instrument used in this research was adapted from Welbourne et al. (1998). The instrument originally carried 20 items against five factors namely Job, Career, Innovation, Team Work, and Citizenship. As has been explained in the previous “instrument development” part of this study, the original instrument was
developed and tested in a western context. In order to ensure its relevance in this study’s context which also primarily is an eastern context, the content and questions of this instrument were discussed with academics and corporate experts. During this procedure, five new performance indicators were identified and thus included in the original instrument with very minor changes in the language. In consultation with experts and the related literature, one new item out of five, was included into an existing dimension called “Team Work” and for other new four items another factor called “Managerial Behaviours’ was proposed.

Although the field items/questions used in the questionnaire were same, but the final questionnaire was divided into two parts. In first part respondent organizations were required to indicate the level of importance of the performance indicators, whereas in second part they were required to rate the actual performance of an employee against the same indicators. In this way respondent organizations provided feedback about the same statements but for two different reasons i.e. importance of the particular indicator and performance of an employee on that indicator. For CFA it was necessary to decide on which data set of the questionnaire was to be used in the analysis. The data set containing organizations’ rating of “importance of performance dimensions/indicators” was used in the factor analysis. The rationale behind this decision is that the main objective of this study was to identify organizations’ satisfaction with EMBA programmes which was indirectly measured through EMBA degree holder managers’ actual performance only in those areas that organizations find important/critical for managerial performance. And this was the reason that organizations were first asked to indicate the importance of performance indicators. The intention behind this ‘importance’ question was that only those performance dimensions/indicators were to be retained in the subsequent analysis and discussion part that would have been found important/critical by the organizations. Since, the prime objective behind applying factor analysis was to obtain construct structure to be used in subsequent parts, it was found most appropriate to use ‘importance’ related data set for the confirmatory factor analysis.
Since, ‘a priori’ criteria to confirm the factor structure and assess model fit was proposed, Confirmatory Factors Analysis (CFA), with a six factor model, was tested to determine whether the proposed factors loading needed any modification or refinement. CFA is considered a more appropriate tool especially for a research that uses an already established instrument (Bryman & Cramer, 1994). The values of GFI, CFI, RMSEA, NFI, and AGFI were observed to see the fitness of the model with the proposed factors. Although, the model fulfilled some of the criteria of a model fit, on the whole, the test could not produce satisfactory results to address the acceptable ranges of some critical element of a good model fit.

This indicated the need to apply Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) to identify the items that had been perceived differently by the respondents. An Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) can be applied if a Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) fails to identify the proposed factor structure with the theoretical factor structure (Firat et al., 2009). EFA is a widely acknowledged and broadly used technique to identify a possible factor structure. Maximum Likelihood with Varimax rotation method and eigenvalues greater than one was applied to the same 25 items related to the importance of performance indicators. Items with factor loading less than 0.45 were removed from the instrument. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett test of sphericity were used to assess sampling adequacy and validity of the factors. Analysis revealed a five factor structure with 24 items explaining 67% of the variance. One item could not meet any of the criteria and thus was deleted from the analysis. The highest variance i.e. 45% with maximum items loadings was explained by the first factor. The Kaiser and Bartlett test values were also within highly acceptable ranges. Although, the changes in item loadings and factor structure were theoretically meaningful, various other patterns were rotated and examined for any other possible factor solution. However, the very first solution with five factors and 24 items was found more theoretically valid and appropriate for further analyses. Table-3 expresses the factor structure with respective items loadings in a descending manner. Due to some amendments in the final factors structure, the internal reliability scores for each of the five subscales and full length instrument was calculated again. As can be seen in Table-4, the test again showed the high reliability of data as the minimum value was greater than 0.80.
Table 3. Factor Analysis with Respective Items Loadings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Role-based Performance Indicators</th>
<th>Factor 1</th>
<th>Factor 2</th>
<th>Factor 3</th>
<th>Factor 4</th>
<th>Factor 5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Job Related Performance</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality of Work</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.654</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Customer service provided (internal and external)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.601</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quantity of Work</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.595</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adhering to rules and disciplinary requirements</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.594</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demonstrating ethical behaviours</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.548</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accuracy of work</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.532</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Making informed and calculated decisions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.503</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Team Related Performance</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Making sure his/her work group succeeds</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.709</td>
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<tr>
<td>Responding to the needs of others in his/her work group</td>
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<td>Sharing knowledge/experiences with others</td>
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<td>.626</td>
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<tr>
<td>Seeking information from others in his/her work group</td>
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<td>.609</td>
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<tr>
<td>Working as part of a team or work group</td>
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<td>.575</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doing things that help others when it's not part of his/her job</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.532</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Career Related Performance</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Making progress in his/her career</td>
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<td>.701</td>
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<tr>
<td>Seeking out career opportunities</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>.657</td>
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<tr>
<td>Developing skills needed for his/her future career</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>.641</td>
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<tr>
<td>Obtaining personal career goals</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.573</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Innovation Related Performance</td>
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### Table-4. Revised Reliability Test

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<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Cronbach's Alpha</th>
<th>Number of Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Job Related Performance</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career Related Performance</td>
<td>.834</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Innovation Related Performance</td>
<td>.879</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Team Related Performance</td>
<td>.882</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCB Related Performance</td>
<td>.835</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All Items</td>
<td>.940</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 6.4.1 Explanation of New Items Loadings

Interestingly, this factor analysis retained all the 20 items of the original instrument as proposed by Welbourne et al. (1998). However, one item that was originally related to organizational citizenship behaviour loaded on the team related performance dimension. The reason for this shift is quite understandable. For instance, the item given in the original scale rates employee’s citizenship behaviour against “Doing things that help others when it's not part of his/her job”. However, in this survey, respondents found it as one indicator of team work. This interpretation can be explained by using the theory of individualistic vs. collectivist culture as presented by (Hofstede, 1998). His individualistic/collectivist differentiation has been widely used to interpret differences...
among western and eastern cultures (Triandis, 2001). According to Hofstede, in individualistic cultures, individuals tend to be more focused on their self-interest and less concerned with social cohesion especially at the expense of personal loss. Collectivist cultures, on the other hand, highly regard social binding and prefer to be identified with groups even in exchange for loyalty and personal favours (Soares, Farhangmehr, & Shoham, 2007). This logic can be applied in this OCB’s item loading on team work. Welbourne et al. (1998) developed and tested this instrument in a Western context, which according to Hofstede’s study carries individualistic orientation. In that culture it is quite logical to consider beyond job helping behaviour as citizenship. However, in this study’s eastern context, which according to Hofstede contains a collectivist orientation and where social harmony and group identity are more important, it’s quite reasonable to expect and consider ‘helping behaviour’ as part of team work instead of citizenship. (Davidson, Jaccard, Triandis, Morales, & Diaz-Guerrero, 1976) asserted that in collectivist cultures the focus of individuals would be to develop close links with their social groups and to promote group’s interest instead of their own. The logical explanation of the loading of three new items on the job related performance i.e. 1) adhering to rules and disciplinary requirements, 2) demonstrating ethical behaviours, and 3) making informed and calculated decisions, needs also to be identified as it is a substantial addition in the original instrument. The very first point to validate this interpretation is the fact that these dimensions were included in the instrument in the light of the feedback from industry. There was a consensus among organizations operating in multiple industries that in one way or another, these points are considered very important to measure managerial performance especially of mid-career professionals.

Another explanation can be derived from the theory as the issue of decision making, control, and ethics in managerial roles has long been the concern of organizations for example see (Mintzberg, 1979; Perrow & Perrow, 1970; Simon, 1957). Decision making is considered as one of the primary roles that every manager’s job hold and the success, growth, and failure of an organization is seen as the result of its managers’ decision making (Daft, 2009). The process of making choices greatly depends on the ethical values and interests that managers hold while evaluating and deciding on the
different alternatives. Similarly, due to the elements of risk, uncertainty, ambiguity, and conflict involved in the decision making process along with the bounded rationality phenomenon, organizations tend to put some checks or control systems on manager’s behaviours to avoid any unpleasant circumstances (Daft, 2009). Control is a systematic process that helps organizational members to watch their behaviours in the light of some planned targets and set performance standards (Otley, 1999). Although, such targets or performance standards are set by the managers, the adherence to such established standards becomes crucial role of managers’ job (Alvesson & Willmott, 2002). In view of the above-given arguments it, therefore, seems logical to include these three dimensions under the job related performance indicators.
Chapter – 7: Research Findings

7.1 RQ-1. What Role-based performance indicators do organizations use or consider more important to measure their mid-career managers’ performance?

