Lisbon School of Economics & Management
Universidade de Lisboa

MASTER

CONTABILIDADE, FISCALIDADE E FINANÇAS EMPRESARIAIS

MASTER´S FINAL WORK

DISSERTATION

PERSONALITY CHARACTERISTICS, PREFERENCES FOR REWARDS, AND THE PROPENSITY TO CHOOSE AN AUDITING JOB

BRUNO ALEXANDRE CORREIA GREGÓRIO

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SUPERVISION:
PROFESSORA DOUTORA SOFIA LOURENÇO
PROFESSORA DOUTORA IRYNA ALVES

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ABSTRACT

This dissertation explores theoretical relationships among personality characteristics, preferences for different types of rewards and the propensity to choose a job in auditing. Specifically, we consider as personality characteristics - motivation, locus of control (internal and external), and self-efficacy – and as types of rewards - financial, extrinsic, support and intrinsic. In order to empirically test our proposed conceptual model, we collected data through a snowball sampling technique targeted at management-related higher education students. We applied Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM) using Smart PLS 3.0 to analyse the data.

Our findings show that extrinsic motivation is positively associated with preferences for financial and extrinsic rewards, whereas intrinsic motivation is positively associated with preferences for support and intrinsic rewards. We also find that external locus of control is positively associated with a preference for extrinsic rewards, and internal locus of control relates positively to preferences for all types of rewards, except financial rewards. Additionally, self-efficacy has a positive association with preferences for financial, extrinsic, and intrinsic rewards. Finally, we find a positive association between preferences for extrinsic rewards and the propensity to choose a job in auditing.

Our study provides both theoretical and practical contributions. Regarding theoretical contributions, we are - to the best of our knowledge - the first to assess preferences for different types of rewards considering multiple personality characteristics and a full range of incentives. For practitioners, our study provides insights that can be used by auditing firms to develop more persuasive recruitment strategies based on one's profile, which can help these companies to attract and retain auditor candidates.

KEYWORDS: *Motivation; Locus of Control; Self-Efficacy; Preferences for Rewards; Auditing Job; PLS-SEM*

RESUMO

A presente dissertação explora as relações teóricas entre características de personalidade, preferências por diferentes tipos de recompensas e a propensão para a escolha de um emprego em auditoria. Especificamente, consideramos como características de personalidade - motivação, locus de controlo (interno e externo) e autoeficácia – e como tipos de recompensas - financeiras, extrínsecas, de suporte e intrínsecas. Para testar empiricamente o modelo, foram recolhidos dados com base numa técnica de amostragem em bola-de-neve, que incidiu sobre alunos da área de gestão e afins. Aplicámos, posteriormente, o Modelo de Equações Estruturais dos Mínimos Quadrados Parciais (PLS-SEM), usando o Smart PLS 3.0, para analisar os dados.

Os nossos resultados mostram que a motivação extrínseca está positivamente associada com preferências por recompensas financeiras e extrínsecas, enquanto a motivação intrínseca está positivamente associada às preferências por recompensas de suporte e intrínsecas. Também descobrimos que o locus de controlo externo está positivamente associado a uma preferência por recompensas extrínsecas, e o locus de controlo interno relaciona-se positivamente com preferências por todas as recompensas, à exceção das financeiras. Adicionalmente, a autoeficácia tem uma associação positiva com preferências por recompensas financeiras, extrínsecas e intrínsecas. Finalmente, identificamos uma associação positiva entre preferência por recompensas extrínsecas e a propensão para escolher um emprego em auditoria.

O nosso estudo tem contribuições teóricas e práticas. Em relação às teóricas, somos - para aquele que é o nosso melhor conhecimento - os primeiros a avaliar preferências por diferentes tipos de recompensas considerando múltiplas características de personalidade e um conjunto completo de incentivos. Na dimensão prática, o nosso estudo fornece novos conhecimentos que podem ser usados pelas firmas de auditoria para definir estratégias de recrutamento mais persuasivas baseadas no perfil dos indivíduos, o que pode ajudar estas empresas a atrair e reter potenciais auditores.

PALAVRAS-CHAVE*: Motivação; Locus de Controlo; Autoeficácia; Preferências por recompensas; Emprego em auditoria; PLS-SEM*

INSCRIPTION

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Jeremias, minha bola de pelo branco, estejas onde estiveres, que estejas em paz.

Tenho saudades tuas. Fazes-me muita falta.

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This page is written in Portuguese on purpose

Em primeiro lugar, um sincero obrigado às minhas orientadoras – Professora Sofia Lourenço e Professora Iryna Alves. Conseguimos. Como as Professoras me disseram uma vez, os três formamos uma equipa. E assim o fomos.

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Professora Isabel Proença, muito obrigado, mesmo, pela sua importante ajuda no último dia antes de submeter a tese.

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Catarina, Diogo, Francisco, Raul, Joca e Primo, isto é só um começo do muito sucesso que está por vir, verdade? Sem vocês, nem faria sentido. Obrigado, mesmo.

"A distância entre a insanidade e a genialidade é tão-só medida pelo sucesso"

- Bruce Feirstein

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AVE – Average Variance Extracted

BIC – Bayesian Information Criterion

CB – Covariance-Based

CMB – Common Method Bias

CR – Composite Reliability

EFA – Exploratory Factor Analysis

ELC – External Locus of Control

ExtMot – Extrinsic Motivation

ExtRew – Extrinsic Rewards

FinRew – Financial Rewards

f^2 – Effect sizes

ILC – Internal Locus of Control

IntMot – Intrinsic Motivation

IntRew – Intrinsic Rewards

IPMA – Importance-Performance Map Analysis

LC – Locus of Control

MGA – Multi-group Analysis

MICOM – Measurement Invariance of Composite Models

PAJ – Propensity to Choose an Auditing Job

PCM – Principal Component Method

PLS-SEM – Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling

PreExtRew – Preference for Extrinsic Rewards

PreFinRew – Preference for Extrinsic Rewards

PreIntRew – Preference for Intrinsic Rewards

PreSuppRew – Preference for Support Rewards

Q^2 – Stone-Geiser's Q^2

R^2 – Coefficient of Determination

RA – Risk Aversion

rms Theta – Root Mean Squared Residual Covariance Matrix of the Outer Model Residuals

SE – Self-Efficacy

SRMR – Standardized Root Mean Square Residual

SuppRew – Support Rewards

VIF – Variance Inflation Factor

1. INTRODUCTION

The propensity to choose a job in auditing is common among management-related students (Espinosa-Pike et al., 2021). However, this contrasts with the high turnover ratios auditing companies face (Nouri & Parker, 2020) - both in Portugal and abroad. Moreover, prior literature suggests that new entrances are not enough to offset those that leave (Khavis & Krishnan, 2021). Therefore, it is crucial to enhance strategies to attract and retain auditor candidates.

To this end it is important to consider the role rewards play in attracting job seekers (Victor & Hoole, 2021). Providing different rewards affects job attractiveness among job-seekers, thus influencing the propensity to choose a given profession, such as auditing. Moreover, rewards are considered to be persuasive depending on the extent to which they match one's preferences (Chiang & Birtch, 2007). Therefore, it is not surprising the growing interest on the drivers of self-reported preferences for rewards (e.g., Lourenço, 2020).

Personality characteristics outstand as relevant predictors of one's preferences (Julian et al., 2021) as they are the root of human behaviour (Becker et al., 2011). However, to the best of our knowledge, neither study has attempted to establish a relationship between multiple personality characteristics, such as motivation, locus of control and self-efficacy, and preferences for rewards, nor an association between preferences for rewards and the propensity to choose an auditing job.

To fulfil this gap, this study aims to answer two research questions: 1. *How are personality characteristics, namely, motivation, locus of control, and self-efficacy related to stated preferences for a full range of incentives?* and 2. *Which preferences are related to students' propensity to choose an auditing job?* In order to obtain an answer to these questions, data was collected from a sample of 652 management-related students, via a survey, and Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM) was applied.

Results show that extrinsic motivation is positively associated with preferences for financial rewards and extrinsic rewards, whereas intrinsic motivation is positively associated with preferences for support rewards and intrinsic rewards. These findings are consistent with prior research which states that people whose motivation is driven by

external (internal) sources value rewards that target external (internal) factors (Gagné & Deci, 2005; Stajkovic & Luthans, 2001). We also find that external locus of control is positively related to a preference for extrinsic rewards, suggesting that external-oriented individuals try to balance their feelings of social-exclusion(Ye & Lin, 2015) by seeking extrinsic rewards in the workplace, which provide social recognition. Additionally, there is a positive association between internal locus of control and preferences for all rewards, with the exception of financial rewards, thus entailing the idea that money is not something valued by internal-oriented individuals. Nevertheless, we argue this non-significant relationship can be due to social desirability as previous research has found a positive association between social desirability and internal locus of control (Valentine et al., 2019), and stating a preference for money (financial rewards) may be seen as greedy. Moreover, self-efficacy is positively related to preferences for all rewards, except support rewards. This non-significant result can be due to a Type A Personality (Rayburn & Rayburn, 1996) among individuals with high self-efficacy, which leads them to be emotionally detached from others (Jia et al., 2022). Therefore, they do not value support rewards because they aim to build emotional ties between the employee and the employer (Chiang & Birtch, 2007). Finally, a preference for extrinsic rewards is positively associated with the propensity to choose an auditing job, suggesting people who like power, authority and leadership are willing to pursue an auditing job. Such finding is consistent with qualitative studies that pointed prestige to be a key-driver to become an auditor among management-related students (Bekoe et al., 2018; Ng et al., 2017; Tetteh et al., 2022).

This work has theoretical implications as well as practical contributions. Regarding the former, we are, to the best of our knowledge, the first to draw preferences for a full range of rewards based on three personality characteristics simultaneously (motivation, locus of control and self-efficacy). Moreover, we associate preferences for rewards with students' willingness to become an auditor, which extends previous qualitative research done upon the drivers to pursue an auditing career (Tetteh et al., 2022). In respect to practical contributions, we provide insights of how to set, given some personality characteristics, a more persuasive recruitment strategy, which can help auditing firms mitigating the high turnover ratios (Nouri & Parker, 2020).

The next chapters unfold the following way. Chapter 2 reviews the literature and develops the research hypotheses. Chapter 3 presents the methodology. Chapter 4 presents the results. Finally, chapter 5 concludes and presents limitations and suggestions for further research.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

2.1. Personality Characteristics

Each human being has his/her own way of behaving. One's personality is one of the essences of such differences. In fact, Allport (1937) defines personality as a set of features that constitute a partial foundation of one's behavior. Personality has been increasingly incorporated in management accounting research, inasmuch as people do not make decisions only by carrying cognitive elements (Abernethy & Wallis, 2019). That is, personality characteristics are known to have equally large effects upon outcomes. Personality characteristics encompass, among others, motivation, locus of control and self-efficacy. Therefore, they can contribute to a better understanding of the reward systems' efficacy (Vandenberghe et al., 2008).

