Entrepreneurship or Paid Employment: The Post-School Job Preference of Undergraduates in Nigerian Public Universities

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Abstract

Post-graduation employment has been of great concern to students, teachers, and parents. This is because of the stiff competition in the contemporary labour market. The job preference of students informs their post-graduation expectations and interests. This study, therefore, assessed the post-school job preference of undergraduates in Nigerian public universities using the survey approach of quantitative design. The population was the six south-west states of Nigeria having 17 public universities in the zone, and comprising of 12,890 male and 13,966 female final year undergraduates of the universities. Using the simple random sampling technique, three public universities were selected. Furthermore, 1,500 final year undergraduates were selected using the criterion purposive sampling technique. The Undergraduates' Job Preference Scale (UNJOP-S), a 20-item questionnaire, was designed and administered. Descriptive and inferential statistics were used to answer the research question and hypothesis respectively. The study found that paid employment was the most preferred job of undergraduates. It equally showed a significant relationship between entrepreneurship education and measures of undergraduates' job preference. Consequently, entrepreneurial content should be incorporated in every discipline to shape the undergraduates’ job preference towards entrepreneurial endeavours after graduation, as this will change their orientation for entrepreneurial activities and facilitate the school-to-work transition.

Keywords: Entrepreneurship; employment; job preference; undergraduate

Introduction

Undergraduates' job preferences determine their intentions, expectations, and interests in the labour market. It is conceptualised in this study as the desire of undergraduates for the career path they are likely to develop professionally. Studies have observed that this professional development could be related to the degree they pursue in the university and can also be borne out of their enthusiasm while in the university (Adebakin 2017; Oyewumi and Adeniyi 2013; Shumba and Naong 2012; Simeon-Fayomi 2011). Often, undergraduates wish to put into practice the knowledge and skills acquired during their studies in the university. Their job preference is entrenched when it comes to future career probability which is important for their educational attainment and occupational choice (Adebakin 2017). In recent times, however, it is observed that...
graduate job seekers in the formal sector are having it tough because employers are keeping their most talented and trained individuals, leaving little or no room for hiring newly certified graduates.

The underlying problem in the views of Adebakin (2017) as well as Adebakin and Akinola (2018), is the fact that the training which undergraduates receive has not been fully successful in equipping them with desirable soft skills and competencies required either by employers or for job creation, self-employment and self-reliance, as evident by the high rate of unemployment in the country. This is exacerbated by the mismatch of employers’ desired skills and graduates possessed skills which have led to the unemployment of many Nigerian graduates today. This ‘skills-gap’ therefore, has become an issue of concern to governments, institutions, organisations, public and human resource managers, who expect undergraduates to possess relevant and necessary skills that would enable them to secure jobs and fit into the world of work after their formal schooling (Adebakin, Ajadi and Subair 2015).

Meanwhile, countries such as China, Japan, Italy, Germany, Canada, Russia and the USA that are today acknowledged as developed nations have attained this status because they operate education policy templates that favour self-reliance and independence (Pop and Barkhuizen 2010; Simeon-Fayomi, Chetan and Oludeyi 2018). Although, this does not necessarily mean that they have a comparative advantage in all areas, the emphasis of these countries’ education is placed on skills acquisition. Perhaps the reason is that technical training and university education have been the focal point of developed nations specifically for the nations’ human capital development and socio-economic benefits. The challenge of the tough labour market and high rate of graduate unemployment in Nigeria suggests a paradigm shift from employment seeking to self-employment as many graduates still wallow in their quest for jobs. Hence, this study has found it expedient to empirically assess the post-school job preferences of undergraduates in Nigerian public universities. Therefore, the aims of this study are to: (i) assess the post-school job preferences of undergraduates in Nigerian public universities; and (ii) compare entrepreneurship education and post-school job preference of undergraduates in Nigerian public universities.

