

MANAGEMENT & ACCOUNTING REVIEW

Volume 18 No. 3
December 2019

CONTENTS

- 1 Students' Perceptions and Learning Approaches in Accounting: The Role of Mobile Apps Technology
Marziana Madah Marzuki, Wan Zurina Nik Abdul Majid, Roslina Salwani, Mohd Zafian Mohd Zawawi and Hatinah Abu Bakar
- 31 Revisiting the Factors Influencing Corporate Dividend Policy Decisions: Evidence from Listed Banks in Ghana
Ibrahim Nandom Yakubu
- 51 The Influence of Board Gender Diversity on Financial Performance of Listed Companies in Nigeria
Armaya'u Alhaji Sani, Ibrahim Adamu Abubakar, Umar Aliyu and Saftyanu Sule
- 69 Readiness to Implement Revenue Diversification Strategies by Malaysian Public Universities
Suhaiza Ismail, Nik Nazli Nik Ahmad and Siti Alawiah Siraj
- 95 Prospect for Accounting Academics: Examining the Effect of Undergraduate Students' Career Decision
Ahmad Bukola Uthman, Mubaraq Sanni and Abdulai Agbaje Salami
- 131 The Influence of Accounting Information Disclosure on Foreign Direct Investment in Nigerian Listed Companies
Oyerogba Ezekiel Oluwagbemiga
- 169 Benefits of Switching from Activity-Based Costing to Resource Consumption Accounting: Evidence from a Power Generator Manufacturing Plant
Suaad Jassem
- 191 Streamlining Mobile Banking into Loan Repayment System for Microfinance Institutions
Affa Malina Amran, Intan Salwani Mohamed, Sharifah Norzehan Syed Yusuf and Nabilah Rozzani

Prospect for Accounting Academics: Examining the Effect of Undergraduate Students' Career Decision

Ahmad Bukola Uthman^a, Mubaraq Sanni^b and Abdulai Agbaje Salami^c

^aAl-Hikmah University, Ilorin

^bKwara State University, Malete, Nigeria

^cAl-Hikmah University, Ilorin

ABSTRACT

The future of accounting education rests on the development of accounting academics. In the social space of competing job opportunities for both graduate and professional accountants, this paper considers how the interest of prospective accounting graduates in Nigerian universities could reshape the widely reported shortage of accounting academics. Viewing through the lens of the Circumscription Theory, it examines how career choices of undergraduate accounting students affect the prospect of accounting education. The survey technique was adopted to sample students' opinions across three universities in their career decisions, the factors that affect such decisions and their key referents. The respondents were divided based on their preference for academic jobs and the Mann-whitney U test was conducted to examine the differences in factors that affect their preferences. The study revealed that financial rewards account for students' preference for non-academic jobs. Hence, only 10% of the respondents showed an intention to pursue a career in the academia. Other factors such as job leisure, ambitiousness and career prestige are also responsible for students' preference for non-academic jobs. The results of the study confirmed the prediction of the Circumscription Theory. It is therefore recommended that academic jobs should be made attractive for accounting graduates by improving the financial rewards of academic staff generally. More so, attention should be further directed towards factors such as job leisure, holiday travels, prestige and easy achievement of ambitions since students get swayed from academic jobs because of those factors.

Keywords: *Accounting Education, Accounting Academics, Career Choice, Circumscription, Undergraduate students.*

ARTICLE INFO

Article History:

Received: 20 February 2019

Accepted: 3 May 2019

Available online: 27 December 2019

INTRODUCTION

The academic bias of a profession is defined by its interaction and engagement with related academic disciplines which possess teaching and research activities that support the profession. The situation of accounting academics is quite peculiar. Although it was perceived to have emanated from social science disciplines, it is culturally different in terms paucity of educators and professors at it is well documented globally (Beattie & Smith, 2012). The shortage of educators is perceived to affect the future of accounting education as policy makers and researchers alike have called for the infusion of accounting practitioners into the academics (Boyle, Carpenter, Hermanson & Mensah, 2013) to complement the efforts of the few existing ones. Consequentially, the perceived paucity of accounting academics may impede research efforts towards circumscribing the emerging accounting issues, which are products of globalization and modern trends, within the confines of the accounting education syllabi hence, the continuous widening of the gap between theory and practice.

Close to six decades now, accounting scholars have foretold an impending crisis for the future of accounting as an academic discipline (Ashworth, 1969; Nelson, 1983). Although, their assertions were more insightful than empirical analyses as they based their judgments on their perception of the trend observed about accounting academics. Nelson (1983) asserted that “despite the increase in accounting enrollments, very few students choose to pursue academic careers in accounting because the standards are extremely rigorous, and the rewards are less than attractive” (p. 70). Thus, he posed the question “who will teach the next generation of accountants”? (p. 70).

Not only are the problems of students’ refusal to pursue an accounting academic career an issue, but also a sharp decline has equally been observed in the capacity of doctoral programs in universities globally to cater for the demands of a PhD accounting degree (Plumlee & Reckers, 2014). The overall decline in the number of students pursuing accounting academic careers as well as the reduced capacity of universities’ doctoral programs in accounting have attracted the interest of academic researchers in recent times.

To address these problems, previous researchers have surveyed the few available postgraduate accounting students to recommend a possible solution to the educators' shortage crisis that plagues accounting academia (Imhoff Jr, 2001; Hermanson, 2008; Fogarty & Holder 2012; Brink, Glasscock & Wier, 2012; Plumlee & Reckers, 2014). Meanwhile, research agenda on how the interplay of students' career choice factors and referents affect the prospects for accounting academics is close to non-existent as far as the researchers know. More so, the Gottfredson's discovery that [undergraduates] have innate abilities and choices but often sacrifice the fulfillment of such internal unique choices in order to meet some other expectations (Gottfredson, 2002) provides a niche for research to inquire the level of accounting undergraduate students' aspiration in academic jobs and how such aspirations affect the prospect of accounting academics. Hence, this paper studies the career decisions of undergraduate students and its interplay with the influence of career referents and career choice factors as a determining factor for the prospect of accounting as an academic discipline.

Motivation of the study

Being in the academia requires huge financial and intellectual investments. as further studies for higher academic qualifications and participation in conferences to improve research skills and attain a reputable academic publication status are prerequisites. Paradoxically, the profession offers relatively less financial rewards. Therefore, few students choose to pursue academic careers in accounting because the [financial] rewards are less than attractive (Nelson, 1983). Put differently, academic jobs attract best brains but offer poor motivation for self-esteem. Consequentially, if an ardent desire for intellectual prowess is met with financial temptation, intellectual flight will sprawl the academic profession for financially attractive and less intellectually demanding industrial job offers. The problem is further aggravated by the availability of industry jobs for accountants more than many other professions. The reason being that the services accountants render to organizations are indispensable in so far as they have financial dealings. The resulting intellectual flight thus impedes accounting research efforts towards circumscribing the emerging accounting issues, which are products of globalization and modern trends, within the confines of the accounting education syllabi.

The gap between theory and practice has often been blamed for the boredom that frustrates many accounting educators out of the academics. Since appropriate research methodological approaches rely on the availability of underlying real world and known theory, (Watts & Zimmerman, 1979; Riahi-Belkaoui, 2005; Inanga & Schneider, 2005) many research models in accounting produce accounting research that fails to improve accounting practice (Inanga & Schneider, 2005). Owing to this, research in accounting could become confusing for students as Plumlee and Reckers (2014) observed that the knowledge gap and disparity between the content of master's programs and PhD Programs is enormous and as a result the Masters qualification of accounting students are not acquainted with accounting research. While this has gone a long way in discouraging students from pursuing their PhD after their Master's Degree, their finding revealed that "opportunities exist for more accounting students to teach and that could be the catalyst for pursuit of an accounting academic career" (Plumlee & Reckers, 2014, p.329). However, they also observed that difficulty in finding supervisors who specialize in their fields of interest dissuade them from further pursuing interest in academic jobs.