2.2. Motivation: Definition and Types

One personality characteristic that affects choices, in the labour context, is motivation (Hahn & King, 2021). Motivation is a driver that leads human beings to do something, such as engaging in a certain action (Deci et al., 2017). There are many motivation theories but one relevant to our work is the theory of Vroom (1964). This author argues that one person will feel motivated to do something if s/he perceives the task to be done as worthy for him/her. Thus, the higher the worthiness, the higher the effort the person will employ. Nevertheless, the valence of doing something can arise from two sources – extrinsic and intrinsic. In the former case, the person has an extrinsic motivation (hereafter, ExtMot), while in the latter s/he has an intrinsic motivation (from now on, IntMot).

Persons who have an ExtMot engage in a given task because they foresee the rewards they can gain after completing the task (Derfler-Rozin & Pitesa, 2021). Conversely, individuals with an IntMot derive joy and pleasure from the task in itself and not from ex post rewards (Gagné & Deci, 2005). Hence, IntMot is driven by internal factors, whereas ExtMot is propelled by external causes. Therefore, these two concepts are different in nature, and, as such, demand different approaches from organisations when designing a reward system (Victor & Hoole, 2021).

2.3. Preferences for Rewards

Rewards, or incentives, are usually implemented by companies to boost employees' performance and influence workers' behaviour (Beuren et al., 2020).[1] Therefore, it is not surprising that rewards are widely used by organisations all around the world. For instances, in the United States of America, 75% of enterprises have already offered incentives conditioned on employees' productivity (Harrison, 2019). Within European Union, this percentage falls to 63 (Brown, 2020).

The implementation of incentives has its inception on Agency Theory, in order to mitigate moral hazard problems (Jensen & Meckling, 1976). Moral hazard refers to deviant behaviours in organisations that are not due to bad selection but rather rooted in one's self-interest, who maximizes his/her own welfare and ignores what is in the interest of the organisation. As a solution, the principal (i.e., company's owner) assigns financial rewards to the agent (i.e., the manager), so that the latter's performance is aligned with the former's interests (Caglio et al., 2018). Historically, such problems were only studied at higher hierarchical levels. However, nowadays, scholars are increasingly interested in analysing these issues also at lower hierarchical levels, because each employee plays an important role on organisational performance. Therefore, a reward can be defined as a (potential) performance booster that aims to elicit workers' highest efforts by energizing their volition to reach goals and being eligible to receive a prize for it (Vaz et al., 2020).

However, organisations must account for several problems arising from a reward-based approach. First, owners should be aware of a potential crowding-out effect, i.e., external interventions may undermine the enjoyment of doing a task for the sake of itself (Deci & Ryan, 1999). Second, incentives can lead firms to face an unhealthy gamification, where employees become over-competitive, and end up falsifying data (e.g., through earnings management) to earn an award without deserving it (Friedrich et al., 2020). Finally, according to Rose et al. (2018), rewards, like unrestricted stocks compensations, prevent stakeholders from knowing what's going on within the company, as managerial levels will not "blow the whistle" since their payment depends on firm's performance.

[1] Hereafter, as past research has already done, we will be using the terms rewards and incentives interchangeably, even though we recognize there is a slight difference on the subject of its meanings, similar to Garbers and Konradt (2014).

The literature has several rewards' frameworks, but one relevant to our study is Chiang and Birtch's (2007). These authors distinguish between four types of rewards, one financial type and three non-financial (specifically extrinsic, support, and intrinsic). An advantage of using this taxonomy is the vast number of non-financial incentives that are conceptually unequal and differently purpose-oriented.

Financial rewards (FinRew) are cash-flow based. According to Chiang and Birtch (2007), examples of FinRew are: individual performance incentives, basic salary, overall benefits, team performance incentives, job security, and organisation incentive plan. Previous research has focused on individual and team performance incentives. Together, they give rise to a broader concept: variable compensation. Variable compensation increases the acceptance of difficult performance goals, leading to an enhancement of productivity (Jenkins et al., 1998). Additionally, variable compensation entices above-average workers, since only those who are likely to have a good performance have a reason to self-select themselves into variable compensation agreements (Gerhart & Fang, 2014).

Extrinsic rewards (ExtRew) are non-financial rewards (not cash-flow based) related to causes external to the task in itself. Following Chiang and Birtch's (2007) taxonomy, examples of ExtRew are: relationships with co-workers, management style, authority/power, job pressure, job title/status, equity, and team spirit. Past research has been particularly focused on management style, power and status (Gkorezis & Petridou, 2012). Management style refers to how managers run their teams, while power and status can be a consequence of hierarchical promotions.

Support rewards (SuppRew) are non-financial rewards (not cash-flow based) related to the working conditions that aim to provide an inherent joy from the task. Thus, they can be considered as more "internal" than the previous category. Examples of SuppRew, according to Chiang and Birtch (2007), are: organisational support, job location, alternative work arrangements, flexible benefits, balance work-personal life, and working environment. For example, Berenyi (2022) argues the importance of organisational support, balance work-personal life, and working environment for employees fully performing their duties. Organisational support refers to someone feeling that his/her firm values employees' contributions and cares about their emotional well-

being (Akingbola & van den Berg, 2019). In parallel, work-life balance offers more flexibility to workers manage their lives, professionally and personally, which enhances job satisfaction (Carleton & Kelly, 2019). Finally, working environment refers to interpersonal relationships, that is, the extent to which ties between colleagues are guided by mutual help and fellowship, which can affect job satisfaction (Paramitha & Indarti, 2014).

Finally, intrinsic rewards (IntRew) are non-financial rewards related to the task in itself, i.e., internal factors. Examples of IntRew, as illustrated by Chiang and Birtch (2007), are: challenge, job variety, accomplishment, autonomy, responsibility, nature of work, opportunity to use skills/ability, learning opportunities, and job satisfaction. Organisations that provide their employees with autonomy, challenging tasks, opportunities to use skills, and learning moments are intrinsically rewarding their workforce (see Clay et al., 2022). IntRew seem to be particularly appealing to younger people (Mosquera et al., 2020), which is consistent with the idea that millennials often seek more meaningful working conditions (Bussin et al., 2019), compared to previous generations.

Preferences for rewards constitute an ongoing debate in academia. For instances, Lourenço (2020) finds that a stated preference for an incentive can either lead to a better performance or have no effect. The reason is that self-reported preferences may come with some pitfalls, namely, social desirability bias (Rynes et al., 2004) and a *lay rationalism* effect (Hsee et al., 2003). Social desirability bias occurs when individuals express their preferences according to social norms instead of their own will. Lay *rationalism* refers to human beings' tendency to overrate "hard" characteristics (rewards), such as money due to its tangible nature and fungibility, compared to "soft" characteristics (rewards), such as non-financial rewards that are difficult to quantify.

Bussin et al. (2019) attempt to rank preferences for types of rewards for each of the three generations currently present in the labour market. They find generation Y to be the most demanding one, as millennials, when selecting a job, do not seek money in first place. They rather look for growth opportunities and learning moments. One possible explanation for this may be the higher level of schooling among millennials, leading them to ask for more meaningful working conditions than previous generations. This is actually

consistent with the idea that money is not one perfect recipe that answers everyone's ambitions (Dzuranin et al., 2013).

2.4. Motivation and Preferences for Rewards

The different preferences for rewards depend on the type of motivation. For example, FinRew and ExtRew are based on the instrumental value of doing something (Derfler-Rozin & Pitesa, 2021), namely the possibility of being eligible to receive money or social recognition (Stajkovic & Luthans, 2001). Hence, ExtMot should be a driver of these preferences. FinRew and ExtRew entice people to undertake a given task by providing them reasons to do so beyond the task itself. Hence, ExtMot should be positively related to a preference for financial rewards (PreFinRew) and a preference for extrinsic rewards (PreExtRew) because these rewards are external. Thus, we hypothesize the following:

H1a: ExtMot is positively associated with PreFinRew.

H1b: ExtMot is positively associated with PreExtRew.

Conversely, IntMot is about the joy and pleasure of doing a task in itself. This joy may arise because the person finds the job to be interesting or because it represents what s/he stands for (Gagné & Deci, 2005). Both SuppRew and IntRew aim to provide conditions that foster the joy about undertaking one given job. SuppRew aim to provide good working conditions so employees can perform their work at their maximum, thus establishing an emotional tie between the employee and the employer. Hence, SuppRew target internal factors, enhancing a sense of relatedness with the company (Akingbola & van den Berg, 2019). IntRew are a mean to design more interesting jobs by themselves towards the inclusion of, for example, learning opportunities and challenging tasks (Victor & Hoole, 2021). Hence, we argue that intrinsic motivation should be positively related to a preference for support rewards (PreSuppRew) and a preference for intrinsic rewards (PreIntRew). Thus, we hypothesize the following:

H1c: IntMot is positively associated with PreSuppRew.

H1d: IntMot is positively associated with PreIntRew.

2.5. Locus of Control: Definition and Types

Locus of control (LC) is another personal characteristic which can be used to predict preferences over rewards (Heywood et al., 2017). This characteristic can be defined as an individual's beliefs about the influence s/he has over outcomes or whatever it happens in his/her life (Rotter, 1966). LC has two strands – external and internal. If someone is convinced external causes play a dominant role upon outcomes, leaving almost no space for personal influence, s/he displays an external locus of control (ELC), and s/he is known to be an external. Conversely, if an individual thinks his/her actions are the main reason for a given outcome, s/he is considered to have an internal locus of control (ILC), and s/he is called an internal.

2.6. External Locus of Control and Preferences for Rewards

Externals usually present low levels of self-esteem, due to a skewed core self-evaluation (Ng et al., 2006). Such idea is consistent with previous findings reporting a strong correlation between ELC and neuroticism (Bono & Judge, 2003).[2] Hence, due to their lack of confidence, externals push themselves away from situations which, despite being positive in nature, entail a payoff. This is because externals feel they will not be able to meet others' expectations, i.e., they shield themselves from the possibility of being, in their minds, a potential disappointment (Majerczyk et al., 2020), by rejecting the situation from the start in order to avoid feeling anxious (Spector, 1982). Rewards in general (financial, extrinsic, support, and intrinsic) are assigned to employees to motivative them, so rewards aim to reach a positive outcome. However, rewards also convey an idea of employees' obligation to deliver results (Baker et al., 1988). Such idea of delivering better results - especially for those who are more self-doubting, like externals - trigger anxiety feelings. Therefore, we expect that externals shield from these feelings, leading them to discard being rewarded. Then, our hypothesis is the following:

H2: ELC is negatively associated with preferences for rewards.