The very first research question of this study was aimed at identifying organizations’ perceptions regarding the importance of different role-based performance indicators for the evaluation of managerial performance. The main aim of this question was to know that which role/s organizations find ‘required or needed’ to perform the occupation and what formal criteria Pakistani business organizations use to evaluate their managers’ performance. For this purpose, 24 items/indicators measuring five different role-based performance dimensions related to Job (7 items), Career (4 items), Innovation (4 items), Team work (6 items), and Citizenship (3 items) were used. In the first column of questionnaire, organizations were asked to rate, on a scale of 1 to 5 where 1 denoted ‘Not at all important’, and 5 denoted ‘Indispensable’, the extent to which the given indicators were considered important in company’s formal performance appraisal system. Importance of five performance dimensions was calculated by using the mean importance rating of each performance indicator (all 24 performance indicators were rated) by the respondent organization. The use of ‘Mean/Average’ rating approach is common in evaluation studies of academic programs and has also been used by various researchers to evaluate executive MBA’s efficacy by measuring different stakeholders’ perceptions and/or satisfaction i.e. see (Bigirimana, Jagero, & Chinzvende, 2014; Carrel & Schoenbachler, 2001; Helmig, Bürgisser, Lichtsteiner, & Spraul, 2010; Siegert, 2008; Snyder, Kizer, Mujtaba, & Khanfar, 2011).

As Table-5 depicts, organizations, on the whole declared all the five role-based indicators “very important” for evaluating their managers’ performance, however, the job related performance dimension obtained the highest rating from the organizations with average score of 3.95, followed by the team work (Mean: 3.75), Career (Mean: 3.70), Innovation (Mean: 3.68), and Citizenship (Mean: 3.64) on a scale of 5.
Moreover, findings of this study show that within the job related performance dimension, the quality of work and accuracy of work were found as an ‘indispensable’ part of managerial performance having a mean score of 4.18 and 4.16, respectively followed by the adherence (Mean:3.95), ethics (3.95), customer service (3.93), decision making (3.78) and quantity of work (3.70) (See-Table-5).

Team related role has been found the second most important indicator of performance, in the findings of the current research, from the perspective of organizations. As can be seen in Table-5, the five components of team related role, in respect to their importance for organization are: being part of the group (Mean: 3.98), making sure his/her group succeed (Mean: 3.88), responding to other’s needs (Mean: 3.76), seeking information from others (Mean: 3.75), and sharing knowledge (Mean: 3.74) with others.

As Table-5 demonstrates, career growth potential was ranked as the third most important predictor of an employee’s role based performance. However, within this category, ‘developing skills needed for career growth’ obtained the highest importance from the organizations with a mean score of 3.81 followed by the ‘making career progress’ (Mean: 3.78), ‘obtaining personal career goals’ (Mean: 3.65) and ‘seeking career opportunities’ (3.57), on a rating scale of 5.

As per findings and Table-5, innovation related role came out to be fourth important performance dimension of the employees. The average score on this role was 3.68, which was an aggregate of the four components including, finding improved ways to do things (Mean: 3.74), creating better processes and routines (Mean: 3.73), coming up with new ideas (Mean: 3.66), and working to implement new ideas (Mean: 3.59). As Table-5 depicts, innovation in the methods and processes received relatively high scores compared with the creation and implementation of new ideas.

Although in absolute term, organizational citizenship behaviour fell into the ‘very important’ rating category, in comparison with other four dimensions it was ranked as the least preference of organizations in terms of their expectation of such behaviours from the employees. As can be seen in Table-5, the aggregate average score on this performance dimension is 3.64 which is the aggregate of three components, including
‘working for the overall good of the company’ (Mean: 3.74), ‘helping so that the company is a good place to be’ (Mean: 3.61) and ‘doing things to promote the company’ (Mean: 3.58).

Table-5. Ranking of Importance of Role-based Performance Dimensions by Mean of Respective Indicators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Role-based Performance Indicators</th>
<th>Individual Mean</th>
<th>Composite Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1. Job Related Performance</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quantity of Work</td>
<td>3.7093</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality of Work</td>
<td>4.1848</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accuracy of work</td>
<td>4.1611</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Customer service provided (internal and external)</td>
<td>3.9360</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adhering to rules and disciplinary requirements</td>
<td>3.9589</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demonstrating ethical behaviours</td>
<td>3.9595</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Making informed and calculated decisions</td>
<td>3.7831</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2. Team Related Performance</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working as part of a team or work group</td>
<td>3.9823</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seeking information from others in his/her work group</td>
<td>3.7503</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Making sure his/her work group succeeds</td>
<td>3.8841</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responding to the needs of others in his/her work group</td>
<td>3.7628</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sharing knowledge/experiences with others</td>
<td>3.7448</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doing things that help others when it's not part of his/her job</td>
<td>3.4372</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 3. Career Related Performance 3.70

| Obtaining personal career goals | 3.6572 |
| Developing skills needed for his/her future career | 3.8103 |
| Making progress in his/her career | 3.7886 |
| Seeking out career opportunities | 3.5719 |

### 4. Innovation Related Performance 3.68

| Coming up with new ideas | 3.6645 |
| Working to implement new ideas | 3.5983 |
| Finding improved ways to do things | 3.7422 |
| Creating better processes and routines | 3.7352 |

### 5. OCB Related Performance 3.64

| Working for the overall good of the company | 3.7404 |
| Doing things to promote the company | 3.5717 |
| Helping so that the company is a good place to be | 3.6128 |

7.2 RQ-2. Does the importance consideration of different Role-based performance measures differ due to the industry, size, geographic scope, and ownership status differences?

The purpose of this question was to explore if organizations of different sizes, geographic scope, ownership status, and working in different industries perceive the
importance of given performance dimensions/indicators differently/similarly. This analysis was necessary to identify if there was any influence of these variables on the perceived importance of different performance indicators by organizations. The roles that employees are expected to perform in organization are largely influenced by the context in which they work. For instance, conventional public organizations, compared with privately run enterprises, expect their employees to showcase adherence to rules instead of getting into risky and innovative behaviours. Similarly, organizations having operations across borders and cultures expect their managerial workforce to be well-versed in team and people management skills. Small organizations usually build their advantage on the innovativeness and responsiveness which require the workforce to be more adaptive and innovative. Since, the objective of this study was to identify a generalizable performance evaluation framework of mid-career professionals, it was necessary to ensure if the given role-based performance indicators were being followed by every type of organization.

For this purpose, Independent-Samples t-test and ANOVA were deployed. These tests are widely used statistical tools to compare group means which allow researchers to identify the magnitude of difference among two groups, if any, by specifying a confidence level. The t-test is commonly used when one variable is a continuous interval/ratio scale variable (in this study’s case performance dimension) and the grouping variable is a two-level categorical variable (such as public vs. private organization). The ANOVA test on the other hand is deployed when the objective is to compare the means between three or more groups as it identifies the differences between means of groups, and not differences between variances. The information about the above-mentioned four variables was obtained in the general information section of questionnaire (see Appendix-1). For instance, respondents were asked to indicate if the company was operating in manufacturing, services, or both industries. This variable was then coded as 1, 2, and 3 respectively with same labels in the SPSS. Geographic scope/span was identified whether the firm was operating within national boundary (code- 1, label- national firm) or across borders (code- 2, label- multinational firm). The size of the organization was determined by using the number of employees. An organization having less than 1000 employees was coded as 1 and labelled as small-
size, having 1001-3000 employees as 2 and medium-size, and having more than 3000 employees was coded as 3 and labelled as large scale organization. Ownership status was identified if the firm was run privately, publicly, or semi-publicly. This variable was coded as 1, 2, and 3 respectively with the same labels.

T-test was used to identify any significant differences among two groups of organizations regarding the importance of different role-based performance indicators, as found in question number one, on the basis of their geographical span/scope of operations i.e. national and multinational firms, and nature of industry i.e. manufacturing or services they were operating in. Geographic span and industry type were coded as categorical whereas perceived importance of role-based performance indicators as continuous variables for this test. Composite scores of perceived importance of different role-based performance indicators against their respective categories were used for this test with the understanding that difference for every single performance indicator would be calculated later for the categories where significant value is found. Category wise mean-difference analysis of all five role-based performance dimensions i.e. job, career, innovation, team-work, and OCB showed that although mean difference existed among groups of national and multinational, and private and public organizations, however none of the difference was found to be significant. Details of the results are appended in Appendix 2. The findings of highly insignificant values further made it irrelevant to go for every single performance indicator-wise analysis.

