

AI Teaching Tools Create Dynamic Scaffoldings rather than Static Staircases for Accounting Students

The primary objective of this paper is to investigate whether AI teaching tools in undergraduate accounting subjects lead to improved academic performance. The authors have also investigated whether there is any correlation or relationship between gender or the students' overall academic merit and the use of the AI teaching tools. Unlike other researchers, the current authors have also used the personality grit (i.e., a non-cognitive trait based on a person's perseverance of effort, taking into consideration their passion to achieve long-term goals) completed by each student in an effort to identify if that has an impact or a correlation on the use of AI teaching tools and the final mark achieved. Having studied the actual use of AI teaching tools for Financial and Management Accounting, and the students' individual responses to the personality grit, as well as their gender, overall final marks, and academic performance, it was found that students who had lower personality grit when using AI teaching tools achieved significantly higher marks than students with higher grit. It was also found that students with overall higher entrance academic scores when using the AI teaching tools achieved significantly higher final marks than students with lower university entrance scores. No relationship was found relating to gender. This has enabled the researchers to prove that when AI is integrated into teaching and assessment, a dynamic scaffolding rather than a static staircase is developed.

Keywords: *AI teaching tools, personality grit, academic performance*

Introduction

The primary aim of the paper is to determine whether AI teaching tools used in undergraduate accounting improve students' academic performance in the subject. The reason this is important to investigate is that students' engagement and interest in accounting courses and the profession have fallen (Malik et al., 2025). Thus, the findings are important to the accounting discipline in Higher Education, as they address the 'accounting pipeline'.

The World Economic Forum (2024), cognizant of the fact that technology is accelerating at an unprecedented speed, has acknowledged that education needs to recognize new opportunities and risks and navigate towards an education system that better prepares its students for the future. The same report highlighted that Artificial Intelligence (AI) holds immense potential to "revolutionize teaching methodologies, personalize learning experiences, and streamline administrative processes" (p.3). Thus, it recommends that AI should not replace the role of the teacher but rather enhance it by empowering educators to understand student needs better and foster motivation. Thus, the World Economic Forum (2024, p.4) suggests that educators ought to utilize AI to help students achieve better outcomes in technology skills and facilitate, through their teaching, global citizenship, innovation, technology, and interpersonal skills. It

1 is also suggested in the same report that learning experiences ought to be
2 personalized, self-paced, accessible, problem-based, and based on student-
3 driven learning. Thus, a pedagogical shift is suggested to move away from the
4 traditional teaching of a static staircase to an AI-integrated dynamic scaffolding.

5 Over the years, researchers (Holmes et al., 2019; Holmes & Douglass, 2022;
6 Dawkins, 2023; Dennis, 2023) have commented on the ‘accounting student
7 pipeline’, the weak current state of accounting education, plus perceptions that
8 accounting is a difficult subject. Boyce (2018, 377-379) has documented the
9 meaningful development and reform needs of accounting education, which have
10 remained unchanged for more than 50 years. Sundem (2014) has found that some
11 progress was made in the 1990s and 2000s, but that was isolated to specific
12 universities, thus allowing the ‘crisis in accounting education’ to persist (Gabbin,
13 2002). Hence, a pressing need for accounting education is to meet the needs of
14 society, the profession (Zamaina & Subramanian, 2024), as well as the changing
15 times (Almutiry et al. 2022). As Ballantine et al. (2024) assert, the purpose of
16 higher education to help create critical and creative individuals has been
17 neglected. Educators need to “focus on both technical accounting skills, as part
18 of vocational or professional skill formation and a student-centered humanistic
19 and formative approach to individual development” (p.2). Utilizing AI and
20 making accounting education more engaging and relevant will force educators
21 to enhance the skills and reflexivity required to understand accounting. Thus, as
22 some authors argue (Boyce et al., 2001; Dillard & Vinnari, 2017; Douglas &
23 Gammie, 2019; Ballantine et al., 2024), accounting graduates will need to
24 possess more soft skills, critical as well as judgment skills, and a critical
25 understanding of accounting.

26 Therefore, accounting educators need to address the accounting pipeline by
27 incorporating and aligning technology skills with learning objectives in the
28 accounting curriculum to meet changing business demands (Akbulaev et al.,
29 2021; Vachkova et al., 2022) and enable students to engage holistically in the
30 learning process (Xiao & Foster, 2022).