[2] Neuroticism is considered to be one of the big five personality traits which relates to one's propensity to be drained by negative thoughts and negative experiences, like anxiety, deep sadness, guilt, shame, reduced self-confidence, among others (Yang et al., 2020).

2.7. Internal Locus of Control and Preferences for Rewards

In opposition to externals, internals are usually more optimistic individuals (Ratnawati et al., 2021). This optimism may arise from the belief they have of being in charge of their lives (i.e., in control of what they get), which leads them to think they will achieve desirable outcomes. Moreover, internals also seek for help to attain the goals they have set for themselves (Singh et al., 2020), which increases their probability of achievement. According to Ng et al. (2006), in a work setting, internals search for jobs/tasks which have high motivating characteristics, such as rewards. In fact, such idea is consistent with Malik et al.'s (2015) argument that internals do not see incentives ("external interventions") as a pressure condition, but rather as a help to reach both their goals and organisational objectives. Therefore, even if rewards, as stated above, may be seen as a mean organisations have to demand a higher performance (that ultimately is difficult to attain), we argue internals will see this as an opportunity to defy themselves instead of being afraid not to match others' expectations (unlike externals). Hence, we hypothesize the following:

H3: ILC is positively associated with preferences for rewards.

2.8. Self-Efficacy and Preferences for Rewards

Self-efficacy (SE) refers to the extent to which an individual thinks that s/he is able to undertake a task successfully (Bandura, 1978). SE is related to the belief of handling something, which mirrors individual's perception of being competent (Lei et al., 2021). Thus, the higher the SE, the higher one's self-confidence over his/her abilities. Additionally, previous research advocates SE to be a significant predictor of performance (Kader, 2022) both in work and academic settings. Nevertheless, SE does not discard positive reinforcements. In fact, the need for others' approval and the feeling of thriving at work, propelled by rewards assignment in general, are inalienable (Ashraf et al., 2014). Thus, we argue that individuals with high SE – who like to display their potential - perceive all rewards as an opportunity to exhibit their abilities and being, in addition, acknowledged for it. For instances, being rewarded with power (extrinsic reward), a healthy working environment (support reward) or learning opportunities (intrinsic reward) is perceived by individuals with high SE as an opportunity to use their leadership, interpersonal and cognitive skills, respectively. Therefore, we hypothesize the following:

H4: SE is positively associated with preferences for rewards.

2.9. Propensity to Choose an Auditing Job: Definition and Rewards' Role

Propensity to choose an auditing job (PAJ) is the extent to which one individual is willing to apply for a job in auditing based on its attractiveness to him/her. Rewards are important when considering future possible jobs, namely in auditing. Moreover, auditing firms face high rates of turnover, especially the big ones (Khavis & Krishnan, 2021), which makes the need for attracting new auditors even more important. The literature provides several reasons for such high rates of turnover, such as high workload and time pressure (Persellin et al., 2019) low work-life balance levels (Khavis & Krishnan, 2021), and scandals that wore out auditing career's image, entailing distrust (Holtzblatt et al., 2020). Incentives can play a key role to attract, and ultimately retaining, human resources, offsetting the number of employees who leave.

2.10. Preferences for Rewards and Propensity to Choose an Auditing Job

PAJ should be aligned with how well auditing companies offer rewards that match the preferences of the potential candidates. Regarding FinRew, prior studies (see Frecka et al., 2022) show that auditing firms do not provide above-average starting salaries and that even underperform similar job options (like tax or corporate accounting) Moreover, this gap remains consistently unchanged over the years (Hoopes et al., 2018). Additionally, an auditing job is known by its long hours of work which makes the financial package even less competitive. Thus, we hypothesize the following:

H5a: PreFinRew is negatively associated with PAJ

Conversely, ExtRew - such as power, status, leadership style - are clearly offered by auditing companies. Auditing companies are known by their fast promotion ladder (Pruijssers et al., 2020) and also by their open and communicative leadership style (Duh et al., 2020; Nekhili et al., 2021). Thus, we hypothesize the following:

H5b: PreExtRew is positively associated with PAJ.

SuppRew are related to perceived organisational support and a healthy working environment building. Work overload is a frequent reported problem across auditing

literature for many years now (Persellin et al., 2019). The lack of work-life balance is also a constantly reported reality for those who chose to become an auditor (Khavis & Krishnan, 2021), because it is a consequence of work overload. Furthermore, scholars have investigated repeatedly the lack of auditing workers' determination to whistleblow unethical behaviours from superiors (Donovan et al., 2016; Wainberg & Perreault, 2016). All these situations suggest lack of emotional support from auditing firms, that is, the absence of SuppRew. Thus, we hypothesize the following

H5c: PreSuppRew is negatively associated with PAJ.

Finally, individuals who work at auditing firms report constant apprenticeship moments (Kusaila, 2019), classifying auditing to be a challenging profession not only due to its content but also due to the different industries requiring audits (Hahn & King, 2021; Low, 2004). Hence, there are many learning opportunities and possibilities to use different skills. Therefore, auditing is a hard-skill use career. Those who choose to become an auditor will have great responsibility as well, because investors and, more broadly, stakeholders rely on auditors' opinion to make decisions (see Chen et al., 2021). Thus, we hypothesize the following:

H5d: PreIntRew is positively associated with PAJ.

Figure 1 displays the aforementioned hypotheses in our model.

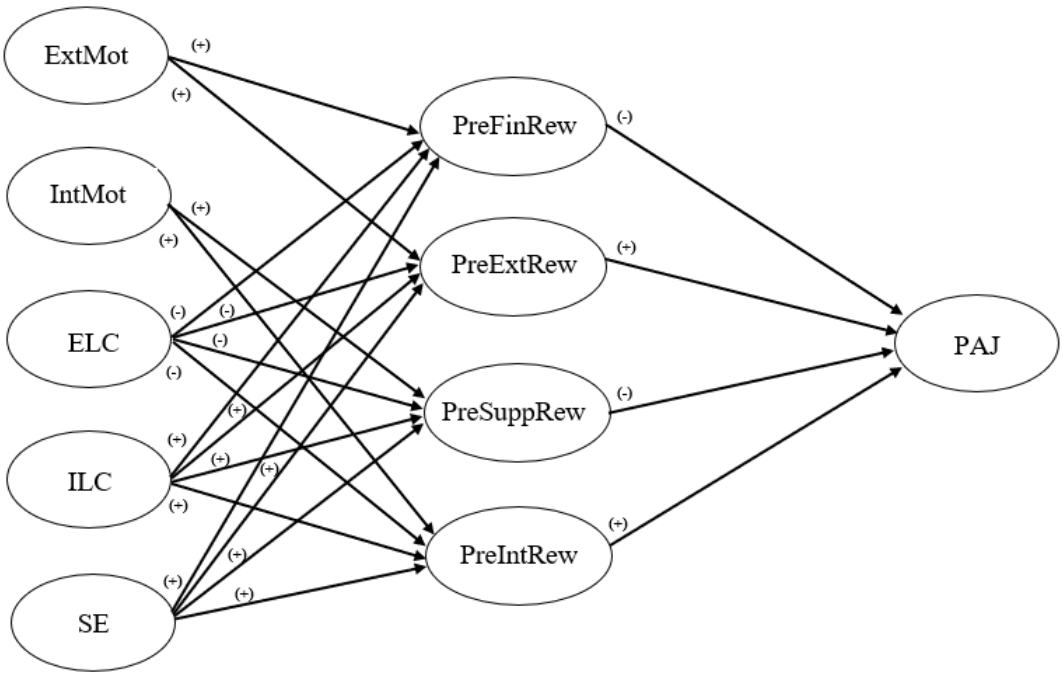

Figure 1 – Proposed Conceptual Model

3. RESEARCH METHOD

3.1. Gathering Data Technique and Survey Design

Due to the nature of the variables in our model, which are not available via secondary sources, we use survey-collected primary data. A survey is a widely spread technique of collecting primary data in management accounting (Herschung et al., 2018). We used an online survey because it is known to be fast and flexible, thus providing an easy and cheap way for getting a large number of responses (Evans & Mathur, 2018). The survey was built on Qualtrics.[3] It was distributed to undergraduated and graduated students in management-related areas both in a large university and a large polytechnic, via a link shared with potential respondents.[4] Additionally, other contacts with students and professors in other schools were made to increase the number of responses. Linkedin was also used to reach more potential respondents, due to its network visibility (Pena et al., 2022). Hence, we use a snowball sample, which has already been used in accounting quantitative research (see Corten et al., 2021). The survey was in Portuguese, but the questions and items were adapted from English established scales. Therefore, the scales were translated and tested regarding their clarity and syntax to minimize biases (Speklé & Widener, 2018). Furthermore, to minimize social desirability bias, which is a common issue in behavioural studies (Moorman & Podsakoff, 1992), we clarified that neither wrong nor right answers exist, we ensured respondents the confidentiality of their answers, and we provided the possibility of choosing the option "do not know/do not answer" in all questions.

In order to increase the response rate, we use both reminders and financial incentives as suggested by prior literature (Hiebl & Richter, 2018). Additionally, we offer participants the possibility to receive the conclusions of our study, as an additional (non-financial) incentive.

[3] Qualtrics was used because, among other functionalities, it can prevent multiple submissions and stores data for a considerable amount of time.

[4] We targeted management-related students because they are the most likely to become auditors (Espinosa-Pike et al., 2021). Additionally, because they are students, their stated preferences for rewards are not significantly contaminated by working experience, thus minimizing biased inferences.

We collected 1077 responses but only 652 are usable responses for the purposes of our study.[5] We are not able to compute a response rate because we used a snowball sampling technique. Additionally, we cannot test for potential (non-) response bias, as we are not able to differentiate early respondents from late ones. Nevertheless, we address the concern of common method bias (CMB) because we used the same measurement instrument to collect data for both our endogenous and exogenous variables (da Silva et al., 2022). Therefore, we perform a full collinearity assessment, following Kock's (2015) procedure. Since all values presented in Appendix 1 are below 3.3, CMB is not a matter of concern in our model (Kock., 2015; Mosquera et al., 2022). Moreover, we also perform Harman's one factor test to assess CMB (Podsakoff et al., 2003). The results prove, once again, that our model is free from CMB, since the Average Variance Extracted of a single latent variable was 20.8%, which is lower than 50% (Kock, 2021).

