

Results of two studies show that oral communication is the most important competency for college graduates entering the workforce, and that the oral skills most important for entry level graduates are: following instructions, listening, conversing, and giving feedback. In the first study, 354 managers identified and ranked the competencies and characteristics they consider when hiring college graduates for entry-level positions. Findings reveal that the top three competencies are oral communications, problem-solving, and self-motivation. No significant differences were found among industries, number of employees, or management level of the responding manager.

Based on the first study, Study 2 identified the most important skills associated with oral communication competency. From a list of 13 oral communication skills, managers rated each skill according to importance to entry-level jobs occupied by college graduates, and how frequently entry-level graduates use each skill. No significant differences were found in the ratings on importance of oral communication skills. However, graduates in companies with less than 200 employees reportedly handle customer complaints more frequently than graduates in larger companies, and graduates in companies with more than 200 employees use meeting skills more frequently than graduates in smaller companies.

A Managerial Perspective: Oral Communication Competency Is Most Important for Business Students in the Workplace

Jeanne D. Maes

Teresa G. Weldy

Marjorie L. Icenogle

University of South Alabama

Yesterday's predictions, such as reduced layers of managers, wider spans of control, decentralized decision-making, work teams, empowered employees, reengineering, and continuous improvement are reality in today's business organizations. Recently, business schools have been criticized for failing to provide students with the competencies and skills required in the new workplace (Applebome, 1995). The importance of needs assessment for identifying competencies and skills is taught in training courses, and the concept of customer focus is taught in management classes; yet, research indicates that management faculty are not utilizing these tools to develop the management curriculum. Some have even suggested that a liberal arts education is more valuable than a degree in business (Byrne, 1993; Schaefer, 1990; Scheetz & Stein-Roggenbuck, 1994).

Numerous articles suggest that business schools are failing to help students develop needed competencies and skills; however, a number of problems exist with this stream of research. Many recent articles are based on data collected in the 1970s or earlier (for example, Buckley, Peach, & Weitzel, 1989); some are based on small samples (Thomp-

son & Smith, 1992, sample $n=20$); others do not use rigorous methodologies. The most serious problem is the failure of researchers to properly define, categorize, and distinguish among skills, competencies, abilities, and personal attributes, thereby limiting the development of meaningful conceptualizations and operationalizations of the nature of managerial jobs (Kunango & Misra, 1992). Hence, it is necessary to produce a conceptual framework which distinguishes between skills and competencies so that a systematic approach can be developed for recruiting and training managers (Kanungo & Misra, 1992).

The studies presented in this article use Kanungo and Misra's (1992) definitions of skill and competency. A *skill* is the ability or capability to engage in specific behaviors, including overt behavior and cognitive activities, to accomplish specific routine tasks. Skills are learned from training and experience. In contrast, *competency* is the ability to engage in nonroutine cognitive and intellectual activities. Competencies are used to cope with uncertainty in the environment. Competencies are transferable across a wide array of situations, and are generic in that they apply to many different types of jobs (Kanungo & Misra, 1992).

This paper reports the results of two studies, both conducted in 1995, that identify the competencies, characteristics, and skills that managers consider when selecting graduates for entry-level positions. Study 1 which is based on a sample of 354 managers, identifies the competencies and characteristics, and Study 2 identifies specific oral communication skills that are important for entry-level business graduates.

Literature Review

Many business schools profess to "prepare men and women for positions of managerial responsibility" (Buckley, Peach, & Weitzel, 1989, p. 101). To accomplish this objective, business schools must have an understanding of the competencies and skills required for success in a managerial position today. Fayol (1949), one of the first researchers to investigate the nature of managerial work, identified the five classical management functions of planning, organizing, commanding, controlling, and coordinating, which are presented in most management texts (Carroll & Gillen, 1987). A different classification scheme was presented in 1955, when Katz (1974) first published his findings of observable skills of executives. He classified managerial skills as technical, human, and conceptual. A later study by Stewart (1967) reported that managers spend the majority of their time interacting with other people and, thus, need people skills, such as interpersonal sensitivity and communication skills.