ANOVA test was used to identify any significant differences among more than two groups of organizations regarding the perceived importance of different role-based performance dimensions, as found in question number one, on the basis of their ownership (i.e. private, public, semi-public) and size (i.e. small, medium, large) of the organization. Ownership and size of the organizations were coded as categorical whereas perceived importance of role-based performance indicators were coded as continuous variables for this test. Composite scores of perceived importance of different role-based performance indicators against their respective categories were used for this test with the same understanding that differences for every single performance indicator
would be calculated later for the categories where significant value is found. Category wise mean-difference analysis of all five role-based performance dimensions i.e. job, career, innovation, team-work, and OCB showed that although mean difference existed among groups of private, public, and semi-public, and small, medium and large organizations, however none of the difference was found to be significant. Details of the results are appended in Appendix 3. This finding of highly insignificant values further made it irrelevant to go for every single performance indicator-wise analysis.

7.3 RQ-3. What is the satisfaction level of organizations with respect to the effectiveness of Executive MBA program in enhancing post-degree Role-based performance of their mid-career managers at workplace?

This is the most critical and central question of this research, as it aimed to identify the extent to which Executive MBA programmes had been responding effectively to the needs and demands of industry in terms of imparting the knowledge, skills, abilities, and attitudes among the participants that would increase their role based performance at the workplace after completion of their degree programme. This measurement was crucial for many stakeholders as the gap between industry and academia has been pointed out by many researchers and practitioners. The regular MBA in this regard has received more criticism and the Executive MBA degree programme was exclusively initiated to close this gap. For this purpose, the same 24 items/indicators measuring 5 different role based performance dimensions related to Job (7 items), Career (4 items), Innovation (4 items), Team work (6 items), and Citizenship (3 items) were used. In the second column of questionnaire, organizations were asked to rate the actual performance of their Executive MBA degree holder employees against the given role based performance dimensions/indicators on a rating scale of 1 to 5 where 1 denoted ‘needs much improvement’ and 5 denoted ‘Excellent’. Higher score on this scale was a proxy of satisfaction with employees’ performance. Just like research question 1, Average scores of all the five dimensions and 24 items were calculated separately to identify the satisfaction of organizations with their managers.
Organizations on the whole showed their high satisfaction with Executive MBAs to enhance mid-career managers’ post-degree role based performance at the workplace. As Table-6 depicts, organizations rated their executive MBA graduates’ performance “good” as the average scores of all the five performance dimensions fell into ‘4’ rating category on a scale of 5. However, just like the importance dimension, organizations’ satisfaction with managers’ job related performance was highest with a mean score of 3.58 in comparison of OCB (Mean: 3.51), Career (Mean: 3.49), Team work (Mean: 3.49), and Innovation (Mean: 3.48).

Moreover, findings (see Table-6) showed that among the sub-categories of job related performance, quality of work (Mean: 3.65) and demonstration of ethical behaviours (Mean: 3.65) are the two dimensions which organizations are relatively most satisfied with, as compared to adherence to rules (Mean: 3.63), accuracy of work (Mean: 3.62), decision making (Mean: 3.56), customer service (Mean: 3.55), and quantity of work (Mean: 3.45). It is pertinent to note that the difference between other six sub-categories is higher in case of quantity of work, customer service, and decision making roles.

Organizational citizenship was rated as second highest satisfactory area (Mean: 3.51) of managerial performance. As given in Table-6, the average score of organizations’ satisfaction with sub-categories of OCB is highest in the case of ‘helping so that the company is good place to be’ (Mean: 3.56), followed by ‘working for overall good of the company’ (Mean: 3.55), and ‘doing things to promote the company (Mean: 3.44).

As Table-6 demonstrates, organizations showed their satisfaction with managers’ career growth related performance at third position (Mean: 3.49). However, within this category, making progress in career received the relatively highest satisfaction (Mean: 3.55) whereas seeking out career opportunities got the lowest ranking (Mean: 3.43). ‘Obtaining personal career goals’ and ‘developing skills for career’ got average scores of 3.50 each.

Team related role has been ranked fourth. Organizations showed their high satisfaction (Mean: 3.48) with team work related performance of executive MBA graduates, in comparison to the previous three dimension they were less effective in this area. Within
this category, ‘making sure that group succeeds’ (Mean: 3.60) and ‘working as part of a team’ (Mean: 3.59) got the highest satisfaction whereas ‘doing what helps others’ (Mean: 3.31) received the lowest satisfaction of organizations (see Table-6).

As shown in Table-6, although the average score of innovation related performance is 3.44 on a scale of 5 which means again ‘good’, but this is the area where organizations showed their least satisfaction level in comparison with the other four dimensions. Within this category, ‘creating better processes and routines’ got the highest score (Mean: 3.50) whereas ‘coming up with new ideas’ received the lowest rating (Mean: 3.37).

Table-6. Organizations’ level of satisfaction with manager’s post-degree performance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Role-based Performance Indicators</th>
<th>Individual Mean</th>
<th>Composite Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1- Job Related Performance</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quantity of Work</td>
<td>3.4571</td>
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<tr>
<td>Quality of Work</td>
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<td>Accuracy of work</td>
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<tr>
<td>Customer service provided (internal and external)</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adhering to rules and disciplinary requirements</td>
<td>3.6397</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demonstrating ethical behaviours</td>
<td>3.6571</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Making informed and calculated decisions</td>
<td>3.5685</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2- OCB Related Performance</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working for the overall good of the company</td>
<td>3.5571</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Category</td>
<td>Score</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doing things to promote the company</td>
<td>3.4429</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helping so that the company is a good place to be</td>
<td>3.5643</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3- Career Related Performance</td>
<td>3.49</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obtaining personal career goals</td>
<td>3.5000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing skills needed for his/her future career</td>
<td>3.5000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Making progress in his/her career</td>
<td>3.5500</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seeking out career opportunities</td>
<td>3.4357</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4- Team Related Performance</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working as part of a team or work group</td>
<td>3.5929</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seeking information from others in his/her work group</td>
<td>3.5071</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Making sure his/her work group succeeds</td>
<td>3.6071</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responding to the needs of others in his/her work group</td>
<td>3.4714</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sharing knowledge/experiences with others</td>
<td>3.4303</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doing things that help others when it's not part of his/her job</td>
<td>3.3143</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5- Innovation Related Performance</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coming up with new ideas</td>
<td>3.3714</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working to implement new ideas</td>
<td>3.4786</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finding improved ways to do things</td>
<td>3.4494</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creating better processes and routines</td>
<td>3.5071</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
7.4 RQ-4. Does Executive MBA meet/exceed organizations’ expectations in terms of enhancing mid-career managers’ post-degree Role-based performance?

The objective of this question was to see if the Executive MBA meets/exceeds organization’s expectations that they hold regarding improvements in managers’ role based performance as a result of industry-focused executive education. In other words, this question was related to the satisfaction level of organizations with the efficacy of the Executive MBA programme in terms of the developing capacity of its participants to effectively perform those roles that organizations consider really important for their performance. Despite several studies undertaken to measure the performance of Executive MBA programmes, very few have investigated the contribution of EMBAs from the perspective of the employing organizations, which are the primary consumers of these programmes’ output. To measure the level of satisfaction of employing organizations with the EMBA in terms of enhancing mid-career managers’ post-degree role-based performance, this study adopted a relatively unique approach developed by (Abduh, Clare, Ali, & Henry, 2007) and later used and endorsed by others i.e. see (Lilai, 2010; Shahzad, Ali, Bajwa, & Zia, 2012). This approach is indirectly consistent with the gap five of the SERVQUAL model as proposed by Parasuraman et al. (2004), which measures organizations’ performance expectations (importance of performance dimensions/indicators) and the level of actual performance received (actual performance delivered by graduates at workplace) of Executive MBA programmes. This is measured in terms of how much importance organizations give to different role-based indicators in managerial performance, and what the perceptions of organizations in terms of EMBA’s capability of developing participants’ capability to perform in those important areas. An organization will be considered satisfied in a situation where the value/score of actual rated performance of EMBA degree holder employee against any given performance indicator will be greater than the value/score of perceived importance of that same performance indicator. On the other hand an organization will be considered dissatisfied in a situation where the value/score of perceived importance of any specific performance indicators will be greater than the value/score of actual performance of any EMBA degree holder employee on that same performance indicator. This technique will be helpful in categorizing any set of performance indicators with regard to
organizations’ level of satisfaction/dissatisfaction with the marked difference between
expected and received performance (i.e. see Abduh et al. 2007).