**Undergraduates’ Job Preferences: Some Empirical Evidence**

Undergraduates assume that their qualifications after graduation will be the gateway to high salaries and management positions (Pop and Barkhuizen 2010), and this has somehow made them reluctant to learn the relevant skills that form the foundation of employment (Adebakin, Ajadi and Subair 2015). Pop and Barkhuizen (2010) further observe that undergraduates believe they do not need to start at the bottom by virtue of being highly qualified, in contrast to permanent workers who do not have equal credentials. More significantly, new graduates consider it their right to be treated impartially and at par with their more experienced peers. In line with this, Olufunso’s (2010) study on graduate entrepreneurial intentions in South Africa, using a sample of 701 students in the final class, indicate that the entrepreneurial intentions of the graduates were very weak, and that most respondents preferred to work for private companies or public establishments.

Another study conducted in Ghana on undergraduates’ career intentions report that majority of the respondents (64.5%, n=20) aspire to work in the employment of others. It was also interesting to note that 25.8 per cent (n=80) of the respondents aspired to work for themselves following the exposure to entrepreneurship education in the university. The correlation co-efficient between students’ exposure to entrepreneurship and career preference suggests a significant relationship between the variables (Owusu-Ansah and Poku 2012). Apparently, a career in the employment of others represents the major intentions and aspirations of respondents in both studies. Undergraduate students tend to believe that they will find a good job after completing their degree (Adebakin and Akinola 2018).
In an Anglo-Dutch study conducted by Jenkins (2001) on students’ future perceptions, 77.5 per cent of the respondents, who were studying a hospitality degree in the United Kingdom and the Netherlands, believed that after graduating from their course, they would find a job in the hospitality industry. Jenkins (2001) finds that 70 per cent of students expected to be employed as a corporate manager ten years after graduating, and 65 per cent of students expected to be a department manager five years after graduating. Slavtchev, Laspita and Patzelt (2012) investigate the impact of providing entrepreneurship education on students’ intentions to follow an entrepreneurial career path. They distinguish between short-term intentions (immediately after graduating) and long-term intentions (five years after graduating). Drawing on data collected from two student surveys in 2006 and 2008 respectively at the University of Otago in New Zealand, Slavtchev et al. (2012) identify students completing both surveys and used a difference-in-difference approach to analyse changes in their entrepreneurial intentions in relation to attending entrepreneurship classes.

In order to control potential selection, the study of Slavtchev et al. (2012) limit the analysis to students who had no entrepreneurship aspirations either prior to enrolling on the course, or who had not previously attended such courses. The result shows that the intention to become an entrepreneur or self-employed immediately after graduation was 9.1 per cent lower for students taking entrepreneurship courses in relation to the control, although this result was not statistically significant. Fifty per cent of students taking the course developed entrepreneurial aspirations compared to only 21.1 per cent of the reference group. The difference in this data was significant and indicated that 28.9 per cent more students taking the course intended to become entrepreneurs or self-employed in the long term relative to those not taking such courses. In line with Oosterbeek, Praag and Ijsselstein (2010), these results suggest that entrepreneurial education strengthens or weakens the intentions to become entrepreneurs and further that the consistency of signals received affects changes in students’ intentions to become entrepreneurs.

In a study carried out in Turkey, Collins (2002) stresses that undergraduates are expected to enter a management position after graduating from their course, but employers thought that graduates were not suitable to occupy a management position. This, according to Collins (2002), is because some managers consider graduates as having a ‘know-it-all’ patronising attitude, and that they lacked resilience when coping with the hectic industrial environment. In another study, Harkison (2004) notes that students were realistic in terms of the management goals they could achieve following their graduation. Students tend to have a plan to apply for middle management positions, such as in the supervisory and trainee areas after graduation. To achieve their goals, they must have a precise career plan, which is very important for success in their career development. However, Jenkins (2001) also finds that no students wanted their own business five years after graduation, and only 70 per cent of students expected to own a business 10 years after graduation. This means that not many students consider starting their own business after completing their university education.

Job preferences of undergraduates are most times informed by certain factors which may vary from one individual to another. These factors were confirmed in the study of Shumba and Naong (2012) on factors influencing students’ career choices and aspirations in South Africa. It was found that families, parents, and guardians in particular, play a significant role in the occupational aspirations and career goal development of their children. Various studies (Knowles, 1998; Mau and Bikos, 2000; Wilson and Wilson, 1992) have shown that undergraduates cited parents as an important influence on their choice of career. Some of the variables that influence undergraduates’ job expectations include the family, level of parental education, school, peers, personality, and socio-economic status (Crockett and Binghham, 2000; Wilson and Wilson, 1992). There are varying opinions and findings as to which specific family characteristics influence job preference. Simoen-Fayomi (2011) reports that entrepreneurial behaviour of students is significantly
influenced by parents’ financial status, students’ perception of employment, prospects of disciplines and entrepreneurial motivation.