31 This research is original because it has studied the students’ performance in
32 the introductory subjects of Financial and Management Accounting. Both
33 subjects are compulsory for first-year students in three different majors (Finance,
34 Management, Hospitality) at the public universities of the country investigated.
35 The students’ personality grit was then compared to their individual engagement
36 with the AI teaching tool and to their final mark for each subject. Thus, unlike
37 other researchers (Djatej et al., 2015; Jackling & Calero, 2006; Sadri &
38 Robertson, 1993) who measured factors influencing interest in accounting, or
39 perceptions about the accounting profession (Djatej et al., 2015; Jackling &
40 Calero, 2006; Karlsson & Noela, 2021; Tan & Laswad, 2006), or beliefs about
41 post-graduate employability (Awadallah Elgharbawy, 2020; Kim et al., 2002;
42 Samsuri et al., 2016) this paper is an original contribution to knowledge as it
43 has surveyed student engagement, performance and their personality grit in an
44 effort to establish if dynamic scaffolding can be created to address the above
45 issues.

1 The paper is organized as follows: Section two of the paper will cover the
2 literature review, starting with the theoretical models used to contextualize the
3 study in question, and then moving on to discuss the evolution of education, the
4 pedagogical skill development through AI teaching tools, the use of AI in
5 education, and finally, the use of AI in accounting education. This is followed by
6 the discussion of the four hypotheses developed, which will contribute towards
7 answering the research question. The next section discusses the methodology
8 used, followed by the results and the discussion of the findings. Finally, we
9 conclude with a discussion of the contributions, limitations, and future directions
10 of our research

11 12 13 **Literature Review**

14 15 **Theoretical Framework**

16
17 The integration of AI teaching tools in tertiary education could substantially
18 transform the landscape of learning experiences, providing unique opportunities
19 to understand and enhance non-cognitive skills such as grit and personality
20 factors (Arpaci et al., 2025). A fundamental characteristic of AI systems is their
21 interactive nature. Their use depends importantly on the adaptability of the user.
22 For this reason, a number of studies focus on the relation of the AI tools with
23 personality traits (González-Calatayud et al., 2021; Luo et al., 2025).

24 Grit, a concept introduced by Duckworth and her colleagues (2007)
25 primarily, measured through a 12-item questionnaire by tapping two dimensions:
26 perseverance of effort and consistency of interest. Grit correlated with academic
27 performance among Ivy League undergraduates, with higher GPAs in college
28 and lower SAT scores (see Isenberg et al., 2020; MacCann et al., 2009). Grit
29 proved to be an important index of academic success and personal growth, as it
30 encourages resilience and sustained engagement in challenging tasks
31 (Duckworth et al., 2007; Eisenberg et al., 2014; Kovacevic et al., 2025; Mittal et
32 al., 2024). At the same time, personality dimensions, especially those outlined
33 in the HEXACO model, include honesty, openness to experience, and
34 emotionality, which influence students' learning behaviors, motivation, and
35 persistence (Jia et al., 2022). Ashton and Lee (2009) designed a self-referenced
36 questionnaire measuring six dimensions: (a) honesty-humility, (b) emotionality,
37 (c) extraversion, (d) agreeableness, (e) conscientiousness, and (f) openness to
38 experience (Ashton & Lee, 2007). AI teaching tools offer unparalleled potential
39 to adapt educational content and methodologies to individual differences,
40 tailoring instruction to align with learners' unique personality profiles and levels
41 of grit. These tools employ adaptive learning algorithms, personalized pathways,
42 and real-time analytics to address the specific needs, strengths, and weaknesses
43 of learners, fostering an environment where persistence and self-discipline can
44 thrive. For instance, research has shown that tailoring teachable agents with
45 personality traits can stimulate deeper engagement and enhance learning
46 outcomes in mathematics education by promoting student motivation and

1 commitment. Moreover, educational systems that leverage AI's ability to
2 analyze student behaviors and dynamically respond to their attitudes and
3 personality further cultivate resilience and academic motivation. Accordingly,
4 the intersection of AI teaching tools, grit, and personality factors serves as a
5 promising frontier in education technology, with the capacity to empower
6 students to overcome challenges, persist in their learning journeys, and enhance
7 their overall academic and personal achievements. However, further empirical
8 exploration is required to clarify the underlying mechanisms of these interactions
9 and optimize AI tools for diverse educational settings.