Mintzberg (1973) continued this investigation and proposed ten managerial roles, five of which clearly represent communication capabil-

ities: liaison, monitor, disseminator, spokesperson, and negotiator. Penley, Alexander, Jernigan, and Henwood (1991) suggested that the remaining five roles identified by Mintzberg (figurehead, leadership, entrepreneur, disturbance handler, and resource allocator) are inextricably dependent upon communication skills. Subsequent studies tested the accuracy of Mintzberg's roles with mixed results (Lau, Newman, & Broedling, 1980; McCall & Segrist, 1980; Snyder & Wheelen, 1981). In Graham's (1983) study, international managers ranked verbal expression, listening, and interpersonal sensitivity high among a lengthy list of desirable qualities.

Carroll and Gillen (1987) reported that identification of specific managerial competencies and skills is important for a number of reasons, including selection, performance appraisal, management education, and management training programs. They suggested that nontransferable managerial task skills must be distinguished from training, which is transferable among organizations.

Despite the importance of managerial competencies, studies have failed to identify the complete range of competencies required for effective performance. However, one stream of research focuses on determining which skills employers seek in new college recruits (Atkins & Kent, 1988; Caudron, 1993; Kane, 1993; Kaufman, 1994; Martell & Carroll, 1994; Olney & Bednar, 1989; Pritchard, 1995; Scheetz & Stein-Roggenbuck, 1994; Siegel & Sorensen, 1994; Thompson, 1988; Thompson & Smith, 1992). Buckley, Peach, and Weitzel (1989) compared the results of two studies conducted in 1975 and 1983 that investigated the importance of specific applicant qualifications in hiring decisions. Results illustrated how the importance of certain qualifications changed between 1975 and 1983. In 1975, oral and written communication was not among the five most important qualifications but, eight years later communication was the top ranking qualifier, followed by work habits, which moved from the fifth ranked qualification to second. The authors anticipated that as the economy moved toward service-oriented businesses the importance of communication was likely to increase. They recommended that business schools use "client-oriented, strategic planning techniques" (Buckley, Peach, & Weitzel, 1989, p. 104) to work closely with businesses in developing curricula.

Kane's (1993) study reported that MBA recruiters of Fortune 500 companies assumed that graduates had the requisite technical skills and, therefore, they focused on evaluating candidates' people skills. Respondents reported that the top three criteria for general management positions include strong interpersonal skills, communication skills, and team-oriented skills. In addition, Martell and Carroll's (1994) survey of 115 managers in Fortune 500 companies showed that the managerial skills and personal characteristics needed for effective per-

formance are the same across all functional areas, but that the technical skills required depend on the particular functional area. A review of these studies highlights the continued importance for business school graduates (a) to cultivate communication skills, both oral and written (Buckley, Peach, & Weitzel, 1989; Gilsdorf, 1986; Harris, 1994; Henry, 1995; Hildebrandt, Bond, Miller, & Swinyard, 1982; Kane, 1993; Scheetz & Stein-Roggenbuck, 1994; Thompson & Smith, 1992); and (b) to develop the ability to discover problems and opportunities, as well as initiate and implement plans to resolve problems and achieve goals (Buckley, Peach, & Weitzel, 1989; Porter & McKibbin, 1988).

Although these requirements appear to be consistent with the competencies and skills needed to implement total quality management (TQM) or continuous improvement initiatives, some experts have suggested that such initiatives may require additional competencies and skills. Caudron (1993) reported that, as part of total quality efforts, many companies' training needs lie in the areas of teamwork, communication, decision-making, and problem-solving. Changes in managerial competencies have experts asking whether business schools are putting the correct emphasis on development of these competencies.

Almost 25 years ago, Livingston (1973) pointed out that while business schools were emphasizing problem-solving and decision-making, an imbalance had been created between analytical ability, which tended to be over-developed, and the ability to take action and make things happen, which remained largely under-developed. In addition, Webber (1976) suggested that new graduates often lack interpersonal skills, including the ability to empathize or cope with the emotional reactions of others that naturally occur on the job, thus limiting their own ability to learn and grow (Paul, 1967).

Following the suggestion of Carroll and Gillen (1987), Kanungo and Misra (1992) presented a convincing argument for differentiating between the competencies and skills needed for successful managerial performance. They argued that competencies represent fundamental generic cognitive characteristics needed for all nonroutine tasks. Competencies are viewed as elements needed for managerial achievement. They distinguished skills as capabilities needed to perform specific routine tasks.