For this purpose, a Paired-Samples t-test was used to compare the perceptions of
organizations regarding the importance of five role based performance dimensions and
Executive MBA degree holder managers’ performance on those dimensions. The aim
was to identify if any significant differences exist in importance-satisfaction domains.
Paired sample t-test is a statistical tool that can be used to compare means of same
group about two related dimensions. In this study, this test was used to compare the
difference of perception of organizations about two different matters i.e. importance of
performance indicators, and actual performance of EMBA graduate managers on those
indicators. The use of paired sample t-test for mean comparison is very common in
researches of multiple disciplines i.e. see (Bradley, Waliczek, & Zajicek, 1999; Hendrickson, Massey, & Cronan, 1993; Mee & Chua, 1991).

The mean difference between the importance and effectiveness was calculated by
subtracting the importance score from the actually rated performance score and by
setting the suggested confidence level. A positive mean difference would be interpreted
as the programme exceeds expectations, and vice versa. For instance, numerically
speaking, if an organization rates innovation as 4-level (on a scale of 5) important
indicator of its managerial performance, and then rates actual performance of one
employee as 5-level which is maximum score on a scale of 1 to 5 on the same
performance indicator, this can be considered as a proxy that that employee exceeds the
organization’s expectations in terms of performing on that specific indicator (i.e. actual
performance minus perceived importance of performance; means 5 – 4 = +1), and vice
versa.

As Table-7 shows, significant negative differences for all performance dimensions
prevail among the organizations regarding the perceived importance of the given five
indicators for managers’ performance and the actual rated performance of the Executive
MBA graduate managers on these performance dimensions. In absolute terms, this
difference is not huge, but in relative terms, it is highest in the case of job related
performance (Mean: -0.37) and lowest in the case of OCB (Mean: -0.13). Team work
(Mean: -0.27), innovation (Mean: -0.24), and career (Mean: -0.21) have also received the negative feedback.

Table-7. Paired-Samples t-test: Difference between importance and satisfaction dimensions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Performance Indicators</th>
<th>Perceived Importance</th>
<th>Perceived Effectiveness</th>
<th>Mean Difference (E-I)</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Job</td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>3.58</td>
<td>-0.37</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>3.49</td>
<td>-0.21</td>
<td>.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Innovation</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>-0.24</td>
<td>.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Team Work</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>-0.27</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCB</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>3.51</td>
<td>-0.13</td>
<td>.046</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Negative (-) sign means EMBA does not meet role based performance expectation.

7.5 RQ-5. Does the perception of organizations regarding Executive MBA effectiveness in enhancing graduate managers’ Role-based performance vary due to the industry, size, geographic scope, and ownership status?

Just like research question number two, the purpose of this question was to explore the similarity/difference (if any) in organizations’ experienced effectiveness of Executive MBA programmes in terms of enhancing managers’ post-degree role-based performance at workplace due to differences in organization’s size, geographic scope, ownership status, and industry. This question was pertinent mainly because of the fact that the previous question found statistical significant differences in organizations’ understanding about the level of EMBA’s effectiveness across all five performance dimensions. Therefore, it was necessary to identify if there was any influence of these
variables on the organizations’ view about EMBA’s effectiveness. The rational of considering these contextual variables has already been explained in research question number two.

T-test was used to identify differences of effectiveness among two groups of organizations on the basis of their geographical span/scope of operations i.e. national and multinational firms, and nature of industry i.e. manufacturing or services they were operating in. These variables were coded and named in the same way as was done previously in question number two. Composite scores of effectiveness of five role-based performance dimensions were used for this test with the understanding that difference for every single performance indicator would be calculated later for the categories where significant value is found. Category wise mean-difference analysis of all five role-based performance dimensions i.e. job, career, innovation, team-work, and OCB showed that although mean differences existed among groups of national and multinational, and private and public organizations, however none of the difference was found significant. This found highly insignificant values further made it irrelevant to go for every single performance indicator-wise analysis.

ANOVA test was used to identify effectiveness differences among more than two groups of organizations on the basis of their ownership (i.e. private, public, and semi-public) and size (i.e. small, medium, large). Variables were coded and named as per research question number two. Composite scores of effectiveness of five role-based performance dimensions were used for this test with the same understanding that differences for every single performance indicator would be calculated later for the categories where significant value is found. Category wise mean-difference analysis of all five role-based performance dimensions i.e. job, career, innovation, team-work, and OCB showed that although mean difference existed among groups of private, public, and semi-public, and small, medium and large organizations, however none of the difference was found significant. This found highly insignificant values further made it irrelevant to go for every single performance indicator-wise analysis.
Chapter – 8: Discussion

8.1 Discussion of Results

The main objective of this study was to investigate if Executive MBA programmes in Pakistan meet/exceed organizations’ expectations by enhancing graduate managers’ role-based performance at the workplace. For this purpose the first question investigated the prevalence and importance of different role-based performance indicators that organizations use or consider more important to measure their mid-career managers’ performance.

The first question aimed at identifying the most important roles of an employee from the perspective of the organization. The objective was to discern the importance of various roles, derived from role based performance theory, from the organizations’ perspective. More specifically, the aim was to obtain a list of the most important to least important roles, so that roles that organizations consider more significant and expect EMBA to perform on the job could be identified.

The results revealed that despite growing acceptance of the notion that employee performance should be measured through multiple dimensions (Welbourne et al., 1998), job related performance remains the central concern for organizations. The finding reiterated the traditional thinking which focussed on the job and its requisite tasks as key performance measurement criteria. As noted by Austin and Villanova (1992), traditionally, job role has been one of the widely used and researched indicators. The finding also dovetails with the goal approach of performance management, which focuses on task performance in organizational task settings (Janssen & Van Yperen, 2004). Lawler (1986) proposed that all performance measurement initiatives are taken to encourage employees to improve on the given tasks so that group and organizational goals are met. The goal approach suggests that though various goals may be included in employee performance, the productivity goal is the central point of reference for measuring performance. Furthermore, to effectively measure performance in terms of productivity, there should be a precise measure of productivity, including quality and
quantity of the output produced by an employee. Role based theory postulates that the presence of such a system itself is a key factor in motivating employees to perform. Moreover, the findings of this study show that within the job related performance elements, the quality of work and accuracy of work are the most important dimensions respectively. This finding, therefore, posits that contrary to the traditional practices whereby the productivity of employees was measured through the quantity of work, organization in today’s competitive arena are more concerned with quality and accuracy of the performed task. This finding contributes towards the Balanced Score Card approach (Kaplan & Norton, 2001), which includes quality of work in performance indicators. The focus on quality of work is, thus, not new in performance management; however, its manifestation as the foremost performance indicator is indeed a new phenomenon, particularly in case of Pakistan’s business environment. Arguably, this could also be a possible reason behind the fact that, recently, despite numerous challenges, in terms of energy crises and the deteriorating law and order situation, Pakistan’s economy has performed better than expected and in comparison to many developed economies (Ministry of Finance Report, 2011-12). In the organizational literature, the ability to demonstrate quality of work and accuracy is linked with effectiveness of employees; and as noted by Boyatzis (2009) the key objective of any executive programme is to develop and produce highly productive employees. To be able to perform effectively, the employees should be learning-cantered and aware of the strategic needs of the organization, which are key elements of executive MBA programmes (Conger & Xin, 2000).

An increasing volume of research suggests that work performance is twofold, the work required in organization and discretionary employee behaviours that are important to undertake that work (Dyne & LePine, 1998). Accordingly, researchers have suggested that, managers in order to perform well must master behavioural and cognitive role engagement within the cultural norms of the organization. The findings of the current research show that adhering to the culture and ethical behaviours are a high priority of organizations. In so far as adhering to the norms of the culture are concerned, the findings are totally aligned with the growing evidence that organizational culture is very important for individual as well as organizational performance and therefore
performance measurement should include the contribution of employees to sustain and enrich organizational culture (Hofstede et al., 1990). Conformity with cultural norms is decisive because firms’ dynamic capabilities, embedded in its systems and processes are shaped and modified though distinctive employee behaviours, which ultimately lead towards firms’ performance (Nonaka & Teece, 2001).

As far as ethical employee behaviour is concerned, this high preference is reflective of the growing importance of ethics in managerial practices (Joyner & Payne, 2002). This growing importance of ethics is partially linked with expanding recent social pressures on organizations to demonstrate corporate social responsibility and partially to the fact that unethical employee behaviour may undermine organizational spirit and hence its performance (O’Rourke, 2003). In a study of the linkage between an organization’s commitment to ethics and financial performance, Mackey, Mackey, and Barney (2007) found that those corporations that explicitly commit to an ethical code of conduct were on higher ranks of financial performance.