Since many research students get uninterested in furthering their academic careers in accounting, the pyramid gets narrowed at the top. As a result, accounting educators hardly succeed to the top. Beattie and Smith (2012) observed that universities globally do not have accounting at the helm of affairs since the profession lacks requisite professors. The survey of Business Schools in the United States led Fogarty and Holder (2012) to the discovery that "only 7.6% of US business schools have accounting leaderships" (p.81). To them, this would further aggravate the shortage crisis of accounting educators as the profession is not adequately represented where decisions are made. Since professors are not available to teach in the academia, students get swayed by the attractive compensation packages for entry-level and middle level accountants while at the same time, the "brain drain" begins to grow as the few available professors frequently leave universities to take positions in the industry, politics and professional associations (Shank, 1981).

Thus, the following research questions are addressed:

1. What is the level of students' aspiration for accounting academics?
2. How do career choice factors affect students' interest in accounting academics?
3. Do career referents influence students' aspiration for accounting academics?

LITERATURE REVIEW

The Structure of Accounting Education in Nigeria

As with most nations of the world, Accounting Education is a part of the whole system of the education sector in Nigeria. It follows the progressive generic system from the primary education level to the tertiary level as instituted and regulated by the Federal Government through the Ministry of Education (See Fig1). To attain the status of an academic position in the Nigerian Education System, university education is compulsory, through which a Bachelor's, Master's and PhD degrees are awarded. Although, polytechnics and monotechnics are also considered to be at the tertiary education level in Nigeria, a Master's Degree in the university requires, by regulation, the possession of a good Bachelor's Degree. Hence, holders of polytechnic diplomas often pass through the bachelor's degree before proceeding for their postgraduate degree courses i.e. Masters and PhD (see Figure 1).

University education is regulated by the National Universities Commission (NUC). The NUC was established in 1962, initially as an advisory agency to the federal government. It attained full autonomy in 1974 when it became a statutory body after its enactment into Nigerian Law. Thus, it became a parastatal of the Federal Government of Nigeria (NUC, 2015). The NUC has as its key objectives, granting approval for all academic programmes run in Nigerian Universities as well as ensuring quality assurance of all academic programmes offered in Nigerian universities (NUC, 2015).

As a strand of the Nigeria higher education courses, Accounting Education enjoys the full regulation of the NUC as described above. However, the peculiarity of Accounting, as a professional course, exposes its education to further regulations outside the framework of the NUC. Its exposure to professionalism gives it a unique status worthy of appropriate consideration. Accounting education enjoys an academic oversight by the two major professional accounting bodies enacted into Nigerian laws namely the Institute of Chartered Accountants of Nigeria (ICAN) and the Association of National Accountants of Nigeria (ANAN) and a score of unregistered professional accounting bodies in Nigeria. The most prominent among these bodies is the Institute of Chartered Accountants of Nigeria (ICAN) whose act was enacted into Nigerian Law in 1965 as the foremost accounting professional body recognized by law (ICAN, 2014).

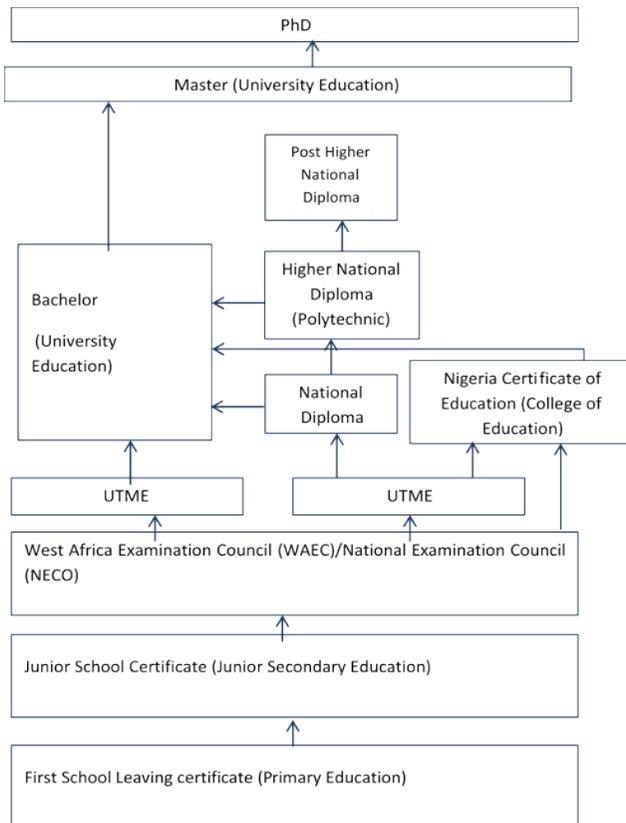


Figure 1: Education System in Nigeria (Ep-nuffic, 2015)

The ICAN, which has about two hundred thousand (200,000) students on its register, specifically has powers to regulate the standard of accounting education in Nigeria. Its aim in this regard is in

“determining what standards of knowledge and skill are to be attained by persons seeking to become members of the accountancy profession and raising those standards from time to time as circumstances may permit”

(ICAN, 2014, p.4).

To register as a professional student with ICAN, a recognised bachelor’s degree or Higher National Diploma of a recognized Nigerian polytechnic is required. Otherwise an Accounting Technician Scheme certificate, whose entry requirement is a good Senior Secondary School certificate, is needed (ICAN, 2014). The Institute however regulates the quality of academic standards in Nigerian tertiary institutions with regard to its professional metrics. A fully accredited university by ICAN enjoys academic stead over and above its un-accredited peers (ICAN, 2014) and students from such university enjoy significant exemption from some subjects depending on whether they possess a Bachelor’s, Master’s or a PhD Degree as determined by the institute. University lecturers are not given preferential treatment on the basis of their academic mien. ICAN specifically states that:

“Lecturers in Accounting Departments with B.Sc./HND (Accounting) in all accredited Institutions shall be given the same level of exemptions/concession granted to graduates of Recognised Training Institutions (RTIs) regardless of date of qualification”.

(ICAN, 2014, p.29).

ICAN accredits training centres but does not provide training for prospective members. As a result, it encourages cross-fertilization of profession as the flexibility of its education system allows holders of certificates in other disciplines blend seamlessly to the process of becoming professional accountants (ICAN, 2014).

In 2014, ICAN commissioned a committee called Mutual Cooperation Agreement with Tertiary Institutions (MCATI) to further:

“deepen mutual cooperation with tertiary institutions, in order to improve the quality of accounting education in these institutions in Nigeria, as their products feed into the Institute’s professional examination”

(ICAN-MCATI report, 2014, p.1)

The committee’s mandate was to benchmark international best practices in accounting regulation and make recommendations for ICAN on how to best collaborate with Nigerian Tertiary Institutions. The outcome of the exercise suggested the enhancement of staff of Accounting Departments that may wish to partner with ICAN on special academic grounds. ICAN conducts annual academic conference, publishes academic journals and offers grants to Accounting Departments in Nigerian tertiary institutions (ICAN, 2015).