Thompson and Smith (1992) surveyed 20 human resource managers and found that many business graduates are not adequately trained in problem-solving, communications, computer skills, and teamwork. One manager suggested that colleges and universities should conduct market research to identify the needs of businesses and attempt to satisfy these needs in the curricula. Now that the distinctions among com-

petencies, skills, and personal characteristics are more clearly understood, studies must be conducted to identify the competencies that businesses expect of college graduates aspiring to managerial positions. Although most management texts continue to use Fayol's classification scheme for presenting the nature of managerial work (Carroll & Gillen, 1987), the changing nature of today's business environment will likely prove this classification scheme inadequate for identifying the competencies required of future managers. In addition, research is needed to identify specific skills that comprise and support each competency.

Previous studies demonstrated that the qualifications employers value change over time; therefore, studies conducted 10 or more years ago are inadequate for identifying current business needs. Previous research (based on small samples and inadequate methodologies) offers opportunities for improvement. Some researchers recommend that universities and business schools employ TQM techniques that focus on customer needs and satisfaction to deliver a better product and to ensure their own survival (Buckley, Peach, & Weitzel, 1989; Sullivan, 1994). In an effort to assess the hiring needs of local businesses, this paper describes two studies; Study 1 identified the competencies that managers use to assess college graduates for entry-level jobs. Oral communication was clearly identified as the most important competency, leading to Study 2 which measured the importance of 13 oral communication skills for entry-level graduates and the frequency with which graduates use each of the 13 skills. Results suggest changes in management curricula to meet the changing needs of business.

Study One

Methodology

Measures

Interviews were conducted with 15 managers in the Greater Gulf Coast area, including the coastal areas of Mississippi, Alabama, and the Florida panhandle to identify the competencies and characteristics that they consider most important in selecting college graduates for entry-level positions. The managers identified seven competencies including: oral communication, written communication, computer knowledge, problem-solving, human relations, leadership, delegation, and three personal characteristics: personal appearance, academic performance, and related work experience. A questionnaire was developed, and a pilot study was conducted to test the adequacy of the instrument. Based on pilot study responses from 221 managers in the Mobile area, the questionnaire was revised and expanded to include 13 competencies and 3 characteristics. Self-motivation, decision-making, team work, time management, creativity, and multi-lingual were

added to the questionnaire. Managers who participated in the pilot study were eliminated from participation in the subsequent two studies.

The final version of the questionnaire for Study 1 contained two parts. Part one asked participants to identify, from the list of competencies and characteristics, the 10 that are most important in assessing college graduates for entry-level positions, and then to rank the 10 according to importance. Part two collected demographic data, such as industry, number of employees, respondents' management level, and education.

Sample

The questionnaire was administered to 500 managers in the Greater Gulf Coast area, 376 responded, and 22 were discarded due to missing information or failure to appropriately select and rank 10 competencies, resulting in a response rate of 71%.

Participants represented a wide range of industries: 18.9% retail; 4.0% wholesale; 15.3% manufacturing; 20.6% service industries; 4% public administration; 2% transportation; and 16.7% finance, insurance, and banking. Organizational size ranged from less than 25 to more than 500 employees: 35.6% employed less than 25; 20.1% employed between 25 and 100; 10.5% employed from 101 to 200; 10.5% employed from 201 to 500; and 22.9% employed more than 500 people. Comparisons of responding firms to U. S. Department of Labor statistics for the geographical area show no substantial differences between the sample and the business population (U. S. Department of Commerce, 1992).

More than 15% of the respondents were entry- or lower-level managers; 46.3% were middle-level managers, and 36.4% were upper-level managers. All respondents had at least a high school diploma or equivalent; 11.6% had associate degrees; 47.2% had bachelor degrees; and 17.2% had graduate degrees.

Analytical Procedures

To determine which of the 10 criteria were most consistently identified for evaluating applicants, the number of respondents identifying each competency or characteristic in the top ten was calculated, as were the number of respondents ranking each item as number one, in the top three, and in the top five. Weighted scores for each item were calculated. A rank of 1 was given a score of 10, rank 2 scored 9, rank 3 scored 8, etc.; and the scores for each item were totaled across respondents. Finally, differences in rankings were tested by industry, organization size, and management level using the Kruskal-Wallis H-test, an analysis of variance for ranked data (Winer, 1971).