Some scholars have argued that customer orientation prevails mostly in service industries whereas manufacturing industry has been rather less concerned with customer services (Batt, 2002). The findings of the current study, however, suggest that be it a service or manufacturing organization, customer service is considered a major element of job related roles. The findings are consistent with assertions of the Balanced Score Card approach which includes customer services as a key constituent of performance system of organization, and stakeholder approach, which underscores the need to include customer orientation in performance management systems.

The findings of this study showed managers’ ability to take informed and calculated risks as organizations’ highly preferred managerial trait. Since, organizations are facing a significant turbulence in their business environment, which is characterized by a high need to change itself according to changing business conditions, flexibility and adaptability to the changes become a key behavioural aspect of managers (Daft, 2009). Many scholars have suggested that in the wake of such dynamic conditions, future decision makers would need to quickly make sense of environmental changes and make rapid adjustments. In such complex situation, understandably, the ability to keep abreast
with required information and make calculated decisions is a key behavioural trait that could help organization in remaining effective (Snowden & Boone, 2007).

A study conducted by Kathuria (2000) revealed that the quantity of work done by employees depends on the strategy of the firm. The findings of this study show that in job related performance, quantity is at the bottom level of work related role. This finding connects with recent assertions of strategic thinking that competitive advantage in today’s business environment requires an organization, and thus, its human resources to keep focus on output but at the same time on quality and innovation.

Team related role performance has been found to be the second most important role in the findings of current research, from the perspective of the organizations. Organizations’ inclination toward team based performance is due to a positive and strong correlation between teams and organizational performance (Certo, Lester, Dalton, & Dalton, 2006). The five components of team related roles, in respect to their importance for organizations are being part of the group, making sure his/her group succeed, responding to others’ needs, seeking information from others, and sharing knowledge with others. The first two ranked components are related to the cohesiveness and performance norms of the team. Research has shown that when team members have high cohesiveness and a shared performance norm, they yield maximum performance (Langfred, 2000). It is suggested that this cohesiveness comes in teams because of a commitment to the task as well as commitment to interpersonal interaction.

Furthermore, authors suggested that cohesiveness that emanates from commitment to task, instead of commitment to interaction, leads towards high performance. Previous findings fit in with the findings of this study such that the organization deems a combination of belongingness (feeling part of the team) and performance orientation (making sure that group succeeds), comes foremost in terms of the team related behaviour of employees. The third ranked component is responding to the needs of others, which arguably is because of increased pressure of performance from the organization, which consequently expects from those employees who are good in terms of abilities and performance, to support other members of organization in performing their roles (Schermherhorn Jr, 2009).
The remaining two components – seeking information from others, and sharing knowledge – are related to the increasing importance of knowledge management practices in the organization. Contemporary research tends to show that knowledge sharing and dissemination across the organization in a holistic manner generates an atmosphere of organizational learning which further paves the way towards developing sustainable competitive advantages (Bontis et al., 2002; Warf, 2007). If employees demonstrate behaviour for seeking information and sharing knowledge with each other, organizations would be able to exploit their knowledge resources and harness knowledge based core competencies, over the period of time. A large amount of research has suggested the inclusion of knowledge sharing practices in performance management systems, as they facilitate overall organizational performance (Hsu, 2008). The Balanced scorecard approach of performance management also includes knowledge sharing as a performance indicator.

Organizations consider career related performance as a third important role of the employees comprising developing skills needed for his/her future career, making progress in his/her career and obtaining personal career goals respectively. It is pertinent to note here that although virtually all performance management systems include career as one of the purposes of undertaking a performance appraisal exercise, in role based performance systems, an employee’s role in seeking their career development is considered as a performance indicator. As Barnett and Miner (1992) noted, in opposition to the traditional view that organizations should provide career opportunities to employees, it is rather the responsibility of both the organization and employees. Welbourne et al. (1998) suggested that because of heightened competition and cost cutting, organizations alone cannot provide career progression to all employees, and therefore while they provide opportunities, the role of employees is to proactively develop themselves so as to gain the career progression. The findings of this research, thus, substantiate the abovementioned assertions by suggesting that this is indeed a third important expected role of executive MBAs. The highest score against developing skills needed for future careers is perfectly aligned with Barnett and Miner (1992) who assert that organizations do aim to give a career progression to their employees but at the same time want them to upgrade their skills and competence to
prove themselves worthy of it. While researchers in various western countries are reported to demonstrate this realization, it is interesting to note that Pakistani organizations are also responding in the same fashion. This signifies that developing countries like Pakistan are faced by the same challenges, and are receptive to the adoption of global thinking and management styles.

The innovation related role comes out to be fourth important role of employees including, finding improved ways to do things, creating better processes and routines, coming up with new ideas and working to implement new ideas. The importance of innovation related facets, in organizational performance, were initially augmented by the emergence of the total quality approach, which advocated the need for continuous improvement and being innovative in performing organizational tasks (Kaynak, 2003). A good deal of empirical research provides evidence to show that innovation has become an essential requirement for firms’ survival and hence performance (Davila, Epstein, & Shelton, 2012). Some scholars have also linked innovation with entrepreneurial organizations and proposed that an enhanced focus on entrepreneurship is an outcome of an entrepreneurial orientation in business management. The postulation is based on the classic assertion of Schumpeter (1942) that entrepreneurship is an organizational foray, instead of an individual’s forte, and future organization would be deploying more resources to innovation. A similar line of argument was given by (Miller, 1983) who suggested that an entrepreneurial firm is the one which is involved in product market innovation, undertakes risky course of action to some extent and is first to come up with 'proactive' innovations, beating competitors to the punch. The findings of the current study show that organizations deem finding new ways of doing work and creating better process and routines as the most important components of being innovative and hence expect their employees to perform these important roles. The notion of finding new ways and better routines and processes has long been the central focus of organizations and has been pivotal in a variety of organizational theories, for instance intellectual capital, change management, learning organizations, dynamic capabilities and business strategy. It is interesting to note that among the four dimensions of the innovation related role ‘finding improved ways to do things’ and ‘creating better processes and routines’ got the highest score. It can therefore be argued
that organizations believe that executive MBAs, being mid-career professionals and middle tier managers, have a more innovation related role in bringing improvements to their current tasks and respective systems and processes. Whereas components related to bringing new ideas and to implement the proposed changes got a relatively low score, which shows that organizations do not consider it that important especially at middle-management level. Traditionally, new ideas and implementation is considered to be the domain of top tier management. That being so, it can be argued that Pakistani organizations still favour the traditional approach, whereby idea generation and implementation is a top management role, in contrast to the latest concepts of the learning organization and knowledge management, which suggest that idea generation and the implementation of change is everybody’s collective job (Carson, Tesluk, & Marrone, 2007).

Organizational citizenship behaviour is ranked as the lowest preference of organizations in terms of their expectation of the roles of their employees. One possible explanation of this neglect could be that many of citizenship behaviours are construed as expected team roles in the organization and adhering to the rules of the company. A somewhat similar argument was presented by Podsakoff, Ahearne, and MacKenzie (1997) who suggest that despite there being pervasive recognition of organizational citizenship behaviours (OCBs) in contemporary literature, there is evidence that these forms of behaviour improve the effectiveness of organizations. Nonetheless, the importance of this role remains pertinent and significant because it has been rated as an essential by organizations and has been supported by many researchers. LePine, Erez, and Johnson (2002), for example, argued that there is a strong relationships between citizenship behaviour and organizational wellbeing. The authors also suggested that among other dimensions of OCB, helping behaviour is more significant. This conclusion is totally aligned with the finding of the current research which showed that organizations rate the ‘helping others role’ as a very important dimension of employee performance. The high score on working for the overall good of the company, and helping others so that the organization becomes a good place to work, shows that local organizations do consider the importance of work environment for high productivity.
The second research question looked at the differences in perceived importance of different roles in relation to size, industry, geographic scope and ownership status. The objective was to understand if the perceived importance of role varied in the light of these variables. The findings showed no difference in the perceived importance by these factors, thereby substantiating the robustness of role based measures of evaluation, being valid across various size and types of industry. Therefore, it can be argued that this measure is comprehensive enough to be effective in different geographical areas and regardless of the nature of ownership.