10 Bao (2019) argues that AI can take the form of a combination of any or all
11 of the following: student module, teaching module, and evaluation model. The
12 student module is primarily used by students to facilitate autonomous learning
13 and help them grasp the concepts and learning objectives set by the teacher
14 (Biggs, 1999, 2014). In the process, they may also be asked to complete several
15 questions. Thus, students at this stage learn visually and interactively, and as Bao
16 (2019) notes, this process is innovative and taps into the potential of each
17 student. The teaching module relates to technology-assisted tools available to
18 teachers in developing teaching materials, quizzes, and forms of assessment.
19 Evaluation models also collect information about each student's performance
20 and share it with the teacher. Bao (2019) has concluded that the use of AI in
21 teaching accounting courses can make the "presentation of teaching content
22 more suitable for cognitive characteristics of students and enhance students'
23 understanding of and mastery" (335) of the teaching material. The authors of the
24 current paper, having looked at various AI accounting teaching tools, decided
25 that the one that fits Bao's theoretical model, as well as the World Economic
26 Forum's suggestions mentioned earlier, is the McGraw Connect AI teaching
27 tool. Thus, the authors decided to use this tool for two semesters for the first year
28 of Financial and Management Accounting subjects.

30 **Evolution of Education**

31
32 Holmes and Tuomi (2022, 543) advocated that "the potential of AI for
33 education and learning, and the role of education in developing ...AI literacy" is
34 becoming a hot topic. This is due to the massive global investment in AI
35 technology. To illustrate, in 2021 this investment reached 94 billion US dollars
36 (Statista, 2022).

37 Educators and academics have been aware that students have used essay
38 mills and other 'unorthodox' methods to complete their assigned work. At the
39 same time, AI over the years became a useful tool not only to assist in the
40 teaching process, but it also contributes to a progressive teaching method.
41 Interestingly, many AI systems have been built on 'cognitive teaching' (Holmes
42 & Tuomi, 2022), assuming that the human brain is an information processor.

43 As Hakim et al. (2021) and Verberg et al. (2020) state, AI tools in education
44 have the potential to decrease administrative time, contribute to teacher support,
45 and stimulate new pedagogical and andragogical approaches. Researchers over
46 the years have looked at the use of AI in developing and marking exams (Choi,

1 et al. 2023); operations management of final exams (Trietsch, 2023), as well as
2 the accuracy of the use of AI in assisting in the education of accounting (Wood
3 et al., 2023). Other researchers (Wood et al., 2023) have evaluated ChatGPT and
4 found that this form of AI enables participants to do better on exams when
5 administered in English. However, Wood et al., (2023) noted that ChatGPT
6 appears to have high risks of error and unreliability because (a) it does not
7 recognize it is performing mathematical operations and makes non sensical
8 errors, (b) it provides descriptive explanations for its answers, even though they
9 may have been incorrect, (c) it makes up answers, and (d) it struggles to answer
10 multiple choice questions. Thus, ChatGPT does not appear to be a reliable tool
11 to be used in AI teaching of accounting subjects as it is not trustworthy; however,
12 students consider it a useful tool because it is easy to use (Sundkvist and Kulset,
13 2024).

14

15 **Pedagogical Skill Development through AI teaching tools**

16

17 Casal-Otero et al. (2023) have studied the age-appropriate pedagogies and
18 have found that AI literacy development provides a more holistic learning
19 environment at higher education levels. AI learning objectives address three
20 dimensions because they focus on students': a) cognitive development by
21 synthesizing understanding of concepts, processes, principles, and applications,
22 (b) psychomotor development, and (c) social and emotional development.

23

24 Bao (2019) found that the application of AI in accounting teaching at higher
25 tertiary levels not only optimizes teaching methods but also addresses classroom
26 design, enhances student-teacher interaction, and provides data for teachers to
27 study the students' performance. Furthermore, AI, when used in teaching, can
28 improve the quality and efficiency of financial management professional talents
29 cultivation, reduce human management costs (Qian, 2022), and provide students
30 with the knowledge to adapt to the current economic situation (Cherukuri, et al.,
31 2021).