Results

The number of respondents who ranked each item as number 1 is listed in column 1 of Table 1. Competency in oral communication was ranked in the top five by 231 respondents (number 1 by 65, and in the top 3 by 163), and received the largest weighted score ($ws = 2237$). Written communication was included in the top five list of only 110 respondents (31.1%); however, the weighted score for written communication ($ws = 1211$) was higher than the weighted scores for time management ($ws = 1178$) and personal appearance ($ws = 1063$). In other words, even though fewer managers consider written communication competency in hiring decisions, those that do rank written communication higher than time management and personal appearance. No significant differences in rankings were found among industries, according to the number of employees, or according to the management level of the responding managers.

Table 1
Respondents' Rankings on Importance of Competencies
in Hiring Decisions

Competency/Characteristic	Ranked #1	Ranked in Top 5	Weighted Score ^b
Oral communication	65	231	2237
Problem-solving	36	200	2011
Self-motivation	52	193	2016
Decision-making	21	78	1755
Teamwork	19	111	1407
Leadership	49	150	1634
Human relations	37	159	1608
Time management	8	100	1178
Personal appearance	10	93	1063
Written communication	7	110	1211
Work experience	27	88	1046
Creativity	3	39	632
Academic performance	17	62	750
Basic computer	4	34	525
Delegation	1	29	413
Multilingual	1	2	38

^a $n=354$.

^bWeighted scores are calculated by summing points assigned to each item according to the following scheme: rank 1 = 10 points, rank 2 = 9 points, etc.

The finding that competency in oral communication was consistently identified as most important led to the research questions of the second study: (a) which oral communication skills are most important to college graduates entering the workforce, and (b) how frequently is each skill used?

Study Two

Methodology

Measures

A questionnaire was developed for Study Two to determine which communication skills are used by college graduates in entry-level jobs. The 13 items used to measure oral communication skills were adapted from a scale developed by Shockley-Zalabak, Staley, and Morley (1988). Nine of their oral communication skills were supplemented by four additional skills: handling customer complaints, taking customer orders, communicating with the public, and following instructions. The questionnaire had three parts. Part one asked respondents to indicate how important each skill is for entry-level jobs. Part two asked respondents to indicate how often each skill is used by entry-level college graduates. Both importance and usage were measured with five-point, two-anchor Likert scales. Part three collected demographic data on the industry, number of employees, respondents' educational levels, and management levels.

Sample

Based on resource constraints, 150 respondents in Study One were randomly selected to participate in the follow-up study. Fifty-eight responses were received for a response rate of 38.7%. Respondents' characteristics were similar to those in Study One. However, none of the managers in the transportation industry responded to Study Two.

Data Analysis

The correlation matrices of items measuring importance and usage frequency were examined to see if the number of items could be reduced by combining them into scales based on results of factor analysis. The correlations were quite low, ruling out the usefulness of factor analysis (Green, 1978). The means and standard deviations of the oral communication skills are reported in Table 2. To test for differences in importance and in frequency of usage among industries, among organizations of various sizes, and among respondents' managerial level, separate multivariate analyses of variance (MANOVA) were performed. In cases where the overall F-statistic was significant, the univariate F-tests were examined to determine which skills were the source of the differences. Finally, to control Type I errors and unequal cell sizes, Scheffe multiple comparison tests were used to identify where significant differences occurred (Winer, 1971).

Results

Four skills have average importance ratings greater than 4.0: following instructions (mean = 4.66), listening skills (mean = 4.60), conversational skills (mean = 4.47), and giving feedback (mean = 4.00).

Table 2
Oral Communications Skills Means and Standard Deviations
for Importance and Frequency of Use

Oral Communication Skill	Mean	SD
Skill Importance		
1. Following instructions	4.66	.61
2. Listening skills	4.60	.86
3. Conversational skills	4.47	.75
4. Giving feedback	4.00	.82
5. Communicating with the public	3.98	1.14
6. Meeting skills	3.74	1.21
7. Presentation skills	3.66	1.05
8. Handling customer complaints	3.52	1.22
9. Conflict resolution skills	3.48	1.20
10. Negotiation skills	3.33	1.30
11. Taking customer orders	3.09	1.54
12. Teaching/instructing skills	2.67	1.02
13. Interviewing skills	2.55	1.34
Skill Frequency of Use		
1. Listening skills	4.74	.66
2. Following instructions	4.52	.82
3. Conversational skills	4.53	.68
4. Communicating with the public	3.91	1.20
5. Giving feedback	3.86	.85
6. Meeting skills	3.52	1.17
7. Presentation skills	3.48	1.13
8. Conflict-resolution skills	3.43	1.22
9. Negotiation skills	3.18	1.30
10. Taking customer orders	2.93	1.57
11. Teaching/instructing skills	2.72	1.21
12. Handling customer complaints	3.43	1.22
13. Interviewing skills	2.21	1.15

Note: Responses ranged from a minimum of 1 to a maximum of 5.