3.2. Socio-Demographic Sample Characterization

The analyses of our sample show that female participants represent 67% of total observations (Appendix 2). This proportion is in accordance with PORDATA (2021) information, which reports a 60.5% women presence among higher education students, in 2020, within Social Sciences field.[6] Therefore, there is already a bias in the population of students in Portuguese Higher Education Institutions. Moreover, past research suggests that women tend to cooperate and help others more than men which may also explain the slight unbalance in our sample compared to the population (Robson & Peetz, 2020). Furthermore, our sample is mainly comprised of undergraduate students (69%), while 31% are master students (Appendix 2). These numbers mimic the population, as the volume of undergraduated students usually exceeds by large the number of master students (PORDATA, 2022)

In addition, the age of our respondents varies from 18 up to 65 years old, with a mean of 23, mode is 19. Percentile 75% is also 23, which means that 75% of our respondents are not older than 23 (Appendix 3). We also inquire participants about their prior professional experience because it may explain their preferences for rewards, and

[5] This reduction is due to our criterion – as explained later - to consider an observation as a suitable one only if it has less than 15% missing values out of all responses to manifest variables. To this purpose, we treated "do not know/ do not answer" as missing values.

[6] PORDATA is a Statistics Dataset from Portugal.

past research suggests that working students are a common reality in the set of postsecondary institutions (Remenick & Bergman, 2021). Indeed, 52% of the participants report having work experience, but about half of them are in the labour market for less than 1 year (Appendix 4).

3.3. Variables Measurement

The variables used in our model are not directly observable and, hence, are labelled as latent variables or constructs. Therefore, it is important to use previously validated scales (Bedford & Speklé, 2018). Below, we display further information regarding the measurement of variables used. For more detailed information, survey is available upon request. Table 1 presents descriptive statistics for all constructs.

Extrinsic Motivation (ExtMot) and *Intrinsic Motivation* (IntMot). ExtMot was measured with a scale conceived by Gagné et al. (2010), adding two items from van der Kolk et al.'s (2019) proposal. In total, ExtMot is compounded by five items (e.g., "I do this job for the status it provides me"). For IntMot we used Gagné et al.'s (2010) three indicators (e.g., "I do this job for the moments of pleasure that this job brings me"). Answers were given on a 7-point Likert-scale, where 1 = Not at all and 7 = Very strongly.

External Locus of Control (ELC) and *Internal Locus of Control* (ILC). We adopted Lumpkin's (1985) scale, which is compounded by six items (three for each construct). Respondents were asked about their level of agreement with each indicator (e.g., "What happens to me is my own doing") through a 5-point Likert-scale with a range from 1 = Strongly disagree to 5 = Strongly agree.

Self-Efficacy (SE). We used a scale initially proposed by Chen et al.'s (2001) and enhanced by Imperial College London (2019). This scale encases 6 questions (e.g., "How confident are you that you will accomplish difficult tasks?") to which respondents answer on a 5-point Likert-Scale (1 = Not at all confident, 5 = Extremely confident).

Preference for Financial Rewards (PreFinRew), *Preference for Extrinsic Rewards* (PreExtRew), *Preference for Support Rewards* (PreSuppRew), and *Preference for Intrinsic Rewards* (PreIntRew). We assess preferences for each type of rewards using Chiang & Birtch's (2007) proposal. We asked respondents to express their level of appreciation for each reward (item) in a future job on a 5-point Likert-scale ranging from

1 = I do not give importance to 5 = I give huge importance. This scale encompasses 28 items divided in the four types of preferences (e.g., "Basic Salary"; "Management Style"; "Job location"; "Job variety").

Propensity to Choose an Auditing Job (PAJ). To measure PAJ, we adapted questions and items from Bartlett et al.'s (2017) study (e.g., "I'm interested in a job in auditing"). Respondents were asked about their level of agreement with each item on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly disagree to 7 = Strongly agree).

Table 1 - Descriptive Statistics for the Measurement Variables

Variable	N	P25	Mean	Median	P75	St Dev	Kurtosis	Skewness
ExtMot	645	4.40	5.05	5.20	5.80	1.09	4.09	-0.91
IntMot	639	4.33	4.96	5.00	5.67	1.18	3.52	-0.77
ELC	639	2.00	2.63	2.67	3.00	0.68	3.11	0.31
ILC	648	3.33	3.57	3.67	4.00	0.60	3.05	-0.15
SE	648	2.50	2.97	3.00	3.50	0.85	2.87	0.18
PreFinRew	641	3.67	4.00	4.00	4.33	0.56	3.64	-0.47
PreExtRew	637	3.29	3.71	3.71	4.07	0.55	3.05	-0.08
PreSuppRew	648	3.83	4.15	4.17	4.50	0.55	3.37	-0.48
PreIntRew	643	3.78	4.13	4.11	4.55	0.52	2.93	-0.33
PAJ	597	3.40	4.42	4.60	5.60	1.40	2.26	-0.28

Note: The number of observations (N) per variable is lower than the total sample (N=652) due to missing values.

3.4. First- and Second-Generation Techniques

For the PAJ scale, which was adapted from different questions of Bartlett et al.'s (2017) study, we start by performing an Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) using Principal Component method (PCM), a procedure suited for interval data (Szutowski, 2020), which is the case with the 1-7 Likert scale. Using STATA, we identify a single latent variable and use it in further analyses.

Next, we test our theoretical model using partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM), with SmartPLS 3.0. Even though we have a large sample, we use PLS-SEM rather than a covariance-based (CB-SEM) technique for model estimation due to the nature of our data (e.g., Silva et al., 2017). Indeed, CB-SEM requires distribution of variables to follow a bell-shaped curve (Hair et al., 2017). Such condition is seldomly observable, especially in behavioural research that encases psychometric variables (Goodhue et al., 2012; Micceri, 1989). Conversely, PLS-SEM is a distribution-free data analysis technique, which is more suitable to our data. Additionally, our structural model

encompasses a considerable number of constructs as well as predictive relationships. Thus, according to Hair et al. (2019), PLS-SEM fits better for the purpose of present research.

PLS-SEM model assessment is a two-stepwise procedure. On the first stage we compute a measurement model to infer constructs' reliability and validity (convergent as well as discriminant). In addition, all constructs in our measurement model are reflective, because latent variables give rise to manifest variables and there are no second-order constructs (see Becker et al., 2012). Otherwise, it would be formative. On the second stage, we use a structural model to test the research hypotheses.

Regarding missing values, we follow Hair et al. (2017) and deleted observations with more than 15% of missing values (including blank answers) considering all manifest variables per answer.[7]

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. Results of Exploratory Factor Analysis

As previously mentioned, we used EFA (PCM) for the variable PAJ. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO = 0.872) and the Bartlett's test of sphericity ($p<0.01$) supported the EFA, and the Kaiser's criterion allowed us to extract one factor, with an eigenvalue of 3.64 (the factor explained 73% of total variance and Cronbach's Alpha =0.9). Appendix 5 summarizes these analyses. Items' loadings and uniqueness, after oblimin oblique rotation, are presented in Appendix 6.

4.2. Reflective Measurement Model Evaluation

To examine the measurement model, we start by assessing indicators' reliability using outer loadings. Loadings above 0.708 should be kept and, on the contrary, below 0.4 must be erased (Hair et al., 2017). For those loadings that range between these limits, we only deleted them (each one at a time) if, by doing so, it would lead to an improvement of composite reliability (CR) and/or average variance extracted (AVE) beyond threshold

[7] We note that we forced responses – as we had a Do Not Know/Do Not Answer option -, but doing so did not prevent us from having blank answers, since there were dropouts and Qualtrics preserved these surveys.

values - which are 0.7 and 0.5 respectively (Hair et al., 2017). Results of the aforementioned iteration can be seen in Appendix 7.

Furthermore, regarding internal consistency, we focused on analysing Cronbach's Alpha (hereafter, Alpha) and CR, since true reliability of measures is lower-bounded by the former and upper-bounded by the latter (Hair et al., 2017). Alpha's acceptable threshold value is 0.5-0.6, in accordance with Nunnally (1978). Analysing Alphas and CR of each construct, we conclude that all latent variables are reliable with the exception of two - ELC and ILC –, even though both of them meet CR's standard. Such lack of reliability is due to low Alphas because this measure is truly conservative in its formula of computation, thus it could provide underestimated reliabilities (Hair et al., 2017). [8] We opt to keep these constructs in our model so that all hypotheses could be tested, but in a robustness test we drop them to infer the quality of our inferences without these constructs.

To examine convergent validity, AVE was assessed. Each latent variable attained the 0.5 threshold, which means that every construct explains at least half of its items' variance (Hair et al., 2017). In addition, we verify that all indicators are statistically significant (all of them at the 1% significance level) towards bootstrapping procedure using 5.000 subsamples (Appendix 7). In conclusion, there is no concern with convergent validity in our model. Table 2 presents final values for constructs' Alpha, CR and AVE.

To analyse discriminant validity, we used Fornell and Larcker's (1981) yardstick, which demands that each construct shares more variance with its items than with other latent variables' indicators. Table 3 presents results for discriminant validity assessment. The largest values, per column, are the square root of AVE (in bold diagonal). This means inter-construct correlations are lower than items' square root variance explained by their construct for any variable, thus proving evidence that each latent variable is unique and, therefore, discriminant validity exists.

[8] For instances, Alpha assumes that all indicators have equal outer loadings on the construct, and it is affected by the number of items in the scale. This might be the reason that leads some scholars not to report Alpha in their papers (e.g., da Silva et al., 2022).

Table 2 – Constructs' Alpha, CR and AVE

	Alpha	CR	AVE
Extrinsic Motivation (ExtMot)	0.831	0.873	0.580
Intrinsic Motivation (IntMot)	0.796	0.880	0.710
External Locus of Control (ELC)	0.466	0.789	0.652
Internal Locus of Control (ILC)	0.482	0.785	0.649
Self-Efficacy (SE)	0.935	0.948	0.754
Preference for Financial Rewards (PreFinRew)	0.733	0.834	0.558
Preference for Extrinsic Rewards (PreExtRew)	0.712	0.843	0.648
Preference for Support Rewards (PreSuppRew)	0.631	0.784	0.557
Preference for Intrinsic Rewards (PreIntRew)	0.836	0.876	0.503
Propensity to Choose an Auditing Job (PAJ)	0.889	0.921	0.704

Table 3 - Square Root of AVE and Inter-Constructs Correlations

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. ExtMot	**0,762**									
2. IntMot	0,249	**0,842**								
3. ELC	-0,009	-0,157	**0,807**							
4. ILC	0,143	0,190	-0,279	**0,806**						
5. SE	0,081	0,259	-0,251	0,187	**0,868**					
6. PreFinRew	0,268	0,046	-0,027	0,106	0,130	**0,747**				
7. PreExtRew	0,401	0,134	0,035	0,158	0,221	0,510	**0,805**			
8. PreSuppRew	0,184	0,215	-0,076	0,117	0,053	0,499	0,373	**0,746**		
9. PreIntRew	0,120	0,381	-0,160	0,225	0,365	0,301	0,319	0,470	**0,709**	
10. PAJ	0,248	0,202	-0,096	0,141	0,097	0,129	0,165	0,093	0,091	**0,839**

4.3. Structural Model Evaluation

First, we need to assess the presence of collinearity issues among exogenous latent variables, since this can lead to biased path coefficients. To address this issue, we computed Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) values for each arrow of our theoretical model. Appendix 8 presents the results of this analysis, and none of VIF is higher than 5, which eliminates collinearity concerns (Becker et al., 2015).