32

33 As noted by the World Economic Forum (2024, 7) by "integrating AI
34 technologies into educational assessment offers the potential for educators to
35 gain real-time, data- driven insights into students' learning trends, identifying
36 areas of strength and weakness and assessing instructional effectiveness on a
37 large scale". Cai (2022) advocates that because accounting and AI are no longer
38 independent of each other, "accounting majors in colleges and universities
39 should inspire students to become front-line application-oriented talents with
40 innovative and entrepreneurial abilities to meet the needs of society and jobs"
41 (p.9). Thus, the same author claims that if universities wish to adhere to a
42 student-oriented approach, finance and accounting educators need to utilise AI
43 in their teaching to meet the demand and supply of enterprises for financial
44 management talents, promote the improvement of enterprises' financial
45 management level, and accounting reform development.

44

45

1 Use of AI in Education

2
3 Fitria (2021) has noted that there is a need for creativity and innovation in
4 the learning process, and AI is a useful tool to be used in the teaching and
5 learning process. As Fitria explains, when instructors use AI tools, they can
6 “understand student needs more easily and more deeply” while students can
7 “learn according to their needs without encountering difficulties” (p.135). The
8 instructor’s work in correcting, administering quizzes, homework, exams,
9 explaining concepts, and making administrative reports is made more efficient
10 and effective as they can save energy and focus on non-systemic work to “create
11 a golden generation with more character and quality with natural intelligence
12 where robots cannot” (Fitria, 2021:145)

13 Zhang and Zhao (2022) have found that by utilizing AI-assisted education,
14 for accounting courses there is an increase in student participation and
15 performance, an improvement in teaching quality and effectiveness, whilst
16 students tend to be more efficient in completing questions as it takes them 30%
17 less time to complete exercises and students have an 80% chance to complete
18 the questions set for homework. The same authors argue that the traditional
19 mode of teaching, by utilizing a textbook and a blackboard alone, is “restricted
20 to the development of information through time and space” (p.1). In addition to
21 the effectiveness and efficiency achieved if students use AI tools in completing
22 accounting exercises it has been found that when students complete their
23 accounting homework “in a 50-minute session contributed to an improvement in
24 test performance of approximately 27 percentage points; in comparison to
25 students using their textbook and course notes to complete the same homework
26 which improved their test Acc by about 8 percentage points” (Johnson et al.
27 2009: 30)

28 To promote holistic AI literacy, Dai (2025) agrees with Long and Magerko
29 (2020), who suggest integrating plugged and unplugged activities. Plugged
30 activities (Ng et al 2023) employ technologies such as problem-solving
31 exercises, whereas unplugged activities focus on concepts and thinking skills
32 (Lindner et al. 2019). Recent research highlighted that AI-based teaching tools
33 enhance learning outcomes, but their effectiveness is moderated by key
34 personality and cognitive factors (Luo et al., 2025; Wang et al., 2024). Studies
35 (Arpaci et al., 2025; Shepman et al., 2023) demonstrate that students with higher
36 conscientiousness (e.g., self-discipline) and Grit (particularly Perseverance of
37 Effort) engage more deeply with AI tools, leading to greater academic gains.
38 These traits predict consistent tool usage, which in turn improves performance
39 in structured tasks in accounting. Additionally, emotionality may reduce
40 engagement, as highly anxious students tend to avoid AI interfaces. Cognitive
41 factors such as processing speed and working memory further influence how
42 efficiently students adapt to AI-driven feedback. Interestingly, gender and
43 educational background play roles, with females and students in quantitative
44 fields (e.g., Finance) benefiting disproportionately (Brooks et al., 2025). These
45 findings suggest that AI tools do not operate uniformly; instead, their impact
46 cascades through a network of individual differences, where personality and

1 cognitive strengths shape the trajectory of learning success. Future designs
2 should personalize AI interactions based on these psychometric profiles to
3 maximize efficacy.

4 **Use of AI in accounting education**

5
6
7 Zhang and Zhao (2022) have highlighted that the “traditional teaching of
8 financial accounting is complicated due to old-age methods of teaching,
9 simplistic methods of education, and insufficient participation of students” (p.1).
10 These authors have argued that educators ought to increase the students’
11 involvement, enhance the impact of learning, and encourage the quality training
12 of financial accounting talents. These can be achieved through interactive AI
13 teaching tools.