The third question measured the satisfaction of organizations with the post degree role based performance of executive MBAs. Since the central issue of the current research is to measure the effectiveness of EMBA from the perspective of organizations, by using role-based performance theory, this question was aimed at categorically measuring the perceived satisfaction of respondent organizations, against each of the important roles for the organization. The following section discusses the possible reasons and implications of the gap, if any, between perceived important roles and demonstrated performance of EMBAs against each role.

Out of seven dimensions, quality of work and demonstrating ethical behaviours got equal and highest scores in terms of those employees’ performance who have an executive MBA education. As discussed in the first question, the quality of work was also mentioned as the top role dimension in terms of the requirements of the surveyed organizations. The result therefore suggests that the EMBA can be seen as being effective in meeting the demands of organizations in terms of job related roles. This is because of the curriculum of EMBA is designed in the light of the needs of the organizations. This demand driven curriculum of the EMBA paves the way to develop and produce efficient and effective employees by augmenting the orientation of learning and being cognizant of the strategic needs of the organization (Conger & Xin, 2000). As noted by Crotty and Soule (1997), typically, the content of the EMBA is more industry centred and the materials are up-to-date so as to accommodate the high expectations of companies. The second component, where EMBA graduates are found to be effective in result of the present study, is demonstrating ethical behaviour. Again, the credit for this
high score goes to the curriculum of the EMBA which provokes the need for ethical considerations in managerial practices. Despite specialized courses in business ethics, the curriculum of most of EMBA courses includes a discussion of ethical dilemmas being faced by managers, which besides emphasizing corporate social responsibility and business ethics (Christensen et al., 2007), also raises the moral and ethical standards of the graduates. The ethical behaviour also calls for the need to adhere to organizational policies and norms. Accordingly, the satisfaction of organizations with EMBA graduates is ranked third in this study. Recently, a similar proposition has been suggested by Kinicki and Williams (2012), who suggested that the functional role of middle managers includes effort to implement organizational policies and plans, on top of it, they guide, inspire and direct lower management towards achieving set plans and established policies. The accuracy of work was rated at number four, by organizations. In terms of its importance, it was ranked at number two. This high score again strengthens the finding that EMBA programmes have revamped curricula so that these can offer more practical skills to their participants (Choi, 2011a) that are immediately applicable at their workplaces (Bell, 2008), and therefore EMBA graduates perform well in effectively performing their task related role. Satisfaction with customer service provided (internal and external) dimensions has been found at fifth in the study. In business courses, it is a well-known dictum that the customer is the boss and as noted by Hiam and Schewe (1992) marketing courses in MBA programmes specifically emphasize the importance of customer services. Madzar and Citron (2009) found in a survey that there has been an increased number of faculty members teaching on EMBAs, who are professionally qualified and are working full-time in various management education programs. Such faculty is better at synthesizing delivery content in a more pragmatic manner so that it helps EMBA students to build on their decision making and action oriented abilities that are critical at their work places. Interestingly, the quantity of work has achieved the lowest rank in both the preference of organizations and the performance of EMBA graduates. It reiterates the aforementioned point that EMBA graduates are expected to augment their capacity and skills which could help them improve their quantity as well as quality of the work, and given the fact
that we are living in knowledge era, the quality of work is rather more important than the quantity.

The results of the study showed that organizations perceive that after the work related role, the EMBA graduates are best at performing organizational citizenship behaviours. The OCB role was rated at the lowest level of performance by the organizations. This disparity is consistent with the argument of Podsakoff et al. (1997) that despite the pervasive recognition of organizational citizenship behaviours (OCBs) in contemporary literature, there is little empirical evidence that these forms of behaviour improve the effectiveness of organizations. Organizations have been reported as being more concerned with team related roles and, arguably, construe team roles as part of the OCB. Although the exact determinants of the development of citizenship behaviours among participants cannot be identified from this finding, the relative higher score predicts that OCB is somehow embedded into the overall EMBA curriculum or teaching methodologies of programmes. Consistently, research has shown that this role is particularly important for the middle managers because of the complexity and intricacy involved in their role requires that they must master behavioural and cognitive role engagement. A possible reason for the comparatively low preference by organizations on OCB and the high score of EMBAs on this dimension could be the need to better conceptualise the concept, as argued by researchers (Van Dyne, Graham, & Dienesch, 1994).

In the present research, the career related role has got the same third ranking in both the preference of organizations and the performance of EMBA graduates. The Executive MBA inculcates in students the ability to think in a progressive way for organizations as well as for themselves. Most of the first level courses put a high emphasize on asking students about the goals, objectives and strategies to achieve them. This facet of curriculum tunes the students to be ambitious and smart in terms of their career choices. Partially, the realization of the importance of personal goals and finding innovative career move comes out of the change management and transformation content, which is extensively, taught in executive MBA programmes. Given the fact that contemporary organizations want their managers to be developed as change agents and transform the
whole culture, universities prepare their students to make smart and challenging goals and look for ‘out of the box’ solutions to achieve them. Understandably, while EMBA graduates apply this learning in their work, their inclination to do the same for their personal choices also gets augmented. This ambitious need, however, is aligned with modern organizational design, being flat and less hierarchical, which gives responsibilities as well as promising opportunities to managers as soon as they start their career (Ready, Vicere, & White, 1994; Vicere & Graham, 1990).

The findings showed that organizations ranked team related performance of EMBA graduates at fourth position. Since the EMBA necessitates a great deal of on and off-campus work in the shape of group projects, the ability of students to work with diverse team members gets enhanced. Boyatzis (2008) suggested that such practices enable a student to develop cognitive, social and emotional competences that would gear them to become effective professionals, leaders and business managers. Social and emotional competencies pave the way for managers to become good team players and to identify the importance of working in teams by demonstrating true leadership abilities. This leadership capability encourages students to help and facilitate their fellows at class and in organizations. Therefore, it seems that to develop leadership capability in adult learners, formal executive education can play a particularly important role. (Chien, 2005) in an empirical investigation reported that the EMBA curriculum was positively related to the transfer of knowledge at the workplace. The significance of this knowledge sharing is immense for the organizations as highlighted by (Al-Hakim & Hassan, 2011) that shows it to be crucial for contemporary organization to maintain the required behavioural balance among team members to avoid any stagnancy in organizational knowledge. In a study, where MBA graduates were respondents, it was found that the perception of social interaction is predictor of a knowledge sharing culture. Team related role, encourages employees to improve their social interaction in seeking information from each other and in sharing knowledge. Social interaction and team cohesiveness is particularly important for the exchange of tacit forms of knowledge. The famous SECI model of knowledge creation (Nonaka, 1994) suggested that tacit knowledge sharing starts with the social and collegial interaction of employees.
The findings of the study showed that the minimum score that EMBAs gained from their organization is related to innovation related performance. This aggregate score is comprised of four dimensions, including coming up with new ideas, working to implement new ideas, finding improved ways to do things, and creating better processes and routines. The literature shows that the objectives of executive education are usually derived from the contemporary problems that professionals and organizations face. The company sponsored programmes, consulting companies and corporate universities create an environment of competition. These competitors make it all the more important for executive education providers to rapidly adapt to the needs of the client and survive in the practical world. Therefore executive MBA programmes are most likely to undergo curriculum development in order to be innovative and dynamic (Dubas et al., 1998). This perceived need for innovation in curriculum compels universities to keep on changing their content. The findings of this study, however, show that EMBAs perform least well in terms of being innovative at the work place. Hence, it can be argued that in attempt to be innovative in their curriculum, universities are relatively under performing in terms of understanding the innovation needs of companies and incorporating them into their curriculum. This finding is also consistent with postulation of Hambrick and Mason (1984) that there are concerns that MBAs are educated to meet the short run objectives, at the expense of innovation and risk taking. The growing notion of entrepreneurial employees and entrepreneurship is an offshoot of the same line of thinking. MBAs are thought of as more calculated, pragmatic and result oriented, whereas entrepreneurial individuals are suggested to be more adaptive Haynie, Shepherd, and Patzelt (2012), risk takers who embrace the capacity to think of ‘out of the box’ solutions and hence be innovative. Nonetheless, the innovation dimension as shown by this study is substantial and suggested that the continuous efforts of universities to update their curriculum are not fruitless; organizations are satisfied with the innovation related capabilities of their EMBA graduates.

While question number one gauged perceptions of local organizations towards the most important roles of managers for their organization and question number three obtained their perceived satisfaction with EMBAs in performing important roles; the objective of question number four was to compare the gap between perceived importance and
perceived performance against each captioned role. In other words, this question aimed at bringing the results of the satisfaction of organizations with performance of EMBA graduates, which will serve as a proxy of effectiveness of EMBA programme.