Regarding the explanatory power of the model, we analyse endogenous latent variables' coefficient of determination (R^2). The model we propose explains 35% of PreExtRew's variance, and 32% of PreIntRew's. Nevertheless, it captures only 4% of PAJ's variance and 8% of PreSuppRew's. Values below 10% are worrisome but, in behavioural research, R^2 below 10% can be acceptable (Mosquera et al., 2022; Raithel et al., 2012) without major implications. One possible explanation for an under-10% R^2 could be a model misspecification. However, when computing Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR), we obtain a value less than 0.10, thus rejecting model misspecifications (Henseler et al., 2014). Additionally, Root Mean Squared Residual Covariance Matrix of the Outer Model Residuals (rms Theta) is fairly close to 0.12, reinforcing the evidence presented above for the absence of misspecifications.

We also assess effect sizes (f^2). It explains how much an exogenous construct contributes to the R^2 of a given endogenous latent variable. Following Hair et al. (2017), we consider values of 0.02, 0.15 and 0.35 as minimum yardsticks for small, medium and large effects, respectively. Not surprisingly, none of PAJ's predictors reaches the value of 0.02, so this explains why PAJ's coefficient of determination is low.[9] In contrast, one medium effect was observed: the omission of ExtMot on PreExtRew (0.246). We even find eight small effects, ranging from 0.032 to 0.145. It is noteworthy that all predictors of PreExtRew have at least a small effect on the latter. Additionally, three out of four PreIntRew's predecessors have a small effect.

In order to evaluate the predictive relevance of the model, we calculate Stone-Geiser's Q^2 (hereafter Q^2) through a blindfolding procedure (Hair et al., 2017). We obtain a Q^2 above 0 for all endogenous latent variables, which proves that our model has predictive relevance (Hair et al., 2019). Globally, our model presents a good fit. Appendix 9 summarizes these statistics.

4.4. Discussion of Hypotheses

As shown in Table 4, ExtMot is positively and significantly related to both PreFinRew and PreExtRew (coeff. = 0.252, $p<0.01$; coeff. = 0.371, $p<0.01$, respectively)

[9] Again, having a low R^2 should not be a matter of concern, because a low R^2 does not abnegate the importance of any significant exogenous variable we come to find (Wooldridge, 2012).

thus supporting H1a and H1b. These findings are consistent with Stajkovic and Luthans' (2001) arguments, conveying the idea that individuals whose motivation is based on the instrumental value of doing something prefer rewards that target external factors, such as FinRew and ExtRew.

We also find support for H1c and H1d, since IntMot is positively and significantly associated with both PreSuppRew and PreIntRew (coeff. = 0.202, $p<0.01$; coeff. = 0.288, $p<0.01$, respectively). These findings are also aligned with previous research (Gagné & Deci, 2005), suggesting that individuals who engage in tasks, either because these tasks are interesting by themselves or because they represent what the individual stands for, will look for rewards which enhance this feeling of inner motivation, namely IntRew and SuppRew.

Interestingly, H2, predicting a negative relationship between ELC and preferences for rewards, is not supported. Specifically, ELC is not a significant predictor of PreFinRew, PreSuppRew, and PreIntRew (coeff. = 0.016, $p>0.1$; coeff. = -0.029, $p>0.1$; coeff. = -0.016, $p>0.1$, respectively). However, ELC is positively and significantly related to PreExtRew (coeff. = 0.116, $p<0.01$), which is contrary to our hypothesis of a negative relationship. A possible explanation for the positive relationship is that externals tend to feel more unattended and socially-excluded (Ye & Lin, 2015) and when ExtRew are provided they may unleash a sense of social recognition given by others (Stajkovic & Luthans, 2001),therefore reducing feelings of social exclusion or unattendance. This may lead externals to state a preference for ExtRew. Alternatively, since externals usually experience powerless feelings (Desai et al., 2018), they may attempt to offset these powerless feelings by seeking power in the workplace. In fact, ExtRew provide, among other things, power.

H3, referring to a positive relationship between ILC and preferences for all rewards, is partially validated. Specifically, ILC is positively associated with PreExtRew, PreSuppRew, and PreIntRew (coeff. = 0.100, $p<0.05$; coeff. = 0.075, $p<0.1$; coeff. = 0.116, $p<0.01$, respectively). These findings are consistent with prior literature (e.g., Malik et al., 2015; Ng et al., 2006) suggesting that internals see rewards as a way to reach their professional wants. Nonetheless, ILC is not a significant predictor of PreFinRew (coeff. = 0.056, $p>0.1$), which means that the previous argument does not hold for

financial incentives. One explanation for this may be social desirability bias (Rynes et al., 2004). Internals are individuals who like to depict a good image of themselves (Valentine et al., 2019). In western societies, stating an open preference for money may lead to an association with greediness (Zeelenberg et al., 2020), which has a bad connotation. Thus, internals may not openly state a preference for FinRew, leading to a non-significant coefficient between ILC and PreFinRew.

H4, referring to a positive relationship between SE and preferences for all rewards, is also partially validated. Specifically, SE is significantly related to PreFinRew, PreExtRew, and PreIntRew (coeff. = 0.103, $p<0.05$; coeff. = 0.202, $p<0.01$; coeff. = 0.265, $p<0.01$, respectively). These results are aligned with our argument that high SE individuals like to display their potential and perceive rewards as an opportunity to exhibit their abilities, which leads to a high preference for rewards. Our results show, however, that this reasoning does not apply to SuppRew (coeff. = -0.020, $p>0.1$). One possible explanation for this is that individuals who perceive themselves as being effective are, usually, high achievers. According to Rayburn and Rayburn (1996) high achievers have a Type A Personality, which means they encase a chronic sense of competitiveness. Their competitiveness, in turn, leads them to be emotionally detached from others (Jia et al., 2022). Since all SuppRew aim to build an emotional tie between employee and employer, high SE individuals' emotional detachment may explain the absence of a preference for SuppRew.

Finally, we only find a positive association between PreExtRew and PAJ (coeff. = 0.126, $p<0.01$), thus validating H5b, but we fail to find statistically significant relationships for other rewards. Therefore, we reject H5a, H5c, and H5d (coeff. = 0.052, $p>0.1$; coeff. = 0.004, $p>0.1$; coeff. = 0.033, $p>0.1$, respectively). The positive effect is in accordance with prior literature suggesting that social recognition is the main driver to become an auditor among management-related students (Bekoe et al., 2018; Ng et al., 2017; Tetteh et al., 2022). and ExtRew provide social recognition. This result somehow contradicts a generalized idea of a "bean counter" stereotype, preconized by some scholars, in regard to accounting-related professions (see Durocher et al., 2016). Figure 2 shows the final structural model. about which we note *, **, and *** mean a significant path coefficient at p-value level of 1%, 5% and 10%, respectively (two-tailed).

Table 4 – Hypotheses Analysis

H (Exp. Sign)	Path	Coeff.	t-value	p-value	Inference
H1a (+)	ExtMot -> PreFinRew	0.252	5.945	0.000***	**Supp.**
H1b (+)	ExtMot -> PreExtRew	0.371	11.047	0.000***	**Supp.**
H1c (+)	IntMot -> PreSuppRew	0.202	5.072	0.000***	**Supp.**
H1d (+)	IntMot -> PreIntRew	0.288	7.312	0.000***	**Supp.**
H2 (-)	ELC -> PreFinRew	0.016	0.329	0.742	Not supp.
	ELC -> PreExtRew	0.116	2.776	0.000***	
	ELC -> PreSuppRew	-0.029	0.604	0.546	
	ELC -> PreIntRew	-0.016	0.457	0.648	
H3 (+)	ILC -> PreFinRew	0.056	1.185	0.237	**Partially supp.**
	ILC -> PreExtRew	0.100	2.348	0.019**	
	ILC -> PreSuppRew	0.075	1.679	0.094*	
	ILC -> PreIntRew	0.116	3.138	0.002***	
H4 (+)	SE -> PreFinRew	0.103	2.026	0.043**	**Partially supp.**
	SE -> PreExtRew	0.202	4.739	0.000***	
	SE -> PreSuppRew	-0.020	0.418	0.676	
	SE -> PreIntRew	0.265	6.792	0.000***	
H5a (-)	PreFinRew -> PAJ	0.052	1.015	0.311	Not supp.
H5b (+)	PreExtRew -> PAJ	0.126	2.625	0.009***	**Supp.**
H5c (-)	PreSuppRew -> PAJ	0.004	0.092	0.926	Not supp.
H5d (+)	PreIntRew -> PAJ	0.033	0.675	0.500	Not supp.

Note: *Significant path coefficient at p-value level of 10% (two-tailed).
**Significant path coefficient at p-value level of 5% (two-tailed).
*** Significant path coefficient at p-value level of 1% (two-tailed).
Supp. means Supported and Exp. Sign means Expected Sign.