The Association of National Accountants of Nigeria (ANAN) rivals as a professional Accounting Body and it was enacted into law in Nigeria in 1993 (ANAN, 2015). Its activities are quite dissimilar from ICAN’s because it is enabled by law to train and assess students independently. Although ANAN does not subject universities to another round of regulation after NUC, it nonetheless requires graduates of accounting (B.Sc and HND Accounting) to undertake a three-year professional course in education and practicals after the completion of their degree programmes. This has a great impact on the training of professional accountants as ANAN currently maintains a membership level of more than ten thousand members. ANAN invested greatly in accounting education as it established a separate arm for the education and training of professional accountants. This arm houses the college of accountancy located in the Headquarters of ANAN, Jos, Plateau State, Nigeria which all prospective accounting professionals must attend after the respective tertiary education qualifications (ANAN, 2014). ANAN also contributes greatly to the development of accounting education but does not provide ground for the dynamism of absorbing experts from other fields to have direct access to its professional education and training.

Theoretical Framework

University students, from time immemorial, have one dilemma in common. ‘What opportunities await them after graduation?’ However, given the opportunity to choose, their decision will vary with respect to different factors. Explaining the reasons behind the variation in their choices has been a subject of divergent views among theorists. Parsons (1909), Dawis and Lofquist (1984) as well as Holland (1985) have great psychologically based theories to explain students’ career decisions. However, of apt relevance to this work is the circumscription, compromise and self-creation theory of Gottfredson Linda hereinafter ‘Circumscription Theory’. It elaborates the puzzle ‘why do individuals from the same circumstances tend to have such different aspirations and success in implementing the self they prefer?’ (Gottfredson, 2002).

The theory first appeared in Gottfredson’s article titled ‘Circumscription and Compromise: A developmental theory of occupational aspirations’ in 1981 to explain the development perception of work and vocationally relevant decisions of individual long before they are cognitively proficient of such decisions (Junk, 2008). It was primarily confined to children’s career-development. However, with useful criticisms and research testing, the scope of the theory was extended to adult development with a specific attention to “interests, abilities and other determinants of vocational choices” (Gottfredson, 2002) among adults. For adults therefore, the theory assumes that people have innate abilities and choices but often sacrifice the fulfillment of such “internal unique values” in order to meet expectations for job prestige and sex type (Gottfredson, 2002). As a result, they conscript themselves in the process of their career development and end up becoming the products of other people’s actions such as parents, politicians and others who would shape them.

The predictions of the theory (see Gottfredson, 1981, 1996; Gottfredson & Lapan, 1997) recline on four major strands namely; self-concept, social space, circumscription and compromise. Self-concept refers to a person’s view of himself. It is shaped by his appearance, abilities, personality, gender, values and place in the society. These career attributes guide people to hold images of occupations and their compatibility with those occupations. Although, the theory holds that individuals rarely achieve compatibility

with all elements of self, it however believes that the greater the perceived compatibility, the stronger the person's preference for such occupation. When occupations that are perceived to be compatible with self-elements does not exist or are unrealistic, then such jobs are considered inaccessible. Thus, occupational aspirations are joint products of compatibility and accessibility. They are termed 'realistic aspirations' when they are accessible and 'idealistic aspirations' when they aren't (Gottfredson & Lapan, 1997).

Having formed the compatible occupational aspirations, an individual identifies availability of alternatives within the 'cognitive map of occupations. This forms the crux of social space. The sphere of acceptable occupational aspirations may vary in terms of availability in society. However, an occupational aspiration that would be preferable to an individual would be one of the alternatives within the space that individual can easily spot at a time which may change a fast as individuals shift their perception of compatibility and accessibility.

At this point, some occupational choices, hitherto held in high esteem by an individual drops off his preference list as he progresses. He progressively eliminates unacceptable aspirations in order to constrict himself to a zone of a specific social space. By so doing, he advances to the circumscription strand. At this stage, he may have subconsciously deviated or greatly altered his self-concept. He begins to relinquish his erstwhile most preferred alternatives for less compatible ones that he perceives as more accessible. When this happens, he reaches the compromise level which thence becomes a product of external factors such as referents, prestige, societal demands etc. (See Fig 2).

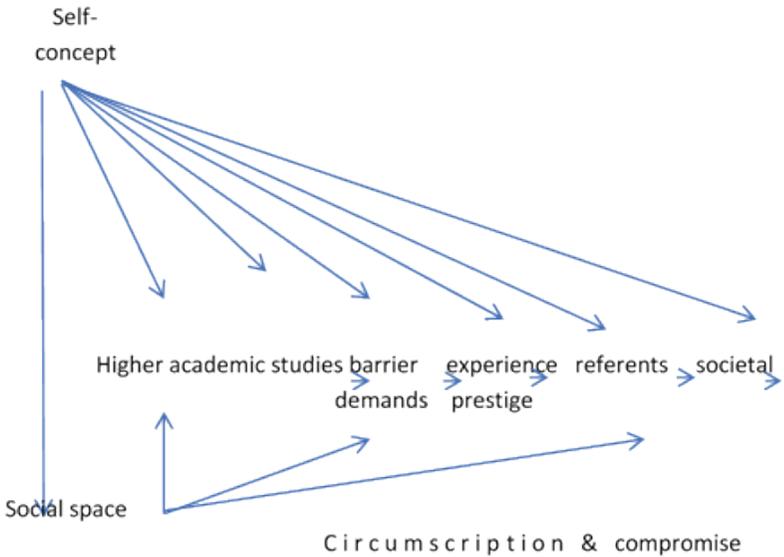


Figure 2: Self-concept Gets Progressively Diluted and Replaced as Circumscription and Compromise Set in (Gottfredson, 2002) Adapted

While many accounting students may have the academia as their innate aspiration and self-concept, their social space is often very wide as “opportunities exist for more accounting students to teach” (Plumlee & Reckers, 2014, p.329) since the shortage of accounting academics has reached a crisis level (Beattie & Smith, 2012; Boyle, et al, 2013). However, their social shape, as predicted by the Circumscription theory may be constricted by the availability of jobs with better ‘rewards’, key referents like parents, politicians etc. and more importantly the inherent profession-specific theoretical limitations (see Watts & Zimmerman, 1979; Inanga & Schneider, 2005; Riahi-Belkaoui, 2004) that discourages students from further pursuing an academic career in accounting (Plumlee & Reckers, 2014). To circumscribe the social space further, accounting graduates get exposed to an entrepreneurial acumen whose rewards may reshape their images of an occupational aspiration and become a major “catalyst for [their] pursuit of an academic accounting career” (Plumlee & Reckers, 2014, p.329).

As graduates perceive the difficulty of progressive opportunities in the field of accounting, a vista of opportunities open to them in the industry, opportunities for professional progression as well as better stead offered by their ability to pursue a professional career in accounting firms, they tend to redefine their occupational aspiration and derail from their self-concept thereby tempering the prospect of accounting academics. Shank (1981) observed that ‘brain drain’ and ‘intellectual flight’ grow faster among accounting academics because the few available professors often leave universities to take political positions, industry offers, join accounting firms as well professional associations. Consequently, the few ‘surviving’ self-concepts are those that are left in the business of teaching, research and provision of accounting community services to both undergraduate and postgraduate accounting students as well as society at large.

As for students whose self-concepts are not in academic jobs, circumscribing their social space to the academia requires assiduous investment in efforts and finances. Perhaps, the financial reward is not as attractive as their self-concepts lie. Others may lack the appropriate aptitude to switch from the realistic occupational aspirations to the academia. Therefore, this work makes its proposition that career choices of undergraduates, who are exposed to externalities in the social space, could affect the future prospect of accounting academics (see in Figure 3 below).