The results of question number four illustrate that despite being satisfied with the effectiveness of EMBA programmes, as per the role based model, organizations perceive a considerable gap between the desired and actual level of performance of these programmes. As discussed above, organizations consider task related and team related roles the foremost important dimension of employee performance. However, as per the findings, the satisfaction level of organizations with both of these dimensions did not exceed their expectations. The analysis show that the gap is significant, which presents serious implications. In other words, the measurement of effectiveness of EMBAs through role based performance indicators, besides showing an overall satisfaction of the organizations with EMBA graduates, have substantiated prevailing concerns that there is significant gap between what is being offered and what is expected, a sharp difference between need and supply between graduate school and organization. This explains the reasons for a declining interest of organizations in investing in their employees’ development and executive education programmes. It is also pertinent to note that in the current study the gap in perceived importance and performance against roles has been found in all five studied roles. This overall underscoring of perceived effectiveness as compared to desired levels reiterates the theory-practice dilemma; that the requirements for a practical orientation, which essentially is embedded in home-grown differences of organization, cannot be easily extracted and explicated in ‘theory’; and therefore gap between theory and practice widens (Mintzberg, 2004; Yorks, 2005). That being so, the re-designing of the graduate curriculum and new strategies for graduate business schools is important and carries considerable weight in the whole process. Diversification, globalization, future interfaces, and demographics are core features that have to be incorporated in graduate education. A similar argument has been presented by Peter Lorange that most of the business schools are teaching theoretical concepts rather than problem solving and decision making skills (Lorange, 2013).
Nonetheless, these findings have rather wider implications regarding universities, students and organizations. As far as organizations are concerned, it is important to consider that as propagated by the quality management approach of performance management, there are always system factors which play a decisive role in enabling and constraining employees to perform. Considerable thought needs to be given to incorporate these factors whilst measuring performance. This is particularly true for the innovation dimension, given the fact that both the quality approaches of performance management as well as system and learning organizational theory argue that to innovate requires a synergetic combination of various organization/system factors and therefore demands innovation from employees.

Another reason for this persistent gap could be the objectives and motives of individuals who pursue EMBA programmes. The Executive MBA is usually undertaken for financial gain as well as motivational reasons. The literature has identified compensation as one of the significant motivational factors for executive graduates. Participants expect their Executive MBA programme to develop analytical thinking, self-esteem, and confidence in them. Dizik (2008) has noticed that executive participants enjoy meeting with their class-fellows and professors, and networking with them. Participants also see their Executive MBA as a source to reduce the tension and stress which they are exposed to at their workplace because of escalating demands (Jacobs, 1999). The extent, to which EMBA students objectively plan to learn new things during the programme for the sake of bringing improvement in their job, could also be an important variable in relation with EMBA and effectiveness in the job and other related roles.

 Universities had been criticized for accepting admissions to the executive MBA without setting any standard and making it a source of making money (Byrne, 1991). Similarly, many HRD specialists and practitioners have shown serious concerns regarding the high cost involved in executive education and whether such costs have justified and helped managers to reduce their management knowledge gaps. This is evident from the fact that in the past couple of years, corporate sponsorships in the
United States of America have dramatically declined towards the EMBA programmes resulting in students paying out of their own pockets (Speizer, 2007).

In summarizing the above discussion, the executive MBA programme fundamentally aims to satisfy organizations’ needs by developing individuals as competent managers with leadership skills through customized and distinct education. EMBA programmes target mid- to senior-level executives not having a formal business education or an MBA degree. The rapidly growing needs of an organization for quality managers can only be met through training, research initiatives and executive education. As training and research are more objective, task focused and limited time activities, the executive education (EMBA) is by far the most comprehensive, compact, complete and multidimensional approach that helps developing mentally robust managers, fully equipped to play their pivotal role in rapidly changing circumstance (D’Mello et al., 2008). Finally, the study shows that industry, size, geographic scope, and ownership status do not make any difference to the reported effectiveness of EMBAs. Organizations’ views about effectiveness of EMBAs appear to be indifferent to these factors. At the same time, the study substantiates that the role-based measure is an effective tool, which is valid across various types, size, and geographically dispersed organizations having different ownership status.
Chapter – 9: Conclusion

9.1 Concluding Points

With increasing complexity and dynamism in the environment of organizations, the importance of augmenting the capacity of its intellectual capital and human resources cannot be over emphasized. Executive education in this context has become increasingly popular in the last couple of decades. Since the late nineteenth century there has been an emerging need amongst organizations to have higher level managerial training programmes that could cater to the development of working professionals. This was the time when the MBA degree programmes surfaced where leading schools like Wharton’s in 1881 and Harvard’s in 1908 started to offer business degrees. The fundamental aim of executive MBA programmes was to augment the knowledge and skills of middle managers to enable them to cater for the contemporary challenges being faced by organizations. The EMBA programmes incorporated customized and distinct curricula and andragogical tools for this purpose. More specifically they aim to develop creative and critical thinking skills in individuals by advancing their professional skills, competencies, and behaviours. However, meeting the diverse expectations of its various stakeholders (i.e. organizations, participants) has always been a tough challenge for executive MBAs to face. Despite the acknowledged contribution of the executive MBA towards an individual’s development, there still exist some controversies regarding its relevance and utility for organizations. Accordingly, it has become pertinent to look to the robust frameworks of evaluation models to measure the efficacy of executive MBA programmes and further improve them by learning from the feedback of its key stakeholders, namely the graduates and organizations. Very little research encompassing the impact of the executive MBA on managers’ real time performance at the workplace and its resultant effect on organizational performance is available in general, and in the specific case of Pakistan in particular.

To bridge this gap, the current study aimed at measuring the satisfaction of organizations with the effectiveness of EMBA programmes in Pakistan. The study incorporated role based performance measures developed by Welbourne and colleagues
(1998), which measure effectiveness of five sets of roles important for the organization. Understandably, the first task was to identify the critical role-based performance measures that organizations use to measure managers’ performance and subsequently measure their perceptions towards the ability of executive MBA programmes to enhance managers’ performance against those critical role-based performance indicators. The findings of this study substantiated the robustness of the role based measure, showing that it emphasised same importance of roles for various sizes and types of organizations in Pakistan. Furthermore, the findings showed that the sample organizations considered work related roles the most important aspect of evaluation, followed by team related, career related, innovation related and organizational citizenship related roles. An extensive discussion of possible reasons and the implications of this finding have been made in the discussion section. Furthermore, the results on the efficacy of EMBA programmes against these role indicators showed that though by and large organizations seem satisfied, there exists a gap between each of the required roles. The gap in work related and team related roles have been found significant and given the reason that these two roles have been rated of foremost importance by organizations, the need to improve curriculum and teaching methods in this area have been reiterated by the findings. In conclusion, while the EMBA is effective in enabling its graduates to perform the perceived important roles within the organization, the need to reinvigorate the current EMBA offerings regularly, in accordance to changing needs of the organizations, remains pertinent.

9.2 Implications

The findings have implications for universities, students as well as for organizations. Insofar as organizations are considered, it is important to consider that despite certain concerns regarding measures and level of effectiveness, EMBA programmes are valid and robust andragogical tools for augmenting knowledge, skills and developing the behaviour of middle tier professionals, enabling them to cater to the emerging challenges for the organizations. Furthermore, the observed gap between the perceived important roles and the efficacy of EMBA graduates against these roles, demonstrate that organizations may need to give due consideration to system factors and the
enabling environment for the employees to perform at their expected levels. Secondly, organizations need to be more open towards building close collaborations with universities and be more open to sharing their problems and demands with them so that universities can design demand-driven and needs-based curriculum and teaching methods for EMBA graduates.

For executive MBA graduates, it is relevant to understand that in order to increase the financial gains and the chances of career progression by virtue of doing an Executive MBA; they have to give greater input in terms of applying the learned knowledge and skills at the workplace and bring improvements in their roles. While the EMBA gives them knowledge, motivation, critical thinking and analytical ability, and makes them expect career development and other financial and non-financial benefits, there is a need to understand that by the end of the day it is the improvement in their performance which matters.

Finally, universities had been criticized for accepting admission to the Executive MBA without setting any standard and making it a source of making money (Byrne, 1991). Similarly, many human resource development (HRD) specialists and practitioners have shown serious concerns regarding the high cost involved in executive education and whether such costs have been justified and whether they have helped managers to reduce their management knowledge gaps (Foreman, Dempsey, Robinson, & Conway, 1996). Universities, therefore, need to collaborate more closely with industry to understand their real issues and design EMBA programmes accordingly.