Mau and Bikos (2000) discovers that both parent education and income influence job preference, while some studies (Hossler and Stage, 1992; Wilson and Wilson, 1992) show that only parent education has an influence. Lazorenko (2007) confirms that students with educated fathers have higher short- and long-term job preferences. The study by Lazorenko (2007) also clarifies that academic performance and previous work experience has a positive effect on job preference. Other family variables that have been shown to influence job preference include, the parents’ occupation (Trice, 1991), and family size (Downey 1995). Solesvik (2007) investigates the intentions to become an entrepreneur among Ukrainian university students. The study reports a higher level of intention to become an entrepreneur among students who had entrepreneurial parents than those who did not. This could be explained by higher perceived entrepreneurial self-efficacy among students having successful self-employed parents and also the possibility of joining a family business.

Brunello, Lucifora and Winter-Ebmer (2001) sample the opinions of 6,829 students across ten European countries on job preference. The study showed that job preferences of undergraduates were significantly related to their various fields of study, gender, age, seniority in college, perceived relative ability of the student, and family background. The study further states that job prospects are dependent on the field of study and family background. Moy and Luk (2008) conduct a tracer study on exploring the career choice intent of Chinese graduates by extending a psychologically based model of new-venture creation that encompasses people, processes, and choices. This integrative model helps to understand the intricacy of the entrepreneurial career choice intent in developed as well as developing economies. The study shows that gender and parental role have a positive effect on career choice and preference, with entrepreneurial self-efficacy significantly and partially mediating their relationship. Entrepreneurial alertness was found to moderate the relationship between some self-efficacy sub-items and career choice intent. It was therefore suggested that training on improving the responsiveness and alertness to entrepreneurial opportunities would help foster an entrepreneurial culture among graduates.

Job preference has also been linked to the gender of undergraduates. A study by Pitcher and Purcell (1998) note that over one third of students expected to obtain a career-related position immediately after graduating, with more males (42%) than females (30%) expecting this. Dominitz and Manski’s (1996) findings based on the results of a survey completed by 110 high school and college undergraduate students in the United States, indicated that the future earnings expectations of high school and university, male and female students were similar, ceteris paribus. There was however, a significant variance in the job expectations of students within these groups indicating that there is widespread uncertainty among students regarding their future earnings. Overall, literature has been largely established on students’ job preferences as several studies have been conducted on the variables with indices such as expected income/salaries, work environment and parents’ education (Hossler and Stage 1992; Mau and Bikos, 2000; Wilson and Wilson 1992).

It is worth noting that none of the studies has observed a variable such as entrepreneurship or self-employment as a measure. Other studies also examined factors (gender, parental income, peer influence and background) influencing job preference (Crockett and Bingham, 2000; Pitcher and Purcell, 1998; Wilson and Wilson, 1992), but none has considered entrepreneurship education as an influencing factor. Furthermore, no study has compared entrepreneurship education with job preference. Consequently, this study aims to fill these apparent gaps in the literature by establishing the relationship between entrepreneurship and paid employment as measures of job preference, with a view to adequately providing information on undergraduates’ job preferences in Nigeria.
Methodology

The quantitative design was adopted using a survey approach in order to have an in-depth assessment, analysis, and opinion of undergraduates’ post-school job preference in the selected Nigerian public universities. The efficacy of this design, according to Creswell (2014), is in the ability to use quantitative data to provide a comprehensive analysis of the research problem and present a complete understanding of the variables as they pervade among undergraduates. Consequently, the researchers were able to have an in-depth assessment and analysis of the Nigerian public universities’ undergraduates’ opinions for the purpose of describing and interpreting their preferences for entrepreneurship practices or otherwise. The population for this study comprises 12,890 male and 13,966 female final year undergraduates (as at 2018/2019 academic session) from 17 public universities in six Southwestern states of Nigeria. The South- west geopolitical zone of Nigeria comprises six states and 17 public universities which are: Lagos, Ogun and Oyo having one federal and two state owned universities each; Osun and Ekiti with one federal and one state owned university each; and Ondo with one federal and three state owned universities (National Universities Commission, 2019).