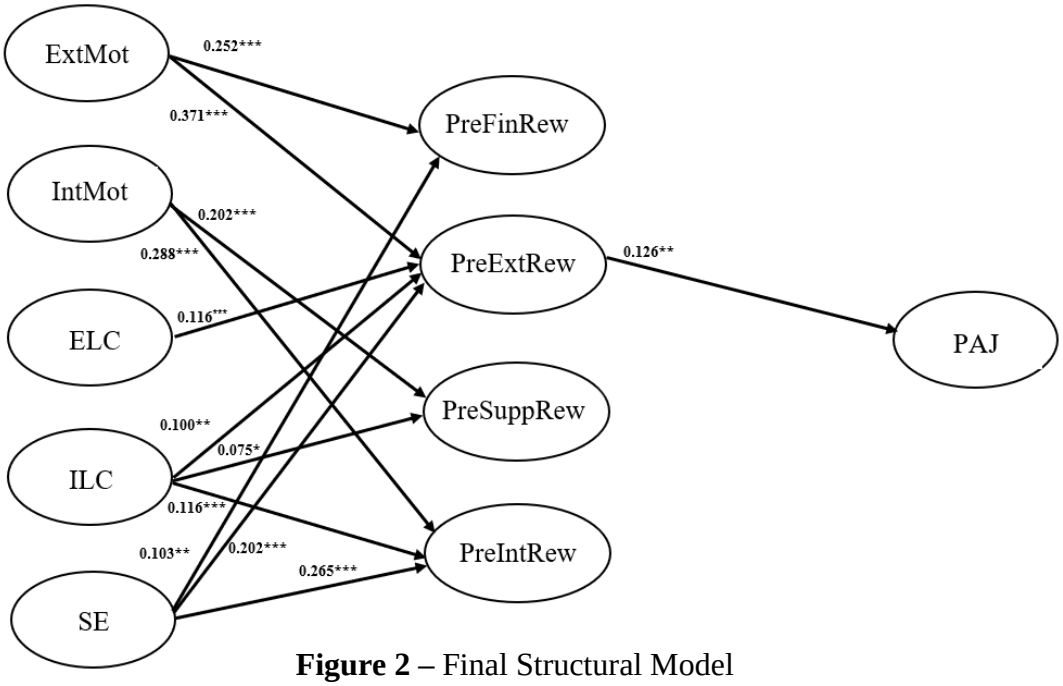

Figure 2 – Final Structural Model

4.5. Robustness Checks

To analyse the strength of our findings we perform three robustness tests. Table 5 presents these tests and compares them with the Base Model. Following Sharma et al.'s (2019) recommendation, we compare the simplified models with the base model using Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC). BIC provides guidance to ascertain which model is asymptotically more consistent (Schwarz, 1978) and, therefore, more generalizable (Ali et al., 2021).[10] The lower the BIC values, the better the model.[11] Table 6 presents BIC values for all models (base and comparative models).

In Model 1, and compared to the Base Model, we drop both ELC and ILC. The rationale for this model is that both ELC and ILC were below the lower-bound reliability range threshold. Specifically, the Alpha was below 0.5. Model 1 shows that our results are similar to the Base Model: all statistical inferences are unaffected as all path coefficients' significance levels remain similar. Moreover, in average, BIC values are lower in Base Model than in Model 1 (Table 6). Thus, the Base Model is better in describing reality because of its results' generalizability (Ali et al., 2021).

In Model 2, we include Risk-Aversion (hereafter, RA) as a control variable related to the propensity to choose a job in auditing [12]. RA can be defined as the extent to which one person likes to mitigate risks. In fact, an auditing job is a work of great responsibility (Chen et al., 2021), so planning plays a key-role and aims at mitigating risks. Therefore, it is likely that those who are risk-averse tend to like auditing, thus entailing a positive association between RA and PAJ. Indeed, we obtain a positive and statistically significant association (coeff. = 0.091 $p<0.05$). More importantly, all results, when compared to those of the Base Model, remain qualitatively unchanged, since the significance levels for the path coefficients are similar to the Base Model. However, our Base Model shows less generalizability than Model 2 (as shown in Table 6), so Model 2 is better in accordance

[10] Asymptotically consistence means that, as sample size approaches infinity, the estimator of a parameter converges to the real value of the parameter.

[11] Bayesian Information Criterion can be used to make a comparison between nested models or between non-nested models. In our case, we perform a comparison between nested models.

[12] RA is a four-item variable that was adapted from (Payan et al., 2012), whose answers were provided on a 5-point Likert-scale (1 = Strongly disagree, 5 = Strongly agree). After dropping two indicators due to low outer loadings, we managed to reach all thresholds: Alpha-0.71; CR-0.87; AVE-0.77. We also checked for discriminant validity and collinearity and no problems were detected.

with Ali et al. (2021). This finding is interesting inasmuch as BIC tends to select models that have fewer variables, but, in fact, Model 2 has more variables than the Base Model. Nevertheless, a possible explanation for this selection is that RA is a powerful behaving-shaper construct that has a high influence in life decisions (Payan et al., 2012), like choosing a job, thus leading Model 2 to be better in describing reality.

In Model 3, we consider ELC, ILC, and SE to be the predictors of ExtMot and IntMot and not related to rewards' preferences. Therefore, ExtMot and IntMot are, in Model 3, both endogenous and exogenous constructs, given that they explain preferences and are explained by ELC, ILC and SE. Our results show a positive and significant association between ILC and both ExtMot and IntMot (coeff. = 0.141, $p<0.01$; coeff. = 0.130, $p<0.01$), suggesting that those who believe they made their life path are intrinsically motivated. ELC is negatively associated with IntMot (coeff. = -0.067, $p<0.05$), which also reinforces the previous argument. These results are in accordance with Zigarmi et al.'s (2018). Moreover, SE is positively associated with IntMot (coeff. = 0.222, $p<0.01$), which suggests that an inner sense of effectiveness levers people's intrinsic motivation. More importantly, we find that all previous (non-) significant associations remain so. Additionally, the Base Model continues to be better than Model 3, since BIC values of the former are, in average, lower than those of the latter (Table 6).

Considering all performed robustness checks, our results are robust to these different specifications, inasmuch as all levels of statistical significance for each and every path coefficient remain similar compared to those of the Base Model.

Table 5 – Robustness Checks

Exp. Sign	Independent variable	Dependent variable	Base Model	Model1	Model2	Model3
			Coeff.	Coeff.	Coeff.	Coeff.
+	ExtMot	PreFinRew	0.252***	0.260***	0.252***	0.273***
+		PreExtRew	0.371***	0.386***	0.371***	0.401***
+	IntMot	PreSuppRew	0.202***	0.217***	0.202***	0.214***
+		PreIntRew	0.288***	0.307***	0.288***	0.378***
-	ELC	PreFinRew	0.016		0.016	
-		PreExtRew	0.116***		0.116***	
-		PreSuppRew	-0.029		-0.029	
-		PreIntRew	-0.016		-0.016	
		ExtMot				0.044
		IntMot				-0.067**
+	ILC	PreFinRew	0.056		0.056	
+		PreExtRew	0.100**		0.100**	
+		PreSuppRew	0.075*		0.075*	
+		PreIntRew	0.116***		0.116***	
		ExtMot				0.141***
		IntMot				0.130***
+	SE	PreFinRew	0.103**	0.107**	0.103**	
+		PreExtRew	0.202***	0.188***	0.202***	
+		PreSuppRew	-0.020	-0.000	-0.020	
+		PreIntRew	0.265***	0.285***	0.265***	
		ExtMot				0.065
		IntMot				0.222***
-	PreFinRew	PAJ	0.052	0.050	0.055	0.045
+	PreExtRew	PAJ	0.126***	0.127**	0.130***	0.135***
-	PreSuppRew	PAJ	0.004	0.007	-0.014	0.006
+	PreIntRew	PAJ	0.033	0.033	0.041	0.034
	RA	PAJ			0.091**	
Model Fit		N	652	652	652	652
		SRMR	0.068	0.070	0.066	0.069
		rms Theta	0.124	0.123	0.124	0.123

Note: *Significant path coefficient at p-value level of 10% (two-tailed).
**Significant path coefficient at p-value level of 5% (two-tailed).
*** Significant path coefficient at p-value level of 1% (two-tailed).
First column reports the expected sign for base model path coefficients

Table 6 – BIC values

Endogenous Construct	Bayesian Information Criterion			
	Base Model	Model1	Model2	Model3
PreFinRew	-59.184	-66.999	-59.171	-66.684
PreExtRew	-252.136	-196.258	-252.163	-146.562
PreSuppRew	-27.457	-32.053	-27.482	-37.426
PreIntRew	-218.797	-209.216	-218.796	-144.786
PAJ	3.502	3.552	1.254	4.190
IntMot	--	--	--	-76.997
ExtMot	--	--	--	-16.734
Average	-110.814	-100.195	-111.272	-69.286

4.6. Multi-group Analysis

In this section, as an additional test, we aim to analyse whether the Base Model's results are different according to the sex of the respondent. Cornwall et al. (2018) argue that sex affects preferences for rewards, and Whittingham (2017) posits that women and men differ in terms of their career choice. Then, it is likely that the associations' magnitude between personality characteristics and preferences for rewards change if we control for sex. The same may happen with preferences for rewards and PAJ. To clarify it, we perform a Multi-group Analysis (MGA) using a permutation-based approach (Hair et al., 2017). This test identifies whether the difference of path coefficients between two given groups (in this case, male and female individuals) is statistically significant (Crisci & D'Ambra, 2012). Because MGA is sensitive to sample size, we must ensure that the size of the groups is similar (Crisci & D'Ambra, 2012). Due to the fact that we have more women than men (434 against 218), we randomly select 218 women to be compared to the 218 men.

We perform a Measurement Invariance of Composite Models (MICOM) analysis, as a pre-condition to run a MGA (Garson, 2016). MICOM analysis is a three-step procedure: we must assess (1) configural invariance, (2) compositional invariance, and (3) equal mean values and variances. If one of the first two conditions is not confirmed, then no multi-group analysis is feasible. The first condition is met (i.e., configural invariance is attained) because we have the same parameterization and way of estimation across sexes. This means that each latent variable in our model has been specified equally for the two groups. To test the second condition, we check if composite scores significantly differ between groups, and untabulated results prove they do not (we only

found non-significant p-values). Thus, compositional invariance is also established, which means that the latent variables (i.e., composites) are formed in the same way across the groups. Moreover, according to untabulated results, the third condition is also met, since the hypotheses of equal mean values and variances of the composites among the two groups are not rejected. This means that all composites have equal mean values and variances across the groups. Hence, according to Hair et al. (2017), full measurement invariance is confirmed, allowing us to perform a MGA using a permutation-based approach.

The permutation test, presented in Table 7, shows there are no statistically significant differences of path coefficients across the groups, with the exception of the one that associates ELC and PreExtRew (coeff. = -0.216, $p<0.1$). This means that the positive association between ELC and PreExtRew is stronger for men than women, which suggests that men tend to appreciate ExtRew to a greater extent than women, when powerless feelings over life in general increase. Such result is in accordance with Reed et al.'s (1994) findings: males with an ELC value recognition (given by ExtRew assignment) more than women with an ELC do, because of the former's deeper need to feel thrived at work, exacerbated by a lack of control.

Regarding the non-significant coefficients, they are in accordance with social role theory, which claims that sex differences are attenuated in progressive cultures, such as European and American countries (Costa et al., 2001). In developed nations there is more egalitarianism, thus reducing differences in personality between men and women (Schmitt et al., 2017). Moreover, sex does not explain psychological differences as much as gender does since the former is a biological feature whereas the latter is a sociocultural product (Cartwright & Nancarrow, 2022). We asked respondents for their sex rather than their gender identity due to privacy issues.