Respondents identified listening skills (mean = 4.74), conversational skills (mean = 4.53), and following instructions (mean = 4.52) as most frequently used. As expected, usage frequency was highly correlated with importance, indicating that important oral communication skills are used most frequently.

Results of the multivariate analyses of variance are reported in Table 3. No significant differences in the importance of oral communication skills were found across industries, by organizational size, or by respondents' management level. Additionally, no significant differences were found in usage frequency or across industries or by level of management; however, significant differences were found according to the size of the organization.

The multivariate test of significance for frequency of use by organizational size is significant. Scheffe multiple comparison tests reveal

that organizations with 25 to 200 employees report more frequent usage of handling customer complaints than organizations with more than 200 employees. In addition, entry-level graduates in organizations with more than 200 employees use meeting skills more frequently than their cohorts in organizations with 100 to 200 employees.

Table 3
Multivariate Analysis of Variance for Oral Communication Skill
Importance and Frequency of Usage

Hotellings	T^2	F	df	p
Skill Importance by Respondent Characteristics				
Importance by Industry	3.34	1.30	78	.079
Importance by Management Level	1.07	.75	52	.879
Importance by Organizational Size	1.86	1.31	52	.110
Skill Frequency of Usage by Respondent Characteristics				
Frequency by Industry	3.22	1.21	78	.150
Frequency by Organizational Size	2.40*	1.64	52	.012
Frequency by Management Level	1.43	.98	52	.521

* $p < .05$

Discussion

A number of studies have attempted to identify managerial skills required for effective performance; however, Kanungo and Misra (1992) illustrate how previous studies failed to distinguish between skills and competencies. This study successfully differentiates between skills and competencies based on the respective definitions provided by Kanungo and Misra (1992). Skills are distinguished as specific behaviors and cognitive activities that accomplish routine tasks, while competencies are nonroutine cognitive and intellectual activities, demonstrating managerial resourcefulness in handling nonroutine situations (Kanungo & Misra, 1992).

Although a number of studies have shown that an applicant's ability to communicate is an important consideration in recruitment, this study demonstrates that competency in oral communication is more important than written communication for entry-level positions (Henry, 1995; Kane, 1993; Thompson & Smith, 1992). Differentiating between oral and written communication competencies is critical for identifying the skills associated with each competency in order to develop a sound theory of managerial competencies and skills.

These findings also confirm that problem-solving, self-motivation, and decision-making are among the top criteria desired by employers (Atkins & Kent, 1988; Caudron, 1993; Henry, 1995; Martell & Carroll, 1994; Scheetz & Stein-Roggenbuck, 1994; Thompson, 1988;

Thompson & Smith, 1992). Studies have differed in their findings concerning the importance of academic performance in assessing applicants. Recruiters place more emphasis on grade point average and academic performance (Atkins & Kent, 1988), while managers do not consider academic performance as important (Henry, 1995; Rynes & Gerhart, 1990). In this study, academic performance ranks 13 out of the 16 competencies and characteristics. This low ranking is consistent with previous surveys of managers.

Somewhat surprising is that basic computer competency ranks 14, suggesting that employers assume that graduates have minimal technical skills (Rynes & Gerhart, 1990) or that most managers expect to train new employees in company-specific information systems.

Although it is generally accepted that delegation is important for effective management, in this study, delegation ranks next to last. One explanation is that managers ranked the criteria for entry-level jobs, and employees in entry-level jobs have few opportunities to delegate. These findings support the suggestion of Carroll and Gillen (1987) that future studies should investigate whether the rankings are consistent over a range of hierarchical jobs. It appears that the nature of managerial work changes according to the manager's position in the hierarchy of the organization.