The sample frame consists of 1,500 final year undergraduates from three public universities in three Southwestern states of Nigeria. The simple random sampling technique was used for the selection of the public universities to give an equal chance of selection, while the criterion of purposive sampling was used to select only those final year undergraduates who had been offered entrepreneurship education as coursework, and who the researchers assumed would have developed an independent mind for choosing a career option. These students were selected across ten randomly chosen faculties from each university. A 20-item questionnaire titled ‘Undergraduates’ Job Preference Scale (UNJOP-S)’ was designed for the study. The UNJOP-S was measured on a 4-point Likert-type rating scale with appropriate response structures and coded 4, 3, 2, and 1 for ease of administration and data analysis. The administration of UNJOP-S was done jointly with three trained research assistants, one for each university. These assistants were trained on the procedure involved in the administration of the instrument, bearing in mind and being cognisant of research ethical standards. Collected data were analysed quantitatively using version 20.0 of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Descriptive statistics such as frequency counts and percentages were used to answer the research question, while the Pearson’s Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) was used to analyse the research hypothesis.

In terms of ethical considerations, the researchers obtained a letter of authorisation from the relevant institutions. The letter was distributed to the Deans and Heads of the selected faculties and departments, respectively. This is with a view to giving them prior notice of the research visit by the research assistants and researchers. Consent from all participating respondents was also sought before engaging them in the completion of the instrument, and they were assured of the strict confidentiality of their opinions as data gathered would be used for this study.

Results and Discussion

This section addresses the assessment of post-school job preferences of undergraduates in Nigerian public universities and also compares the relationship between entrepreneurship education acquired in school and post-school job preferences of undergraduates in Nigerian public universities. It further presents the practice and policy implications of the findings and highlights the contributions of the study to prior knowledge. To this end, undergraduates’ preferences for either entrepreneurship or paid employment were measured on a 4-point Likert-type scale (4 - Strongly agree, 3 - Agree, 2 - Disagree, 1 - Strongly disagree) to show their extent of agreement or disagreement with the measuring items. However, for the purpose of interpretive clarity, the responses are categorised into ‘Agree’ (SA and A) and ‘Disagree’ (D and SA).
Frequency counts and percentages are used to analyse the data, and the results are presented in Table 1.

**Table 1: Summary of Undergraduates’ Job Preference**

| Job Preference                          | Items                                                                 | SA    | A     | D     | SD    |
|-----------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| Paid Employment                         | I would prefer to work for a salary                                   | 470   | 549   | 300   | 181   |
|                                         |                                                                        | (31.3) | (36.6) | (20.0) | (12.1) |
|                                         | I cannot cope with the risks in business                              | 238   | 564   | 468   | 230   |
|                                         |                                                                        | (15.9) | (37.6) | (31.2) | (15.3) |
|                                         | A salaried job earns one a better social status                       | 390   | 554   | 377   | 179   |
|                                         |                                                                        | (26.0) | (36.9) | (25.1) | (11.9) |
|                                         | Inadequate information about business operations is my challenge      | 333   | 690   | 346   | 131   |
|                                         |                                                                        | (22.2) | (46.0) | (23.1) | (8.8)  |
|                                         | Starting a new business could be difficult                           | 366   | 770   | 267   | 97    |
|                                         |                                                                        | (24.4) | (51.3) | (17.8) | (6.5)  |
|                                         | Government policy is not supportive of business growth                 | 404   | 764   | 273   | 59    |
|                                         |                                                                        | (26.9) | (50.9) | (18.2) | (3.9)  |
|                                         | I prefer to work for a large company for better career prospects     | 511   | 681   | 236   | 72    |
|                                         |                                                                        | (34.1) | (45.4) | (15.7) | (4.8)  |
| Entrepreneurship                        | I would prefer being an employer of labour                            | 58    | 216   | 621   | 605   |
|                                         |                                                                        | (3.9)  | (14.4) | (41.4) | (40.3) |
|                                         | I have plans of starting a firm because of unemployment in the formal sector | 176   | 644   | 648   | 32    |
|                                         |                                                                        | (11.7) | (42.9) | (43.2) | (2.2)  |
|                                         | A self-owned business will earn me more money than a paid job        | 36    | 201   | 724   | 539   |
|                                         |                                                                        | (2.4)  | (13.4) | (48.3) | (35.9) |
|                                         | Entrepreneurial schemes and government policies are encouraging      | 81    | 302   | 471   | 646   |
|                                         |                                                                        | (5.4)  | (20.1) | (31.4) | (43.1) |
|                                         | I already have previous experience in business activities             | 52    | 323   | 477   | 648   |
|                                         |                                                                        | (3.5)  | (21.5) | (31.8) | (43.2) |
|                                         | My professional goal is to be an entrepreneur                         | 54    | 283   | 569   | 594   |
|                                         |                                                                        | (3.6)  | (18.9) | (37.9) | (39.6) |
|                                         | I would feel restricted being tied down to tightly organised work activities | 90    | 683   | 428   | 299   |
|                                         |                                                                        | (6.0)  | (45.5) | (28.6) | (19.9) |