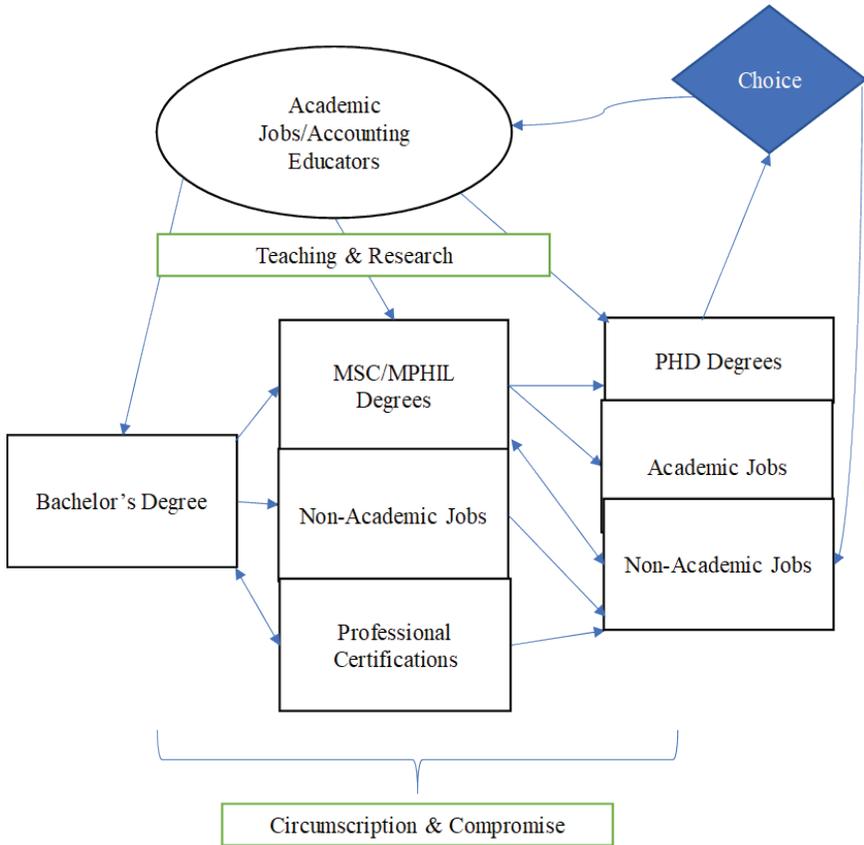


Figure 3: Accounting Students' Career Aspirations and Accounting Academics through the Lens of Gottfredson Theory of Circumscription

Empirical Review

Research outputs on the prospect of accounting education mostly concentrate on postgraduate accounting students. The few works that survey the perception of undergraduate students are either not profession-specific or do not isolate the accounting profession. Adopting a survey research on academics in the United Kingdom Beattie and Smith (2012) studied the perception of Doctoral Accounting Students and Graduates from the pre-1992 era to 2012. The research findings are quite daunting. The mean score derived for students' interest in pursuing a career in the academiawere either low or at medium level. Desire to learn, personal growth and development

as well as intellectual change ranked highest among the reasons adduced for their decisions to pursue a PhD career in accounting. A respondent also specifically stated the reason why many accounting graduates would not pursue a career in the academia. “with accounting, they tend to go for the jobs.....it’s the pay differential” (Beattie & Smith, 2012, p.27). Other reasons such as difficulty in finding supervisors who specialize in their fields of interest and a score of other reasons. Despite the discovery of this research explaining why most universities, globally, do not have accounting professors at the helm of affairs, it is entirely based on the survey of PhD accounting students. The few career choice factors (desire to learn, personal growth and development as well as intellectual development) considered in the work are peculiar to students who intend to achieve academic improvement rather than career aspirations thus precluding it from possibly suggesting the differential ranking of the students’ relative aspiration for being an accounting academic.

The findings of Beattie and Smith (2012) significantly align with the result of a study conducted in the US by Plumlee and Reckers (2014) which concluded that knowledge gap in the accounting profession reduces the academic quality of master’s students in accounting. While this has gone a long way to discourage students from pursuing their PhD after their Master’s Degree, their finding observed that “opportunities exist for more accounting students to teach and that could be the catalyst for the pursuit of an academic accounting career” (Plumlee & Reckers, 2014, p.329). The emphasis of this research is laid on the academic transition between a master’s degree and a PhD in accounting. It is focused mainly on master’s students and explains the dearth of accounting academics by unveiling the knowledge gap at various levels of accounting research as well as widening lacuna between accounting practice and research. Unlike the quest of our research, this work does not consider how such a gap can eventually affect the choice of undergraduate accounting students to become accounting academics.

Away from the difficulty in furthering their academic studies, a study conducted by Janger and Nowotny (2013) on the career choice in the academia through a survey the researchers identify a list of other factors that lead to intellectual flight in the academia. The finding of the research identified appropriate salaries, a balance between teaching and research as

well as availability of external grant to sponsor academic development as the main influences on the career decisions in the academia. Although the study is not profession-specific, it revealed further that the later stage in the career lives of academics is prominently marred with mobility to jobs outside the academia where private sector involvement is likely. To them, it confirms that “academic researchers do react to relative earnings, not just as a factor for the choice between two jobs in academic research, but also between a job in academic research and in the private sector” (p.36). The output of this work prepares a ground for our research because it enables the prediction of a profession-specific relationship between career choice factors and prospects of a specific career path. It, nonetheless, does not capture effects on career choice factors and referents on accounting academics.

Several researches have been conducted on undergraduate students’ career decisions (see Table 1). Although they are mostly not profession-specific, they share similar findings on the factors that determine their career decisions. Some of these factors include gender, parents’ occupation, parents’ level of education, parents’ level of influence and self-esteem (Esters & Bowen, 2005; Wilson, Jesson, Langley, Hatfield & Clarke, 2006; Janger & Nowotny, 2013; Fizer, 2013). Numerous as they are, none of these studies specifically examine the influence of career referents with a specific interest on accounting academics. Career referents, as noted by Wilson, et al (2006), have a major role to play in the lives of undergraduate students and deserve research attention in the examination of undergraduate career decisions.

RESEARCH DESIGN

A survey design was adopted in conducting this research. This method is usually adopted when the researcher does not intend to control any of the samples used for the study (Asika, 2006). Specifically, a questionnaire technique was used in gathering the data used for the purpose of analysis.

Sampling and Variable Measurement

Although, the population of interest in this study consists of all accounting students in Nigerian Universities, this study adopted a case of accounting students in the Ilorin metropolis. The three categories of

universities that operate by regulation in Nigeria co-exist in Ilorin and they are regulated on common grounds by the NUC. Although Federal universities are hitherto considered to be of high quality and meritorious than other forms of university, the quality gap appears to have been filled since universities owned by State Governments and private individuals are now subjected to similar regulations with the federal universities (NUC, 2015). A comparative report on Nigerian Education system as compared to the Dutch systems observed that:

“In the past, the quality of Federal universities was assumed to be better than that of State universities, due to the fact that individual States had the right to establish their own universities without the need for national accreditation. Nowadays all universities are monitored by the [federal] government.”

(Ep-nuffic, 2015, p.10)

Table 1 portrays the distribution of entire population of accounting students in Ilorin metropolis when data were collected.