The lowest-ranked competency is multilingual. Businesses located in areas where a substantial percentage of the population has a native language other than English, often recruit applicants with multilingual skills. In the sample area, less than 10% of the population is *not* Caucasian or African-American, leading the researchers to surmise that this ranking is due to the demographic composition of the local population, and is not expected to generalize to other geographical areas.

In Study Two, managers were asked to identify the oral communication skills they considered most important and most frequently used in entry-level jobs. Examination of the intercorrelations among the 13 skills reveals few significant relationships, demonstrating that each of these skills is an independent indicator of oral-communication competency.

Five skills have means between 3.48 and 3.98, on the five-point importance scale: communicating effectively with the public, meeting skills, presentation skills, handling customer complaints, and conflict resolution skills. High ratings on communicating effectively with the public and handling customer complaints support the emphasis placed on customer satisfaction and cooperative supplier relationships in business today.

These findings may indicate possible weaknesses in skills provided by current business curricula. Many business courses require

that students deliver formal classroom presentations; however, the researchers speculate that few courses require students to conduct meetings or resolve conflicts in a classroom setting. Perhaps instructors should identify ways to integrate meeting skills and conflict resolution skills into classroom and group projects.

Teaching and instructing skills and interviewing skills are identified as least important for entry-level positions. These low ratings are likely due to the fact that few entry-level employees conduct interviews or instruct. Further research could investigate the question.

Comparisons of the ratings on importance of oral communication skills across industries, management levels, and organizational size show no significant differences. The consistency of the ratings indicates that college graduates in entry-level jobs must be prepared to follow instructions, listen, converse effectively, and provide feedback, regardless of industry or the number of employees in the firm.

Comparisons of the ratings on usage frequency show that in organizations with 25 to 200 employees, entry-level employees more frequently handle customer complaints than employees in organizations with more than 200 employees. In smaller organizations, entry-level employees may have more interaction with customers and, therefore, have more opportunities to handle customer complaints. Another significant difference is that entry-level college graduates in organizations with more than 200 employees use meeting skills more frequently than their counterparts in smaller organizations.

Conclusion

This paper has identified the core competencies that managers consider when selecting college graduates for entry-level jobs. Additionally, the importance and usage frequency of specific oral communication skills used in entry-level jobs was examined. Oral communication was consistently identified as the most important competency in evaluating entry-level candidates. The four oral communication skills identified as most important for entry-level jobs are following instructions, listening, conversing, and giving feedback. The question now is whether business students are receiving adequate educational opportunities to develop these oral communication skills. Future studies should examine business curricula to determine if the skills identified as important in this paper are given adequate attention in business schools. Future studies are needed to identify the written communication skills that are most important in today's business environment. Additional studies are also needed to identify the skills associated with the other competencies that are most important to graduates entering the workforce, for example, problem-solving and self-motivation. Finally, business schools must take steps to measure managers' satisfaction

with the competencies of graduates. If graduates are found lacking in particular competencies, specific skill deficiencies must be identified and addressed. By utilizing the tools taught in management courses, such as long-range planning and customer focus, business schools can meet the needs of their constituencies.

NOTE

Questions and comments regarding this article may be directed to the first author at the University of South Alabama, Mobile, AL 36688.

REFERENCES

- Applebome, P. (1995, February 20). Employers wary of school system: Survey finds broad distrust of younger job aspirants. *New York Times*, pp. A1, A13.
- Atkins, C. P., & Kent, R. L. (1988). What do recruiters consider important during the employment interview? *Journal of Employment Counseling*, 25, 98-103.
- Buckley, M. R., Peach, E. B., & Weitzel, W. (1989). Are collegiate business programs adequately preparing students for the business world? *Journal of Education for Business*, 65, 101-105.
- Byrne, J. A. (1993). *Business Week's guide to the best business schools*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Carroll, S. J., & Gillen, D. J. (1987). Are the classical management functions useful in describing managerial work? *Academy of Management Review*, 12, 38-51.
- Caudron, S. (1993). How HR drives TQM. *Personnel Journal*, 72, 48.
- Fayol, H. (1949). *General and industrial management*. (C. Storrs, Trans.). London, England: Pitman. (Original work published 1916).
- Gilsdorf, J. W. (1986). Executives' and academics' perceptions on the need for instruction in written persuasion. *The Journal of Business Communication*, 23, 55-68.
- Graham, H. L. (1983). Brazilian, Japanese, and American business negotiations. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 16, 81-96.
- Green, P. E. (1978). *Analyzing multivariate data*. Hinsdale, IL: The Dryden Press.
- Harris, J. H. (1994, September/October). Do speech courses serve the business student? *Journal of Education for Business*, 70, 30-32.
- Henry, T. (1995, February 21). Student grades count for little with employers. *USA Today*, p. D1.
- Hildebrandt, H. W., Bond, F. A., Miller, E. L., & Swinyard, A. W. (1982). An executive appraisal of courses which best prepare one for general management. *The Journal of Business Communication*, 19, 5-15.
- Kane, K. R. (1993). MBA: A recruiter's-eye view. *Business Horizons*, 36, 65-68.
- Kanungo, R. N., & Misra, S. (1992). Managerial resourcefulness: A reconceptualization of management skills. *Human Relations*, 45, 1311-1332.
- Kaufman, B. E. (1994, September). What companies want from HR graduates. *HRMagazine*, 39, 84-86.
- Katz, R. L. (1974, September/October). Skills of an effective administrator. *Harvard Business Review*, 52, 90-102.