9.3 Limitations and Future Research

In a comprehensive model of evaluation of adult education, Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick (2007) proposed a four level framework. Level one, a focus on the evaluation of customer satisfaction (content of materials, instruction methods, facilities etc.); level two on new knowledge gained, improvement in skills, and change of attitude; level three on the extent to which earned knowledge and skills have been applied at the workplace; and finally level four on the impact of learning on the effectiveness for organizations. In the presence of such a comprehensive model, measuring the
effectiveness of the EMBA through the perception of organizations is the biggest limitation of this research. The perspectives of clients (students of the EMBA) as well as universities would give a more comprehensive view of this phenomenon. Similarly, this research has been undertaken with a limited sample size within Pakistan. Taking a larger sample size and respondents from various other countries could provide more accurate measurement of the effectiveness of the EMBA.

Instead of the perceived importance for organizations, the casual relationship of the EMBA graduates performance could provide a more precise illustration of the EMBA effectiveness. Since executive MBA programmes are traditionally compared to traditional MBA professional programmes, a comparative study of the perceived effectiveness of MBA graduates versus EMBA graduates could also be an interesting foray for future research. The same study with larger sample and including respondents from different countries is also another avenue for potential future research. Moreover, the development of a more comprehensive evaluation framework, including the relationship between curriculum, skill development and individual performance also calls for further research. Another pertinent area for future research
References


Chien, Y.-C. C. (2005). A study of Taiwan's current executive MBA programs: examining training transfer, instructional methods, career development and course design. (Doctoral Dissertation), University of Idaho, U.S.A.


Lupton, N. C., & Beamish, P. W. (2014). he mutual construction of knowledge transfer and shared context in capability development within the networked MNC


Appendix-1
Survey Instrument

Dear Respondent,

I am a university professor doing my Doctorate from University of Bath, UK. This research is being conducted as part of my Doctorate thesis. The aim of this research is to identify the extent to which Executive MBA (EMBA) education enhances the performance of participants in their respective organizations after the successful completion of their degrees. You are requested to give us your feedback on the post-EMBA performance of individual(s) who after completing degree is/are currently working in your prestigious organization. Your cooperation in this regard stands vital in the successful completion of this research. This is entirely an academic research and any information that you will share will be used anonymously and with professional confidentiality. Your company will not be identifiable in the data set or the findings. However, if you would like, the general findings of this research will be available to you. This research will help organizations to know the return/outcome of their investments that they make to develop their employees through executive education. I shall also be personally thankful for your cooperation.

General Guidelines:

- Please give feedback for only that employee who has completed his/her Executive MBA degree and is currently working in your company.
- Information required in this questionnaire should be provided only by the person who evaluates or has evaluated Executive MBA degree holder employee’s performance in your organization.
- If you have more than one Executive MBA graduates in your company, please use separate form for each candidate.

Please provide the following information about your company. (Please Tick)

Your company is into: Manufacturing__ Services__ Both__
Your company is a: National Company_____ Multinational Company_____
Your company is a: Private Company______
Public Company_______ Semi-Govt Company____

Industry/Sector which your company operates in: (i.e. banking, telecom etc.)__________________________
Does your company sponsor/encourage employees’ Executive Education? Yes___ No___
No. of employees: Less than 100____ 101-300____ 301-1000____ 1001-3000____ >3000 Employees____

Please provide the following information about the Executive MBA graduate (person) whom you are going to rate: (Please Tick)

Gender: Male___ Female___
How much time this person has spent in your company: (Years)________
Designation of this person (role):____________________________
Person’s year of completion of Executive MBA: (if known)__________
Person’s grade/points in Executive MBA: i.e. CGPA, Marks: (if known)________________

Instructions: In the first column, by using the given scale, please indicate the extent to which the given indicators are considered important by your company’s formal performance appraisal system.
In the second column, by using the given scale, please rate the performance of your Executive MBA degree holder employee against the same given indicators.
You may CIRCLE/MARK the number from 1 to 5 that you think would be more appropriate.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Performance Indicator</th>
<th>Importance in Your Company’s Formal Performance Appraisal</th>
<th>Performance of your Executive MBA Degree Holder Employee</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1=Not at all Important 2=Somehow Important 3=Important 4=Very Important 5=Indispensable</td>
<td>1=Needs Much Improvement 2=Needs Some Improvement 3=Satisfactory 4=Good 5=Excellent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job (doing things specifically related to his/her job description)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-Quantity of work output</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-Quality of work output</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-Accuracy of work</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-Customer service provided (internal and external)</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career (obtaining the necessary knowledge and skills to progress in this organization)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-Obtaining personal career goals</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-Developing skills needed for his/her future career</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Description</td>
<td>Ratings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>---------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Making progress in his/her career</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Innovator (creativity and innovation in one's job and the organization as a whole)</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Finding improved ways to do things</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Team (working with co-workers and other team members toward success of the firm)</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Making sure his/her work group succeeds</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Organization/Citizenship (going above the call of duty in one's concern for the firm)</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Working for the overall good of the company</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Managerial Behaviours (Exhibiting generally expected behaviours and strong decision making)</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>Adjusting to new changes and situations</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>Making informed and calculated decisions</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thank you very much for your time and cooperation.
Appendix 2

- *Difference among National and Multinational Firms in Terms of Perceived Importance of Different Role-based Performance Dimensions*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>National</th>
<th>Multinational</th>
<th>Mean Difference</th>
<th>P-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Importance of Job Related Performance</td>
<td>16.0610</td>
<td>16.1373</td>
<td>-.07628</td>
<td>.879</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Importance of Career Related Performance</td>
<td>14.5244</td>
<td>15.5625</td>
<td>-1.03811</td>
<td>.876</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Importance of Innovation Related Performance</td>
<td>14.4337</td>
<td>15.5000</td>
<td>-1.06627</td>
<td>.739</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Importance of Team Related Performance</td>
<td>19.3373</td>
<td>19.6667</td>
<td>-.32932</td>
<td>.532</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Importance of OCB Related Performance</td>
<td>14.2073</td>
<td>14.6809</td>
<td>-.47353</td>
<td>.198</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- *Difference among Manufacturing and Services Sector Firms in Terms of Perceived Importance of Different Role-based Performance Dimensions*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Manufacturing</th>
<th>Services</th>
<th>Mean Difference</th>
<th>P-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Importance of Job Related Performance</td>
<td>15.9444</td>
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<td>.627</td>
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<tr>
<td>Importance of Career Related Performance</td>
<td>14.0660</td>
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<td>-1.03454</td>
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<tr>
<td>Importance of Innovation Related Performance</td>
<td>14.5172</td>
<td>14.7529</td>
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<td>.968</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Importance of Team Related Performance</td>
<td>18.4250</td>
<td>19.5307</td>
<td>-1.10563</td>
<td>.708</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Importance of OCB Related Performance</td>
<td>14.1522</td>
<td>14.5083</td>
<td>-.35612</td>
<td>.637</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix 3

- Difference among Private, Public, and Semi-public Firms in Terms of Perceived Importance of Different Role-based Performance Dimensions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Private</th>
<th>Public</th>
<th>Semi-Public</th>
<th>P-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Importance of Job Related Performance</td>
<td>16.2404</td>
<td>15.6538</td>
<td>16.6250</td>
<td>.245</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Importance of Career Related Performance</td>
<td>15.4044</td>
<td>14.1418</td>
<td>14.1250</td>
<td>.410</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Importance of Innovation Related Performance</td>
<td>15.1667</td>
<td>14.8773</td>
<td>10.8750</td>
<td>.345</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Importance of Team Related Performance</td>
<td>19.4404</td>
<td>19.2318</td>
<td>17.6250</td>
<td>.377</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Importance of OCB Related Performance</td>
<td>14.7790</td>
<td>14.2735</td>
<td>11.9621</td>
<td>.410</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Difference among Small, Medium, and Large Size Firms in Terms of Perceived Importance of Different Role-based Performance Dimensions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Small</th>
<th>Medium</th>
<th>Large</th>
<th>P-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Importance of Job Related Performance</td>
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<td>.235</td>
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<td>Importance of Career Related Performance</td>
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<td>Importance of Innovation Related Performance</td>
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<tr>
<td>Importance of Team Related Performance</td>
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<td>18.9356</td>
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<tr>
<td>Importance of OCB Related Performance</td>
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<td>15.1875</td>
<td>14.1846</td>
<td>.878</td>
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