Table 1: Population of Accounting Students of Universities in Ilorin metropolis

	100 Level	200 Level	300 Level	400 Level	Total
University of Ilorin	180	186	190	203	759
Kwara State University	160	130	125	154	569
Al-Hikmah University	33	60	70	106	269
Total					1597

Source: Students' registration list of the various schools

The questionnaire design was tailored towards gathering responses on students' career choices. Hence, questionnaire items were developed on the career choice factors identified in previous research findings as depicted in Appendix 1. A 5-point Likert scale measured by 5 = very important and 1 = not important was developed to measure the importance of each of the factors to the students' career decisions.

However, data was collected from the population of only 300 level and 400 level students as students at these levels would have formed their

career decisions at these levels. The career choice literature has indicated that that majority of university students form their career decisions at the end of their third year (Silverthorne, Price, Hanning, Scanlan & Cantrill, 2003). Hence, 380 copies of questionnaire were distributed to 300 level and 400 level students. Of these 286 were returned completed while 249 copies were found usable for analysis.

RESULTS

Preliminary Analysis

KMO and Bartlett's Test

To minimize assumptions regarding the items couched on each of the career choice factors as culled from previous works as shown in Appendix 1, a factor analysis was conducted on the responses gathered. Identical variables were connected, and equivocalness was reduced. As a result, seven (7) components were extracted from the structure of the entire 24 items. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure verified the sampling to be of average quality for the analysis as the $KMO = 0.760$, a value above the acceptable limit of 0.5 (Kaiser, 1974; Field, 1999). Bartlett's Test of Sphericity $X^2 (276) = 1911.091, p < 0.001$, indicated that correlations obtained between items were significantly appropriate for factor analysis (see Table 2). Factor loading of the rotated component matrix with an Orthogonal Varimax rotation with Kaiser Normalization of the 24 variables identified as the career choice variables are depicted in Table 3.

Table 2: KMO and Bartlett's Test

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.760
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1911.091
	Df	276
	Sig.	.000

Source: Author's computation 2017

Factor analysis

The seven factors extracted account for 65.9 percent of the variance in the 249 observations. The communalities range from 50.8 percent and

79.7 percent. Themes recurring among items grouped for a factor are used to couch a variable to represent the factor. As depicted in Table 3, the first factor encapsulates items such as opportunities for promotion, long range income, good working conditions, high initial salary and a host of other similar items. This factor accounts for the highest percentage of variance (17.12 percent) amongst the seven factors. For this analysis, this factor is tagged “financial reward”.

Items contained in the second factor recline towards intellectual challenge, pre-school work exposure, and being part of a team. It accounts for 10.52 percent variance and named “profession-driven” in this analysis. The third factor tagged academic prowess accounts for a 9.18 percent variance. Items bothering on studied subject, academic ability and career aptitude are the recurring features of this factor. ‘Job leisure’ appears most appropriate for the items of the fourth factor. It includes three items namely opportunity to travel, family-friendliness of job as well as parents’ occupation. It accounts for 9.12 percent.

The fifth factor, which is a bi-variable factor, has its components’ mien skewed towards future prospect and high ambitions. It is titled ‘ambitiousness’ as it accounts for 7.94 percent variance. The remaining two factors are measuring ‘humanitarian service’ and ‘career prestige’. They account for 6.18 percent and 5.79 percent respectively.

Table 3: Rotated Component Matrix^a

	Component						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Financial reward							
opportunities for promotion	.782						
long range income	.782						
good working conditions	.698						
availability of job	.648						
Ease of obtaining qualification	.609						
job satisfaction	.568						
High initial Salary	.559						

Preofession-driven

Cost of education	.705	
Being part of a team	.680	
Previous pre-school work experience	.661	
Years of formal education	.573	.463
Opportunity to work with the public	.540	
Intellectual Challenge		

Academic Prowess

Self-employment opportunities	.705	
study of subject in school	.670	
academic ability & aptitude for career	.475	.647

Job Liesure

Opportunity to travel	.854	
Family-friendly work schedule	.700	
Parents' occupation	.493	.490

Ambitiousness

Future prospect for political appointment	.833	
White collar vs. Blue collar	.793	

Humanitarian service

Chance to exercise leadership	.419	.667
Opportunity to help others	.478	.603

Prestige of career .768

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
 Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
 Rotation converged in 11 iterations.
 Source: Author's computation 2017

Descriptive Analysis

Respondents profile

Table 4 summarizes the profile of the respondents. However, preferred job after graduation was re-grouped into two groups of academic jobs and non-academic jobs to control for career decisions of students. The academic group totaled 25 while non-academic groups are 221 respondents. The frequency distribution and percentages of the respondent' bio-data are displayed in Table 4.

Table 4: Respondents' Profile

Description	Frequency	Percentage
Age(years)		
15-25	176	71.0
25-30	58	23.4
Above 30	14	5.6
Total	248	100.0
University ownership		
Federal Government	120	48.4
State University	45	18.1
Private University	83	33.5
Total	248	100.0
Level in the University		
300 Level	112	45.3
400 Level	135	54.7
Total	247	100.0
Preferred Job After Graduation		
Academic	25	10.2
Non- Academic	221	89.8
Total	246	100
Gender		
Male	122	49.6
Female	124	50.4
Total	218	100

Source: Author's computation 2017

Career Choice Factors

The descriptive analysis of the career choice factors was carried out with the use of mean and mean ranks presented in Table 5. From all the identified factors, respondents whose career choices are predicated on financial reward, job leisure, ambitiousness and career prestige prefer other jobs to academic jobs as indicated by their mean ranks out of the cases mentioned. However, students who opt for academic jobs are driven by the profession, academic prowess, as well as humanitarian service. The significant mean difference in each of the cases is tested under inferential analysis.

Table 5: Means and Mean Rank of Career Choice Factors between the Two Groups

	Job preference	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Financial reward	Academic	20	62.15	1243.00
	Non-Academic	174	101.56	17672.00
	Total	194		
Profession-driven	Academic	20	114.00	2280.00
	Non-Academic	174	95.60	16635.00
	Total	194		
Academic prowess	Academic	20	101.80	2036.00
	Non-Academic	174	97.01	16879.00
	Total	194		
Job Leisure	Academic	20	96.75	1935.00
	Non-Academic	174	97.59	16980.00
	Total	194		
Ambitiousness	Academic	20	81.20	1624.00
	Non-Academic	174	99.37	17291.00
	Total	194		
Humanitarian service	Academic	20	114.70	2294.00
	Non-Academic	174	95.52	16621.00
	Total	194		
Career Prestige	Academic	20	86.90	1738.00
	Non-Academic	174	98.72	17177.00
	Total	194		

Source: Author's computation 2017

Career Referents

The other influences identified in the career choice literature as determinants of students' career decisions are referents. That is, how influential people they consider important in their lives can influence their career decisions. The referents identified from previous work include parents, subject lecturers, guidance and counselor, relatives and family friends, motivational speakers, promotional materials as well as friends and peers. The mean rank displayed in Table 6 identified parent, guidance and counselor, promotional speakers and peers to rank lower in rank for academic jobs. It thus explains that each of the referents do not naturally

encourage students to pursue a career in the academia Subject lecturers as well as relatives and family friends are the only key referents that are identified to encourage students to pursue a career in the academia. A significant difference of the means was also tested in the inferential analysis section.