**Note:** Figures in parentheses are in percentages

Table 1 shows the distribution of responses on the job preferences of undergraduates in Nigerian public universities. The results show that 1,019 (67.9%) respondents prefer working for salaries, 802 (52.5%) said they cannot cope with the risks in business, while 944 (62.9%) saw salaried jobs as a way of earning a better social status. Furthermore, 1,023 (68.2%) respondents dreaded the challenge of inadequate information about business operations. 1,136 (75.7%) were of the opinion that starting a new business could be difficult, 1,168 (77.8%) agreed that government policy is not supportive of business growth, while 1,192 (79.5%) preferred to work for a large company for better career prospects. These results show that undergraduates are mostly interested in paid employment as evident by a 3.14 weighted average.
To measure the respondents’ interest in being entrepreneurs, 1,226 (81.7%) disagreed with the preference of being an employer of labour, 820 (54.6%) had plans of starting a firm because of unemployment in the formal sector, and only 237 (15.8%) agreed that a self-owned business earns more money than a paid job. Majority of the respondents, 1,117 (74.5%) did not agree that entrepreneurial schemes and government policies are encouraging, while 1,125 (75%) respondents did not have previous experience in business activity and 1,163 (77.5%) did not want to set a goal to be an entrepreneur, while 773 (51.5%) claimed that they would feel restricted being tied down to tightly organised work activities. This weighted average (2.86) shows that respondents had a low desire for entrepreneurship.

The results are further substantiated with the weighted average of the two constructs where choice of paid employment outweighed entrepreneurship. The indication of this result is that undergraduates in the selected universities would prefer earning monthly salaries through white collar jobs than going through the rigours of initiating new business ideas that would engender self-employment and possible job creation. This finding shows that the post-school job preference of undergraduates in Nigerian public universities is paid employment. Corroborating this, Zain, Akram and Ghani (2010) mention that this could be as a result of unfavourable government policies towards business development and the orientation that self-owned businesses do not necessarily earn more money than paid employment. Other possible reasons for this finding could be a lack of the required capital, inadequate preparation to face the demands of running businesses, and the negative attitudes of Nigerians towards supporting locally made goods and services (Simeon-Fayomi 2011). In addition, the study by Akpomi (2009) reveals that only 12.4 per cent of undergraduates did not aspire to own businesses upon graduation because there is no ‘take-off’ funds or sponsorship to face the demands of running businesses.

**Test of Hypothesis**

There is no significant relationship between entrepreneurship education and post-school job preference of undergraduates in Nigerian public universities. To test this hypothesis, respondents’ opinions were scored and computed using the Pearson’s Product Moment Correlation. This statistic was used to compare the relationship between entrepreneurship education course received and post-school job preference of undergraduates in Nigerian public universities.