- Lau, A. W., Newman, A. R., & Broedling, L. A. (1980). The nature of managerial work in the public sector. *Public Management Forum*, 19, 513-521.
- Livingston, J. S. (1973). Myth of the well-educated manager. *Harvard Business Review*, 49, 79-88.
- McCall, M. W., & Segrist, C. A. (1980). *In pursuit of the manager's job: Building on Mintzberg*. Greensboro, NC: Center for Creative Leadership.
- Martell, K., & Carroll, S. (1994, July). Stress the functional skills when hiring top managers. *HRMagazine*, 39, 85-87.
- Mintzberg, H. (1973). *The nature of managerial work*. New York: Harper & Row.
- Olney, E. J., & Bednar, E. A. (1989, January). Identifying essential oral presentation skills for today's business curriculum. *Journal of Education for Business*, 64, 161-164.
- Paul, N. L. (1967). The use of empathy in the resolution of grief. *Perspectives in Biology and Medicine*, 11, 153-157.
- Penley, L. E., Alexander, E. R., Jernigan, I. E., & Henwood, C. I. (1991). Communication abilities of managers: The relationship to performance. *Journal of Management*, 17, 57-76.
- Porter, L. W., & McKibbin, L. E. (1988). *Management education and development: Drift or thrust into the 21st century?* New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Pritchard, C. J. (1995). Small employers—how, when, & who they hire. *Planning Job Choices: 1995* (pp. 64-66). Bethlehem, PA: College Placement Council, Inc.
- Rynes, S. L., & Gerhart, B. (1990). Interviewer assessments of applicant "fit": An exploratory investigation. *Personnel Psychology*, 43, 13-35.
- Schaefer, T. E. (1990). One more time: How do you get both equality and excellence in education? *Journal of Educational Thought*, 24, 39-51.
- Scheetz, L. P., & Stein-Roggenbuck, S. (1994, October). Learn to market your liberal arts degree for a lifetime career. *The Black Collegian*, 25, 111-117.
- Shockley-Zalabak, P., Staley, C. C., & Morley, D. D. (1988). The female professional: Perceived communication proficiencies as predictors of organizational advancement. *Human Relations*, 41, 553-567.
- Siegel, G., & Sorensen, J. E. (1994, September). What corporate America wants in entry-level accountants. *Management Accounting*, 26-31.
- Snyder, H. H., & Wheelen, T. L. (1981). Managerial roles: Mintzberg and the management process theorists. *Proceedings: Academy of Management*, 41, 249-253.
- Stewart, R. (1967). *Managers and their jobs: A study of the similarities and differences in the way managers spend their time*. London: Macmillan.
- Sullivan, S. E. (1994). TQE: Total Quality Education. In M. Schnake (Ed.), *Southern Management Association Proceedings*, (pp. 529-530). Valdosta, GA: Valdosta State University.
- Thompson, T. (1988, April 25). Moving out of the classroom. *U.S. News & World Report*, 63, 66, 70.
- Thompson, C., & Smith, B. (1992). Are college graduates missing the corporate boat? *HR Focus*, 69, 23.
- U. S. Department of Commerce. (1992). *County business patterns*. Washington, DC: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.
- Webber, R. A. (1976). Career problems of young managers. *California Management Review*, 18, 19-33.