Table 6: Means and Mean Rank of key Referents between the Two Groups

Job preference		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Parents	Academic	23	95.91	2206.00
	Non-Academic	218	123.65	26955.00
	Total	241		
Subject lecturers	Academic	23	128.50	2955.50
	Non-Academic	218	120.21	26205.50
	Total	241		
Guidance and Counselling officer	Academic	23	112.52	2588.00
	Non-Academic	218	121.89	26573.00
	Total	241		
Relatives and family friends	Academic	23	122.63	2820.50
	Non-Academic	217	120.27	26099.50
	Total	240		
Motivational Speakers	Academic	23	72.13	1659.00
	Non-Academic	218	126.16	27502.00
	Total	241		
Promotional Materials	Academic	23	118.15	2717.50
	Non-Academic	218	121.30	26443.50
	Total	241		
Peers and friends	Academic	23	105.13	2418.00
	Non-Academic	218	122.67	26743.00
	Total	241		

Source: Author's computation 2017

Inferential Analysis

Normality test

Before proceeding to the test of hypotheses, z normality test was carried out on the variables to ensure the appropriate choice of a statistical tool. With the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test of normality as displayed in Table 7, it was discovered that none of the variables follow the law of normality. Consequently, the Wilcoxon signed-rank test, a non-parametric equivalent of dependent samples t-test was found more appropriate and used to test differences between the two cohorts of job preference after graduation.

Table 7: Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Financial Reward	.081	197	.003	.928	197	.000
Profession-Driven	.079	197	.004	.952	197	.000
Academic Prowess	.120	197	.000	.958	197	.000
Job Leisure	.068	197	.026	.960	197	.000
Ambitiousness	.091	197	.000	.960	197	.000
Humanitarian services	.117	197	.000	.921	197	.000
Non-Academic	.517	247	.000	.369	247	.000
Academic	.506	247	.000	.277	247	.000

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction
Source: Author's computation 2017

Students' Aspiration for Accounting Academics

The result displayed in Table 8 provides the answer to research question one regarding the level of students' aspiration for accounting academics with the aid of the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test. A related sample test of difference was run to examine whether students significantly aspire to become accounting academics after graduation. The result indicated a significant difference in the aspirations of students ($Z = -14.744, p < 0.05$) thereby indicating that students prefer other forms of jobs to an academic career.

This result merely confirms a near-consensus view and findings of previous researchers (Ashworth, 1969; Nelson, 1983; Beattie & Smith, 2012; Boyle et al., 2013). While some discovered that financial reward was the reason for the students' aspiration in non-academic jobs since

many perceive financial rewards as less than attractive (Nelson, 1983) for the academics, others believe that the problem starts from the refusal of students to pursue further academic degrees as well as the multiplying effect of the such on the availability of accounting faculty members required to train doctoral and masters programs in accounting. Hence, not only are the problems of students’ refusal to pursue an accounting academic career getting increased, a sharp decline has equally been observed in the capacity of doctoral programs in universities globally to cater for the demands of Masters’ and PhD accounting degrees (Plumlee & Reckers, 2014).

The Circumscription Theory explains occupational aspirations of people as being either realistic aspirations or idealistic aspirations. Realistic aspirations are accessible aspirations while idealistic aspirations are not accessible (Gottfredson & Lapan, 1997). The aspirations of the students at the undergraduate level as to whether it is idealistic or realistic are not apparent since they have not had the opportunity to try a job. However, it is obvious that students do not significantly show interest in the academic job at this level. As illustrated in Figure 3, the situation reflected by this result may worsen the situation even after their eventual graduation as the few ones who have shown interest in academic jobs will be exposed to other opportunities with rewards more attractive than the academia and equally less demanding in terms of aptitude.

Table 8: Test of Difference between Groups on Career Choice Factors

Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test	Z	Mean Rank	Sum of Rank
Non- Academic Ranks	222	135.50	30081.00
Academic Ranks	24	12.50	300.00
Ties	1		
Z			-14.744
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)			.000

Source: Author’s computation 2017

Influence of Career Choice Factors on Students' Decisions for Academic Career

All the 7 factors identified from the 24 items were tested for how they significantly influence the career decisions of students with respect to their preference for accounting academics using the Mann-Whitney U test of difference between the academic group and the non-academic group. The results as shown in Table 9 revealed that there is no significant difference between the two groups with respect to all the identified factors at the $p < .05$ except financial reward. Financial reward was found to be significantly influential on students' preference for non-academic jobs over academic jobs. Thus, students who intend to become lecturers are far less focused on financial rewards and tend to be swayed by financial rewards in the long run since, from inception, their career decisions are shaped by financial rewards.

This outcome, as articulated above, submits to the logic of Gottfredson (1981) in her Circumscription Theory that individuals tend to circumscribe their occupational preferences in the wake of factors extraneous to the self-concept. Although, this work does not test for the identification of the self-concepts of the students, it holds that individual self-concepts that have been formed from childhood could not have been determined by financial rewards. More striking is the submission of result that confirms the logic of circumscription through the output of the mean ranks which isolates financial reward, job leisure, ambitiousness and career prestige for the preference of other jobs over academic jobs. Diametrically, factors that are sympathetic to self-concepts are the ones that determine the career choices of academic job lovers. These include profession-driven, academic prowess, as well as humanitarian service.

Additionally, the only factor that significantly differentiates the two groups is financial reward. This confirms the conclusion of Nelson (1983) that "very few students choose to pursue academic careers in accounting ...because the standards are extremely rigorous and the rewards are less than attractive" (p. 70) and to Beattie and Smith, (2012), students with accounting degrees tend to go for the jobs rather than academics because of the difference in pay . Relating this to the dogma of circumscription, it may be concluded that in as much as financial reward continues to be less attractive in the academia accounting academics may not improve in quantity. Consequently, it may also affect the quality.

Table 9: Test of Difference between Groups on Career Choice Factors

	Financial Reward	Profession-driven	Academic prowess	Job leisure	Ambitiousness	Humanitarian service	Career prestige
Mann-Whitney U	1033	1410	1654	1725	1414	1396	1528
Wilcoxon W	1243	16635	16879	1935	1624	16621	1738
Z	-2.97	-1.39	-0.36	-0.1	-1.371	-1.447	-0.89
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0.003	0.165	0.718	0.95	0.17	0.148	0.373

a. Grouping Variable: Job preference
 Source: Author's computation 2017

Influence of Career Referents on Students’ Decisions for Academic Career

The influence of referents on the career decisions of students are tested with results of the Mann-Whitney U test of difference depicted in Table 10. It shows therein that motivational speakers and parents are the referents that significantly differentiate students on the preference of career choices at the $p < 0.05$ level. It could be inferred that students form career decisions regardless of the identified referents and can be swayed by advice from parents as well as speeches of motivational speakers to reshape their career decisions for accounting academics.

Like the outcome of previous findings, parents have been found to be significant in influencing the career decisions of their children. In a study conducted in the Asian American communities, most students’ career choices are not products of their personal aspirations but are rather based on collective family decisions (Salami, 2007). Bakshi, Gandhi, Shah and Maru (2012) also submitted that family influence on career choices starts early in an individual’s life since family members may exhibit specific traits associated with a career or job. Further, they reiterate that students’ aspirations for work are influenced by what they are exposed to by their parents. In another study conducted by Smith, Smith, & Mulig, (2005), accounting instructors and parents most likely influence their students career decision even though this study isolated parents and motivational speakers.

Gottfredson’s (2002) proposition of the Circumscription Theory noted that as some points, occupational choices, initially held by a student is reduced as he progresses. This happens progressively as some of his occupational choices are rendered unacceptable by persons such as family, politicians and teachers. This thus constrict such a person to a zone of specific social space thus advancing such a fellow to the circumscription stage of the theoretical exposition. As a result, students deviate from their self-concept which is their self-chosen career aspiration. This is the level he terms the ‘compromise level’ and its usually a product of external factors. In this case, parents and motivational speakers.