The results are presented in Table 2 below:

| N=1500 | Entrepreneurship Education | Job Preference |
|--------|---------------------------|----------------|
|        |                           | Salaried Job   | Entrepreneurship |
|        | r 1.343*                  | 0.092          | 1               |
|        | X 20.03                   |                |                 |
|        | Sd 3.707                  |                |                 |

*Significant, P ≤ .05, df =1498

Table 3 presents the results of the relationship between entrepreneurial education and the post-school job preferences of undergraduates in Nigerian public universities. The results show a significant, though low, relationship between entrepreneurship education and measures of
undergraduates’ post-school job preference. The results further indicate a high positive
relationship between entrepreneurship education and salaried jobs \( r = 0.343 \) and a low positive
relationship between entrepreneurship education and entrepreneurship as a career \( r = 0.134 \).
The correlation \( r \) values were computed at 1,498 degrees of freedom and a 0.05 level of
significance. This result means that there was a low link between undergraduates’ post-school
job expectations and entrepreneurship education received in school. It also implies that
entrepreneurship education as coursework does not really influence the choice of undergraduates
towards entrepreneurship as a career and that undergraduates still desire jobs in the formal
sector. This finding shows that there is a significantly positive relationship between
entrepreneurship education and post-school job preference of undergraduates in Nigeria public
universities. This indicates that students mainly envisage life as employees as the dominant
choice at the moment in a wage-earn culture.

Contrarily, Charney and Libecap (2000) contend that there is a positive correlation between
knowledge and career aspiration. This implies that before anybody engages in a particular career,
there should be in-depth knowledge of such, as the previous knowledge provides the foundation
for career prosperity. According to Oyewumi and Adeniyi (2013), knowledge contributes to
success in career development. This is because knowledge provides foundation for every career’s
prosperity. However, entrepreneurial knowledge alone may not be enough to encourage the
entrepreneurial intentions of undergraduates, but also a measurable attitudinal change towards
self-employment and possible job creation. In contrast, Simeon-Fayomi (2011) intimate that
entrepreneurship education had no significant influence on entrepreneurial intention. Studies
have also reported similar results where students showed a preference for being employees
rather than becoming entrepreneurs (Adebakin 2017; Adebakin and Fasanmi 2019; Norasmah
and Faridah 2010). Olufunso’s (2010) study also finds that entrepreneurial intentions were very
low among South African undergraduates and the reasons he attributed to this result were lack
of access to capital, lack of competency, poor government support, fear of risk and the macro-
economy environment.

Contrary to the above is the result of Zain et al. (2010) study in Malaysia where more graduating
students had a desire to pursue entrepreneurship and were influenced by entrepreneurial courses
they had taken, family members who were entrepreneurs and academics who were in business-
related disciplines. Apart from the possible reasons adduced above for undergraduates’ job
preference, studies have also identified other variables that influence undergraduates’ job
preferences such as family and parental education (Shumba and Naong 2012); parents’ financial
status and entrepreneurial motivation (Simeon-Fayomi 2011). Other family variables that have
been shown to influence job expectations include the parents’ occupation (Trice 1991) and family
size (Singh et al., 1995). While some authors agree with these influencing variables (Adebakin
and Akinola, 2018; Mau and Bikos, 2000), others argue that parental education is the only
influence (Hossler and Stage 1992; Wilson and Wilson, 1992). Thus, findings of this study have
far reaching implications for educational policy, planning, practice, as well as research. The
findings provide a depth of high-quality quantitative data, the analysis of which has highlighted
the value of entrepreneurship for employment prospects of university undergraduates. However,
the following are different policy implications from the study.

There are lessons for policy makers to learn about the contribution of entrepreneurship education
in developing potential entrepreneurs. It is interesting to note that subjective norms influence
attitudes and explain a portion of the variance in entrepreneurial intentions of undergraduates. As
Peterman and Kennedy (2003) point out, undergraduates’ desire for entrepreneurship as a viable
career option can be influenced. Deliberate steps to highlight entrepreneurial success stories in
the media could have a positive impact on undergraduates’ preferences for entrepreneurship. The
use of local case studies in the teaching of entrepreneurship would be instructive regarding the
feasibility of entrepreneurship as a career. In the same breath, role models and the publication of
their stories could also have positive implications on the perceptions of desirability and preference. Policy makers benefit from the understanding that government initiatives will affect business formations only if these policies are perceived in a way that influences undergraduates' attitudes in terms of interest and desire. Two growing societal trends make this more than a sterile academic exercise. Downsizing and outsourcing currently dominate the Nigerian corporate landscape, especially in the face of economic recession. Recognition is growing among policy makers that economic and community development hinges on growing one’s own businesses. Government officials and the larger community should also see entrepreneurial activity as desirable and feasible.