Table 7 – MGA for the Base Model

Independent variable	Dependent variable	Multi-group Analysis for Sex			
		Women (N=218)	Men (N=218).	Women - Men	Permutation p-value
ExtMot	PreFinRew	0.365	0.267	0.098	0.380
	PreExtRew	0.439	0.388	0.051	0.568
IntMot	PreSuppRew	0.222	0.152	0.070	0.504
	PreIntRew	0.367	0.272	0.094	0.370
ELC	PreFinRew	0.031	0.072	-0.042	0.744
	PreExtRew	0.069	0.285	-0.216	0.074*
	PreSuppRew	-0.058	0.026	-0.084	0.598
	PreIntRew	-0.013	-0.039	0.025	0.790
ILC	PreFinRew	-0.043	0.107	-0.150	0.148
	PreExtRew	0.010	0.190	-0.179	0.108
	PreSuppRew	-0.014	0.145	-0.159	0.130
	PreIntRew	0.082	0.087	-0.005	0.962
SE	PreFinRew	0.027	0.183	-0.155	0.170
	PreExtRew	0.208	0.159	0.049	0.674
	PreSuppRew	-0.033	0.074	-0.107	0.372
	PreIntRew	0.307	0.267	0.039	0.660
PreFinRew	PAJ	0.029	-0.040	-0.000	0.732
PreExtRew	PAJ	0.128	0.060	0.002	0.596
PreSuppRew	PAJ	0.056	-0.033	-0.005	0.768
PreIntRew	PAJ	-0.068	0.156	0.011	0.146

Note: *Significant difference at p-value level of 10% (two-tailed).

4.7. Alternative Model

From the analysis of the Base Model, we find that only PreExtRew has a significant association with PAJ. Additionally, the R^2 of PAJ is relatively small. Therefore, we run an alternative model – that we name Alternative Model - in which we drop preferences for types of rewards. Therefore, we investigate whether types of motivation, LC and SE are directly related to PAJ. Table 8 presents the results for our Alternative Model.

First, R^2 of PAJ is now 12%, which corresponds to an increase of 8 percentage points, compared to our Base Model (presented above). This Alternative Model also encases predictive relevance, since Q^2 is higher than 0. Nevertheless, rms Theta suggests a relevant lack of fit to the data inasmuch as it goes way above the maximum 0.12 threshold (Henseler et al., 2014).

Second, we find both ExtMot and IntMot to be significant predictors of PAJ (coeff. = 0.201, p<0.01; coeff. = 0.124, p<0.01, respectively). Moreover, ExtMot has a small effect on PAJ, following Hair et al.'s (2017) terminology. Such findings are consistent with scholars that posit students who apply for an auditing career are driven either by the prestige imbued in such profession (Tetteh et al., 2022) or by an intrinsic will ("a genuine interest") in the field (Umar, 2014). In addition, ILC has a significant association with PAJ (coeff. = 0.071, p<0.1), which suggests that individuals who aspire to become auditors are convinced that detecting fraud depends on the extent to which proper stagecoaches have been performed by them in an audit (Putri & Pratiwi, 2021). Moreover, SE is not significantly related to PAJ (coeff. = 0.032, p>0.1), which contradicts prior qualitative research (e.g., Tetteh et al., 2022) that claims SE plays a key-role in the willingness to become an auditor.

Table 8 – Statistics of Alternative Model

Independent variable	Dependent variable	Alternative Model			Effect sizes (f^2)
		Coeff.	t-value	p-value	
ExtMot	PAJ	0.201	4.985	0.000	0.048
IntMot	PAJ	0.124	3.196	0.001	0.014
ELC	PAJ	-0.041	1.067	0.287	0.001
ILC	PAJ	0.071	1.712	0.088	0.007
SE	PAJ	0.032	0.852	0.395	0.000
N	652				
R^2 of PAJ (%)	12				
Q^2 of PAJ	0.061				
SRMR	0.059				
rms Theta	0.153				

Furthermore, since we only have, in our Alternative Model, one endogenous latent variable, it becomes opportune as well as convenient to run an Importance-Performance Map Analysis (IPMA) (da Silva et al., 2022). IPMA provides an extension of PLS-SEM results, inasmuch as it takes into account not only the importance (total effects) – given by the path coefficients of structural model – but also each construct performance to explain one target variable (in this case PAJ) (Ringle & Sarstedt, 2016). The performance dimension reflects exogenous latent variables' average scores (in this case average scores of ExtMot, IntMot, ELC, ILC and SE). Because we used different answer scales to measure our manifest variables, higher means of the respective constructs do not necessarily mean higher performances (Mosquera et al., 2020). For instances, a mean of 3.5 on a 7-point Likert scale corresponds to a lower performance of the respective construct comparing to a mean of 3 on a 5-point Likert scale. Therefore, an IPMA surpasses this issue by considering a common scale to assess performance.

However, to carry out an IPMA, we first need to ensure three conditions: all indicators must use a metric scale, have the same scale direction, and outer weights should be positive (Hair et al., 2017). We met all requirements (the first two conditions can be checked in subchapter 3.3. and the outer weights, all positive, are untabulated). Table 9 exhibits both importance and performance values for each exogenous variable. Figure 3 contrasts the importance of all five PAJ predictors. In addition, we drew a horizontal line as well as a vertical line in the chart, which correspond to the average value of performance and total effects, respectively. By doing so, we defined four quadrants, namely, low-importance and low-performance (bottom left corner); low-importance and high-performance (top left corner); high-importance and low-performance (bottom right corner); high-performance and high-importance (top right corner) (Mosquera et al., 2020).

Overall, Figure 3 shows that both ELC and SE have a low performance and low importance on capturing PAJ's variance, which was an expected outcome since ELC and SE have the lowest mean values (Table 1), and the two non-significant coefficients (Table 8). Surprisingly, ILC has a truly identical performance compared to both IntMot and ExtMot, even though their means, as shown in Table 1, are substantially different. They only differ in terms of their importance because motivation - especially, ExtMot – has the bigger effect on PAJ. These findings are consistent with Gagné and Deci's (2005), who

argue that motivation is the main root of one's will to engage in something. We extend these findings by adding the argument that ExtMot has a bigger effect than IntMot when choosing an auditing job. The results confirm our Base Model's findings, since PreExtRew was also a relevant predictor of PAJ, and ExtMot is a significant predecessor of PreExtRew. However, IntMot is a significant predictor of PAJ whereas PreSuppRew and PreIntRew are not. One possible reason is because IntMot is related to one's source of energy to perform something (like choosing a job) "unselfishly" (Gagné et al., 2005). That is, a person undertakes a given action/job without second interests, just because it is appealing. Therefore, IntMot is not only reward-oriented, but ExtMot deeply is. Thus, we argue that a person who has an IntMot to follow an auditing career would still do so even if rewards were not provided. However, an individual with an ExtMot would not. Finally, our Base Model, according to untabulated results, proved to be better, according to Ali et al. (2021).

Table 9 – Data of IPMA for PAJ

Latent Variable	Importance	Performance
ExtMot	0.201	68.452
IntMot	0.124	66.832
ELC	-0.041	35.848
ILC	0.071	65.926
SE	0.032	49.851
Average Value	0.077	57.328

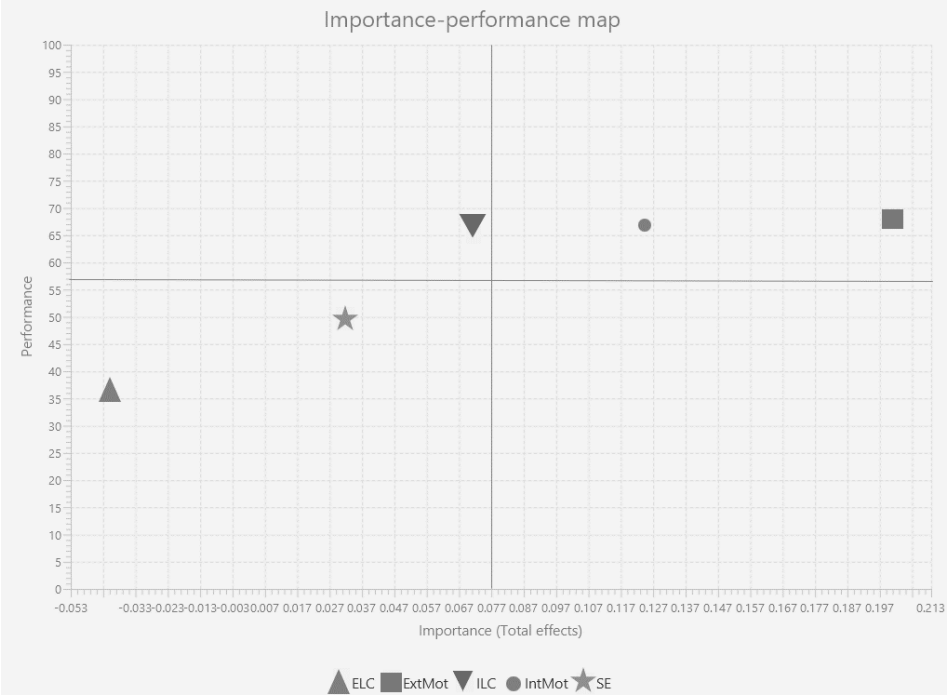

Figure 3 - IPMA for PAJ

A MGA for the Alternative Model was performed as well, similar to the one done for the Base Model (i.e., sex was again considered as a moderating variable). First, we carry a MICOM analysis using an equal procedure explained in chapter 4.6., and no problems were detected. That is, we confirm full measurement invariance. Nevertheless, no statistically significant differences of path coefficients across the groups were found, according to Table 10, inasmuch as all permutation p-values are greater than 0.1.

Table 10 – MGA for the Alternative Model

Independent variable	Dependent variable	Multi-group analysis for Gender			
		Women (N=218)	Men (N=218)	Women-Men	Permutation p-value
ExtMot	PAJ	0.150	0.268	-0.118	0.221
IntMot	PAJ	0.204	0.082	0.123	0.210
ELC	PAJ	-0.008	-0.086	0.078	0.362
ILC	PAJ	0.079	0.084	-0.005	0.955
SE	PAJ	0.086	-0.028	0.114	0.189

5. CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this study is to answer two research questions: 1. *How are personal characteristics, namely, motivation, locus of control and self-efficacy related to stated preferences for a full range of incentives?* and *Which preferences are related to students' propensity to choose an auditing job?* We can now provide answers to both of them, according to our results.