Table 10: Test of Difference between Groups on Referents

	Parents	Subject lecturers	Guidance and Counseling officer	Relatives and family friends	Motivational Speakers	Promotional Materials	Peers and friends
Mann-Whitney U	1930	2334.5	2312	2446.5	1383	2441.5	2142
Wilcoxon W	2206	26206	2588	26100	1659	2717.5	2418
Z	-1.92	-0.574	-0.649	-0.161	-3.857	-0.219	-1.193
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0.05	0.566	0.517	0.872	0	0.827	0.233

a. Grouping Variable: Job preference
 Source: Author’s computation 2017

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

This study adopted a positivist approach to use the Circumscription Theory to identify the important variables in students’ career preference for academic jobs and the prospect of accounting academics in Nigerian universities. Notwithstanding the sparse research output on the prospect of accounting academics, the research shows how students, segregated on the basis of their preference for academic jobs and non-academics jobs and consider some extant factors in making their career decisions.

Hence, comparison among students was done by dividing them basically into the two identified groups. From previous work on career choices, 24 items were couched to represent the students' career decision. The Principal Component Analysis was conducted on the variables which eventually led to the reduction of the response dimension to seven factors namely; financial reward, profession-driven, job leisure, ambitiousness, humanitarian services as well as career prestige. Samples were drawn from 300 level and 400 level students since most students take career decisions at these levels and are considered more stable with the academic environment than their younger colleagues (Silverthorne et al, 2003)

Given the results generated from the data analysed, the study provided three answers to address the objectives of the study. First, the study, in line with previous authors submit that most students would not opt to be accounting academics. This is considered the first level of discovery to isolate some other variables that may be responsible for such a situation. At the second and third stages, the study identified career choice factors as well as career choice referents and examined how they both affect students' interest in accounting academics. The study also noted that students mostly prefer other forms of jobs to academic jobs because of financial rewards. This is in line with the submission of previous researchers in a similar quest believing that pay differential is essential in the determination of students' career decision. Additionally, parents and motivation speakers were identified as influencers of students' career decisions in favour of other jobs at the expense of accounting academic jobs.

Acknowledging the fact that generalizing case study research may be biased, the inclusion of the three major forms of university in Nigeria in our sample could greatly reduce such biases. More so, a questionnaire was used to collect data on career decisions of students. As expected, students' career decisions at the undergraduate level, are usually illusionary aspirations. This is not considered a serious limitation as the questionnaire constructs were derived from previously validated instruments as indicated in Appendix 1. Hopefully this does not pose a threat to the reliability of the data gathered.

Despite the limitations observed above, this study contributes to the accounting education literature, particularly the Nigerian Accounting Education System. It submits that students career decision at present, does

not offer hope for better prospects in accounting academics. It however recommends that the attention of government be directed to areas of financial rewards for the academics. Relevance should also be given to the system of academic jobs to include leisure; holiday travels, prestige and easy achievement of ambitions since students get swayed from academic jobs due of those factors.

REFERENCES

- Adams, S., Pryor, L., & Adams, S. (1994). Attraction and retention of high aptitude students in accounting: an exploratory longitudinal study. *Issues in Accounting Education*, 9(1), 45–58.
- Ahmed, K., Alam, K., & Alam, M. (1997). An empirical study of factors affecting accounting students' career choice in New Zealand. *Accounting Education: an International Journal*, 6(4), 325–335.
- ANAN. (2014). Association of National Accountants of Nigeria. Retrieved 10 22, 2016, from ANAN Education and Training: www.anan.org.ng
- Ashworth, J. (1969). The pursuit of high quality recruits. *The Journal of Accountancy*, (February), 53-59.
- Auyeung, P., & Sands, J. (1997). Factors influencing accounting students' career choice: a cross-cultural validation study. *Accounting Education: an International Journal*, 6(1), 13–23.
- Bakshi, A. J., Gandhi, H. N., Shah, R., & Maru, K. (2012). Indian Journal of Career and Livelihood Planning. *Journal of the Indian Association for Career and Livelihood Planning (IACLP)*, 1(1).
- Beattie, V., & Smith, S. J. (2012). *Today's PhD Students- is there a future generation of accounting academics or are the dying breed? a UK Perspective*. Institute of Chartered Accountants of Scotland. Edinburgh: ICAS.

- Boyle, D. M., Carpenter, B. W., Hermanson, D. R., & Mensah, M. O. (2013, May). The Accounting Doctorate Shortage: Opportunities for Practitioners. *Strategic Finance*, pp. 31-36.
- Brink, A. G., Glasscock, R., & Wier, B. (2012). The current state of accounting Ph. D. programs in the United States. *Issues in Accounting Education*, 27(4), 917-942.
- Bryne, M., Willis, P., & Burke, J. (2012). Influences on school leavers' career decisions - implications for the accounting profession. *The International Journal of Management Education*, 10, 101-111.
- Bundy, P., & Norris, D. (1992). What accounting students consider important in the job selection process. *Journal of Applied Business Research*, 8(2), 1-6.
- Carpenter, C. G., & Strawser, R. H. (June 1970). Job selection preferences of accounting students. *The Journal of Accountancy*, 84-86.
- Cohen, J., & Hanno, D. (1993). An analysis of the underlying constructs affecting the choice of accounting as a major. *Issues in Accounting Education*, 8(2), 219-238.
- Dawis, R. V., & Lofquist, L. (1984). "A psychological theory of work adjustment." Minneapolis: University of Minnesota.
- Ep-nuffic. (2015). "The Nigerian Education System described as compared with the Dutch system." Interbationalisin education.
- Esters, L., & Bowen, B. (2005). "Factors influencing career choices of urban agriculture education students." *Journal of Agricultural Education*, 46(2), 24-35.
- Federal Ministry Education (2015). *Education in Nigeria*. Abuja: Ministry of Education.
- Felton, S., Buhr, N., & Northey, M. (1994). Factors influencing the business students' choice of a career in chartered accountancy. *Issues in Accounting Education*, 9(1), 131-141.

- Felton, S., Dimnik, T., & Northey, M. (1995). A theory of reasoned action model of the chartered accountant career choice. *Journal of Accounting Education*, 13(1), 1–19. doi:10.1016/0748-5751(94)00027-1.
- Field, A. (2009). *Discovering Statistics Using SPSS*. London: SAGE Publications Ltd.
- Fizer, D. (2013). Factors affecting career choices of college students enrolled in agriculture. Martin: Unpublished Master's Thesis, The University of Tennessee.
- Fogarty, T. J., & Holder, A. D. (2012). Exploring accounting doctoral program decline: Variation and the search for antecedents. *Issues in Accounting Education*, 27(2), 373-397.
- Gottfredson, L. (1981). Circumscription and compromise. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 28, 545-579.
- Gottfredson, L. (2002). Gottfredson's Theory of Circumscription, Compromise and self-Creation. In D. B. Associates, *Career Choice and development* (pp. 85-148). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Gottfredson, L. S. (1996). Gottfredson's theory of circumscription and compromise. In L. B. D. Brown, *Career choice and developmemnt* (pp. 179-232). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Gottfredson, L. S. (1997). Why gmatters: The complexity of everyday life. *Intelligence*, 24(1), 79-132.
- Gul, F., Andrew, B., Leong, S., & Ismail, Z. (1989). Factors influencing choice of discipline of study – *accountancy, engineering, law and medicine*. *Accounting and Finance*, 29(2), 98–101.
- Gul, F., Huang, A., & Subramaniam, N. (1992). Cognitive style as a factor in accounting students' perceptions of career-choice factors. *Psychological Reports*, 71(3), 1275–1281. doi:10.2466/PR0.71.8.1275-1281, PMid:1480715.