The main practical implication for entrepreneurship education in Nigeria is that, knowledge and resources could increase the likelihood of success for those whose job preference is entrepreneurship after graduation. This may be the inspiration needed to improve the attitudes and intentions and increase the chances that undergraduates will eventually attempt an entrepreneurial career. This implies that if the target is to increase the number of entrepreneurs from the student population, then the inspirational part of the course has to be designed purposefully. The practical implication is that lecturers should receive training not only on pedagogical approaches to teaching entrepreneurship, but also on how to change ‘hearts and minds’. As a result, charismatic lecturers who can communicate their enthusiasm for entrepreneurship through non-verbal expressiveness will ultimately inspire their students towards a higher entrepreneurial preference.

The practical suggestion is that universities’ managers should not only assess or evaluate how much their undergraduates learn about entrepreneurship or whether they are satisfied with the courses, but also whether they are inspired by the course. A feedback from measuring inspiration from the course will highlight their desirability and preference for it as a career. In responding to the challenges of unemployment, this study contributes substantially to theory and practice and proffers new insights into the ongoing discourse on the disposition to towards entrepreneurship education by undergraduate students in relation to their preference and expectations for employment after graduation. The study provides empirical evidence on issues associated with the practice of entrepreneurship education in universities, and specifically serves as a veritable source of information on the value of entrepreneurship education in ensuring undergraduates' self-employment after graduation, with a further view to reducing the graduates’ unemployment rate in Nigeria.

The findings of this research could serve as feedback to stakeholders such as government, university managers and administrators, as well as lecturers on how to improve entrepreneurship education through reorientation of undergraduates towards entrepreneurship as a career. It is also useful for entrepreneurially well-informed parents and university counsellors to guide undergraduates in shaping their job preference, expectations and career intentions. Furthermore, this study enriches the existing knowledge and hence could be of interest to researchers who seek to explore and carry out further investigations and thereby provides a basis for further research. The study has further filled the apparent gap in the literature in order to add to the existing knowledge on the subject matter. Finally, various governmental, inter-governmental and non-governmental organisations (NGOs) will find the report of this study as a useful guide in the implementation and evaluation of entrepreneurship education in higher education institutions (HEIs) in Nigeria and beyond.

Conclusion and Recommendations

The post-school job preference of undergraduates in Nigeria has largely steered towards paid employment. This is in spite of the entrepreneurship education offered in the Nigerian universities which is aimed at initiating new business ideas that can engender self-employment and possible
job creation. This preference appears to have been informed by having a poor capital base, inadequate preparation to face the demands of running businesses and the fear of Nigerians' attitude towards supporting indigenous goods and services. In the global arena, Africa is increasingly taking its place as a continent of potential growth and development opportunities. Yet, this is not devoid of critical challenges such as poverty, loss of values and ultimately, unemployment. This necessitates the need to build a cadre of home-grown entrepreneurs to be able to access global markets and drive sustainable economic growth. Consequently, it was recommended that entrepreneurial content should be redesigned and/or incorporated in every discipline so as to shape undergraduates’ job preferences towards entrepreneurial endeavours after graduation. This will also raise undergraduates’ awareness and knowledge of the relevance and applicability of classroom-based learning, change their orientation for entrepreneurial activities and also facilitate the school-to-work transition.

The limitations of this study suggest direction for future research efforts. In the course of this study, a number of issues, as related to its focus, were touched upon and yet still demand further investigation because they lie outside the content and geographical scope of this study. Such issues, as entrepreneurship curriculum design and content, can be addressed by future researchers to gain a different perspective in relation to a more elaborate understanding of the challenges of job expectations among Nigerian undergraduates. This study has mainly covered public universities in Southwestern Nigeria. By implication, future research may cover a wider range within the Southwestern Nigeria by conducting the research in private universities and possibly comparing private and public universities from other zones of the country. This study did not measure intervening variables that might have informed undergraduates’ apathy for entrepreneurship as a career, though, literature highlighted some. This may also call for further research in this area.

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