Regarding motivation, we found a positive association between ExtMot and both PreFinRew and PreExtRew. Moreover, we also found a positive association between IntMot and PreSuppRew as well as between IntMot and PreIntRew. Such findings reiterate previous research, which posits people whose energy is propelled by external drivers prefer money and extrinsic incentives (Stajkovic & Luthans, 2001), whereas individuals whose motivation is driven by internal sources call for rewards that target internal factors (Gagné & Deci, 2005). In respect to LC, ELC is positively associated with PreExtRew, suggesting that externals try to offset their common feelings of social exclusion/unattendance (Ye & Lin, 2015) with social recognition provided by ExtRew assignment. On the other hand, ILC is positively associated with preferences for all rewards with the exception of PreFinRew. This non-significant relationship can be due to social desirability bias, since previous research has found highly significant associations between social desirability and ILC (Valentine et al., 2019). We also find that SE is positively associated with preferences for all rewards with the exception of PreSuppRew. A possible explanation for this is that high SE individuals are high achievers, with a Type A Personality (Rayburn & Rayburn, 1996), which means that they are overcompetitive and, therefore, tend to be emotionally detached (Jia et al., 2022). Since SuppRew aim to build an emotional tie between employee and employer (Chiang & Birtch, 2007), high SE individuals' emotional detachment erases a significant association between SE and PreSuppRew.

Regarding our second research question, we find that only PreExtRew is (positively) associated with students' propensity to pursue a job in auditing. Such finding is consistent with previous qualitative literature that advocates younger people, nowadays, see an auditing job as a prestigious one, which entails the idea that students look for this profession driven by external factors, like power and status (Tetteh et al.,

2022). Moreover, this finding contradicts a so-called historical "bean counter" stereotype among accounting-related professions (Espinosa-Pike et al., 2021).

This work has practical implications which should be a golden standard for academic research (Vermeulen, 2005). Our findings provide relevant insights for the recruitment strategies of auditing firms, which struggle with high turnover ratios (Nouri & Parker, 2020). For example, auditing companies can trace individual's characteristics and set a reward package accordingly. Additionally, by highlighting the rewards most relevant to the choice of an auditing job, our study can help auditing companies to develop effective marketing strategies to attract new applicants (Espinosa-Pike et al., 2021).

As any other piece of research, this study is not exempt from limitations and, therefore, its findings should be interpreted with caution. First, our analysis relies on cross-sectional data, so it precludes us from being able to establish causal relationships (Lourenço, 2019). We can only argue causal relationships at a theoretical level. Second, our study is based on self-reported measures, which may contain social desirability bias. Even though some remedies were used to mitigate this phenomenon (Speklé & Widener, 2018), some answers may still have been given in order to depict a favourable image of respondents.[13]

Our study provides several avenues for future research. Longitudinal research can help document causal relationships from an empirical perspective, which we can only argue at a theoretical level in this study. Furthermore, other moderating effects can also provide a more in-depth understanding of how personality characteristics affect preferences for rewards. For example, future research can investigate the role of gender in the relationships we document. Finally, country comparative analysis is also an interesting extension of our work since cultural differences may influence the perception of an auditing job by management-related students and on the drivers of that choice.

[13] To mitigate social desirability bias, we clarified that neither wrong nor right answers exist in the survey; we asked respondents to be totally honest in their answers; we informed respondents about the confidentiality of their answers; we pre-tested the questionnaire to assess its deceiving-answers susceptibility and length; and we provided a possible contact in case of doubt when filling the survey.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1 - CMB

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. ExtMot		1.156	1.115	1.219	1.259	1.243	1.199	1.239	1.234	1.220
2. IntMot	1.265		1.307	1.309	1.287	1.271	1.316	1.312	1.253	1.308
3. ELC	1.104	1.159		1.090	1.105	1.076	1.149	1.129	1.163	1.166
4. ILC	1.112	1.166	1.106		1.140	1.125	1.159	1.163	1.163	1.143
5. SE	1.281	1.298	1.232	1.322		1.234	1.275	1.208	1.239	1.293
6. PreFinRew	1.655	1.255	1.293	1.542	1.411		1.487	1.440	1.627	1.644
7. PreExtRew	1.456	1.478	1.089	1.527	1.577	1.373		1.538	1.526	1.514
8. PreSuppRew	1.676	1.491	1.444	1.610	1.277	1.444	1.654		1.475	1.623
9. PreIntRew	1.648	1.589	1.639	1.683	1.537	1.686	1.660	1.433		1.642
10. PAJ	1.080	1.088	1.100	1.103	1.094	1.373	1.105	1.115	1.111	

Appendix 2 – Respondents' Sex and Cycle of Studies

	Female respondents	Male respondents	Total	Undergraduated students	Master students	Total
Frequency	434	218	652#	450	202	652#
Percentage	67	33	100%	69	31	100%

Appendix 3 – Respondents' Age

Variable	Mean	SD	Min	Max	Mode (Frequency)	50% Percentil	75% Percentil	90% Percentil	95% Percentil	99% Percentil
Age	23.01	6.77	18	65	19 (120)	21	23	29	39	54

Appendix 4 – Match between Respondents' Age and Professional Experience

		Age (in years)						
		18-21	22-25	26-64	65	Total	%	
Professional Experience (in months)	None	245	64	5	0	314	48	
	1-12	100	73	14	0	187**	29	∑ = 52*
	13-24	7	14	6	0	27	4	
	25-99	9	34	33	0	76	12	
	100 or +	0	0	47	1	48	7	
	Total	361	185	105	1	652		

Appendix 5 – Summary of EFA Results

	Value	Remark
KMO statistics	0.872	Meritorius value
Bartlett's test of sphericity	p<0.01	Highly significant/Var. are correlated
Number of retained factor (PAJ)	1	We used Kaiser's criterion
Retained factor's eigenvalue	3.637	In average, PAJ explains 3.6 items per observation
Total variance explained	0.727	None
Cronbach's alpha	0.904	High reliability

Appendix 6 – Items' Loadings and Uniqueness

Items	Loadings	Uniqueness
In a near future, I see myself applying for a job in auditing	0.921	0.151
If I was invited to take a job offer in auditing, I'd accept it	0.898	0.194
I'm interested in a job in auditing	0.950	0.098
I see myself pursuing a career in auditing	0.927	0.141
Finding a job in auditing has a positive connotation	0.469	0.779

Appendix 7 - Indicators' outer loadings and significance

Variables	Indicators	Loading	p-value*
Extrinsic Motivation (ExtMot)	ext1	0.658 (c.)	0.000
	ext2	0.852	0.000
	ext3	0.727	0.000
	ext4	0.796	0.000
	ext5	0.761	0.000
Intrinsic Motivation (IntMot)	intrins1	0.842	0.000
	intrins2	0.837	0.000
	intrins3	0.848	0.000
External Locus of Control (ELC)	elc1	0.797	0.000
	elc2	0.101 (a.)	--
	elc3	0.817	0.000
InternaL Locus of Control (ILC)	ilc1	0.697 (b.)	--
	ilc2	0.698 (c.)	0.000
	ilc3	0.901	0.000

Self-Efficacy (SE)	se1	0.870	0.000
	se2	0.871	0.000
	se3	0.886	0.000
	se4	0.874	0.000
	se5	0.881	0.000
	se6	0.824	0.000
Preference for Financial Rewards (PreFinRew)	fr1	0.828	0.000
	fr2	0.634 (c.)	0.000
	fr3	0.753	0.000
	fr4	0.759	0.000
	fr5	0.487 (b.)	--
	fr6	0.622 (b.)	--
Preference for Extrinsic Rewards (PreExtRew)	er1	0.443 (b.)	--
	er2	0.591 (c.)	0.000
	er3	0.889	0.000
	er4	0.475 (b.)	--
	er5	0.887	0.000
	er6	0.250 (a.)	--
	er7	0.433 (b.)	--
Preference for Support Rewards (PreSuppRew)	suppr1	0.896	0.000
	suppr2	0.347 (a.)	--
	suppr3	0.555 (c.)	0.000
	suppr4	0.653 (b.)	--
	suppr5	0.577 (b.)	--
	suppr6	0.748	0.000
Preference for Intrinsic Rewards (PreIntRew)	ir1	0.763	0.000
	ir2	0.708	0.000
	ir3	0.689 (c.)	0.000
	ir4	0.626 (b.)	--
	ir5	0.641 (c.)	0.000
	ir6	0.497 (b.)	--
	ir7	0.772	0.000
	ir8	0.693 (c.)	0.000
	ir9	0.686 (c.)	0.000
Propensity to Choose an Auditing Job (PAJ)	auj1	0.885	0.000
	auj2	0.852	0.000
	auj3	0.919	0.000
	auj4	0.902	0.000
	auj5	0.596 (c.)	0.000

Note: (a.) Items removed because their value was below 0.4.
(b.) Items removed because their value was above 0.4, but below 0.7, and removing them led to an increase of CR or AVE above threshold values.
(c.) Items preserved because, despite their value being above 0.4 and below 0.7, removing them would lead to a decrease of CR or AVE below threshold values.
*All items preserved in the measurement model are statistically significant at 1 *per cent* level

Appendix 8 - Collinearity

	PreFinRew	PreExtRew	PreSuppRew	PreIntRew	PAJ
ExtMot	1.026	1.026	--	--	--
IntMot	--	--	1.101	1.101	--
ELC	1.137	1.137	1.140	1.140	--
ILC	1.123	1.123	1.121	1.121	--
SE	1.089	1.089	1.137	1.137	--
PreFinRew	--	--	--	--	1.589
PreExtRew	--	--	--	--	1.420
PreSuppRew	--	--	--	--	1.578
PreIntRew	--	--	--	--	1.325

Appendix 9 - Summary of Model Fit

	R^2 (%)	Effect Sizes (f^2)					Q^2
		PreFinRew	PreExtRew	PreSuppRew	PreIntRew	PAJ	
ExtMot	--	0.093	0.246	--	--	--	--
IntMot	--	--	--	0.059	0.145	--	--
ELC	--	0.003	0.093	0.000	0.001	--	--
ILC	--	0.009	0.069	0.008	0.032	--	--
SE	--	0.015	0.101	0.002	0.090	--	--
PreFinRew	13.0	--	--	--	--	0.001	0.043
PreExtRew	35.3	--	--	--	--	0.015	0.129
PreSuppRew	8.60	--	--	--	--	0.000	0.020
PreIntRew	31.9	--	--	--	--	0.001	0.111
PAJ	4.2	--	--	--	--	--	0.017
SRMR	0.068						
rms Theta	0.124						