- Haswell, S., & Holmes, S. (1988). Accounting graduate employment choice. *The Chartered Accountant in Australia*, 53(2), 63–67.
- Hermanson, D. R. (2008). What I have learned so far: Observations on managing an academic accounting career. *Issues in accounting education*, 23(1), 53-66.
- Holland, J. (1985). *Making vocational choices*. Odessa, FL: Psychological Assessment Resources.
- ICAN. (2014). *Regulations and Examinations Syllabu for the Training of Chartered Accountants in Nigeria*. Lagos: ICAN.
- ICAN-MCATI. (2015). “Proposed Mutual Cooperation Agreement with Tertiary Institutions (MCATI)”. Retrieved 10 22, 2016, from ICAN: www.icanig.org
- Imhoff jr, E. (2001). Planning academic accounting careers. *Issues in Accounting Education*, 286-301.
- Inanga, E.L., & Schneider, W.B. (2005). “The failure of accounting research to improve accounting practice: a problem of theory and lack of communication.” *Critical Perspectives on Accounting*. 16, 227-284.
- Inman, B. C., Wenzler, A., & Wickert, P. (1989). Square pegs in round holes: are accounting students well-suited to today’s accounting profession? *Issues in Accounting Education*, 4(1), 29–47.
- Jackling, B., & Calero, C. (2006). Influences on undergraduate students’ intentions to become qualified accountants: evidence from Australia. *Accounting Education: An International Journal*, 15(4), 419–438. doi:10.1111/j.1467-629X.2008.00273.x.
- Janger, J., & Nowotny, K. (2013). *Career choices in academia*. Austria: Welfarewealthwork.
- Junk, K. E. (2008). Stability of career aspirations: a test of Gottfredson’s theory of circumscription and compromise. *IOWA State Univesity Retrospective Theses and Dissertations, Paper 15298*.

- Kaiser, H. (1974). A second-generation little jiffy. *psychometrika*, 35, 401-415.
- Karnes, A., King, J., & Hahn, R. (1997). Is the accounting profession losing high potential recruits in high school by default? *Accounting Educators' Journal*, 9(2), 28–43.
- Lowe, D., & Simons, K. (1997). Factors influencing choice of business major – some additional evidence: a research note. *Accounting Education: An International Journal*, 6(1), 39–45.
- Myburgh, J. E. (2005). An empirical analysis of career choice factors that influence first-year accounting students at the university of Pretoria: a cross-racial study. *Meditari Accountancy Research*, 13(2), 35–48.
- Nelson, A. T. (1983). Accounting education's coming crisis: Who will teach the next generation? Practitioners can help. *The Journal of Accountancy* (April), 70-80.
- National Universities Commission. (2015). *About NUC*. Retrieved 10 22, 2016, from <http://eee.nuc.edu.ng>.
- Paolillo, J., & Estes, R. (1982). An empirical analysis of career choice factors among accountants, attorneys, engineers, and physicians. *The Accounting Review*, 57(4), 785–793.
- Pasons, F. (1909). *Choosing a vocation*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.
- Plumlee, R. D., & Reckers, M. (2014). Lessons not learned: Why is there still a crisi-level shortage of accounting PhDs? *Accounting Horizons*, 28(2), 313-330.
- Riahi-Belkaoui, A. (2005). *Accounting theory*. UK: Pat Bond.
- Roberts, C. (2005). “Gatekeeping theory: An evolution.”Communication Theory and Methodology Division Association for Education in Journalism and Mass Communication, 1-17.

- Salami, S. O. (2007). Influence of culture, family and individual differences on choice of gender-dominated occupations among female students in tertiary institutions. *Women in Management Review*, 22(8), 650-665.
- Shank, J. K. (1981). *Academic Research in Accounting: The impact of economic incentives*. Columbus: Arthur Young Professors' Roundtable, Ohio State University.
- Silverthorne, J., Price, G., & Cantrill, J. (2003). Factors that influence the career choices of pharmacy undergraduates. *Pharmacy Education*, 3(3), 161-167.
- Smith, L. M., Smith, K. T., & Mulig, E. V. (2005). Application and assessment of an ethics presentation for accounting and business classes. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 61(2), 153-164.
- TaAn L. M., & Laswad, F. (2006). Students' beliefs, attitudes and intentions to major in accounting. *Accounting Education: an International Journal*, 15(2), 167-187.
- Watts. R.L. & Zimmerman. J.L. (1979). "The demand and supply of accounting theories: The market for excuses," *The Accounting Review*, (April), 273-305.
- Wilson, K., Jesson, J., Langley, C., Hatfield, K., & Clarke, L. (2006). "Pharmacy Undergraduate Students: Career Choices & Expectations Across A Four-Year Degree Programme." London: The Royal Pharmaceutical Society of Great Britain.

APPENDIX

Appendix 1: Variables selected for inclusion in the study

Variable	Study
Job satisfaction	4,10,11,12,19
Good working conditions	5,6,13,14,18
Aptitude for careers	1,4,10,11,17,19,20
Job security	2,5,6,8,9,12,13,18
Long range earnings	1,2,3,4,5,7,8,9,10,11,12,13,14,15,17,19,20
Availability of employment	1,2,4,7,8,9,10,11,12,13,15,19,20
Adequate leisure time	5,7,13,14,20
Opportunities for employment	2,5,6,7,8,9,12,13,14,18,20
Variety of work	5,8,9,18
Intellectual challenge	2,5,8,9,17,18, 20
Prestige of career	1,2,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,11,12,13,14,15,17,18,19,20
Opportunity to travel	3,5,18
Family friendly work schedules	5,14
Study of subject in school	2,8,15
High initial salary	2,5,6,7,8,9,13,14,17,18,20
Chance to exercise leadership	3,5
Opportunity to help others	3,5,8,9,13
Being part of a team	5,15
Ease of obtaining qualification	1,7,13,18,20
Self-employment opportunities	2,3,7,12,13,14,17,18,20
Opportunity to work with the public	3,7
Years of formal education	4,10,11,18,19
Previous work experience	2,4,10,11,17,19
Remaining in the area where I grew up	3
Parents' occupations	1,7,17,19

Appendix 2: Sources of variables selected for inclusion in the study

s/n	Author	Country	Study Focus
1	Adams et al. (1994)	US	Choice of major
2	Ahmed et al. (1994)	New Zealand	Career choice
3	Ashworth (1969)	US	Quality of recruits
4	Auyeung and Sands (1997)	Australia, Hong Kong, Taiwan	Career choice
5	Bundy and Norris (1992)	US	Employment Choice
6	Carpenter and Strawser (June 1970)	US	Employment Choice
7	Cohen and Hanno (1993) Feiton et al	US	Choice of major
8	Feiton et al (1994)	Canada	Career choice
9	Felton et al. (1995)	Canada	Career choice
10	Gul et al (1989)	Australia	Discipline of study
11	Gul et al (Huang and Subramaniam (June 1992)	Australia	Career choice
12	Haswell and Holmes (1992)	Australia	Employment choice
13	Hermanson, Hermanson, and Ivancevich (1995)	US	Choice of major
14	Inman et al (1989)	US	Career Choice
15	Jackling and calero (2006)	Australia	Career choice
16	Karnes et al. (1997)	US	Career choice
17	Lowe and Sions (1997)	US	Choice of major
18	Myburgh (2005)	South Africa	Career choice
19	Paolillo and Estes (1982)	US	Career choice
20	Tan and Laswad (2006)	New Zealand	Choice of major

Source: Byrne, Willis and Burke (2012)