14 Nikolova (2023) acknowledges that accounting is an evolving discipline as
15 it must keep-up with the needs of society, economy, and business. Thus,
16 accountants need to prepare accounting reports which can be the basis for “(a)
17 forming reliable management decisions, (b) economic forecasts and (c)
18 implementation of efficient control over the economic and financial activity”
19 (p144). In addition to those reasons for using AI in accounting education, Hassan
20 et al. (2021) have found that the use of AI in accounting education indicates
21 technology readiness of students, which in turn will lead to a significant
22 influence on technology adoption.

23 Nikolova (2023) notes that along with traditional technical accounting
24 knowledge regarding: (a) the accounting system, (b) accounting documentation
25 and document flow, (c) the process of accounting, (d) evaluation and calculation,
26 (e) double accounting recording, and (f) summarization and systematization of
27 accounting information; complex financial and economic knowledge is also
28 required. The same author advocates that accounting students achieve
29 professional success (OECD, 2022) and develop their critical thinking,
30 communication, and problem-solving skills. The first author of the paper, having
31 taught accounting students for the last three decades, realized that student study
32 time and concentration have been reduced as they devote more time to social
33 media rather than studying, an issue also raised by Dennis (2023) in his
34 accounting student pipeline work. As a result, students need an incentive to be
35 engaged in the subject (Lakshmi et al, 2023). This can be achieved using data
36 visualization, which combines analysis and communication (Malik et al, 2025).

37 Phillips and Graeff (2014) found that accounting students were able to
38 develop deeper learning through a computer-based mechanism accounting
39 simulation. This was possible due to the increased understanding of abstract
40 concepts, which enhanced their confidence in learning the subject knowledge.
41 These findings were more recently supported by Zhang and Zhao (2022). Zhang
42 et al. (2019) studied engineering and accounting students and found that
43 accounting students can gain know-how and knowledge in a short time, when
44 using AI assisted teaching. Thus, creating a ‘smart classroom’ helps educators
45 meet new challenges and improve student abilities and performance. These
46 tools, as Zhang and Zao argue, enable the development of a ‘smart learning

1 system' which helps educators and students work together more effectively by
2 keeping track of each other's progress throughout the lesson; thus, learning
3 becomes more enjoyable for everyone.

4 Researchers over the years (Freire, 1973; Freire, 1998; Laurillard, 2001)
5 have advocated that higher education teaching ought to move students away
6 from shallow learning to deep learning since knowledge is not enough. By
7 utilizing AI accounting teaching tools, educators are tapping into critical
8 pedagogy, enhancing learning, and providing an opportunity to move away from
9 rote learning, regurgitation, and surface learning.

10 As Cano and Troya (2023) have found, AI-based systems can provide not
11 only a more accurate and detailed assessment of student performance through
12 the analysis of patterns in the data provided but can also enable the educator to
13 have specific feedback to help students' improvement. In an "era where support
14 and coaching strategies have become established as indicators of quality, these
15 supports streamline and refine the management of the cabinets or centers
16 dedicated to their implementation" (p. 2).

17 Many studies in educational psychology have found that even the best-
18 designed intelligent AI systems do not lead to superior student performance
19 when compared to situations where students use a textbook to solve problems or
20 answer questions during training (Chi, et al. 2001; Evens & Michael 2006; Katz,
21 Connelly, & Allbritton 2003; Reif & Scott 1999). At the same time, research
22 (Blayney and Freeman, 2008 and Goldwater and Fogarty 2007) has found that
23 AI can be used to "algorithmically generate limitless sets of numerical problems
24 and cases on which students can work and be assessed" (Johnson et al., 2009:32),
25 thus further testing is required. Such systems respond to the student's individual
26 needs; thus, it is not a set of "canned instructions" (Johnson et al. 2009:31).
27 Furthermore, Johnson et al. (2009: 31) in reviewing the literature on AI used in
28 Accounting education have classified AI based systems as " part of a category
29 of educational technology that also includes computer-assisted instruction
30 (Handy 2005), computer-based learning (Halabi 2006; Halabi, Tuovinen, &
31 Farley 2005), computer assisted learning (McDowall and Jackling, 2006) and
32 even hypertext linking (Crandall and Phillips 2002)".

33 The semi-systemic review of the literature undertaken by Tandiano (2023)
34 confirmed that the bulk of publications relating to AI and its impact on
35 accounting education are limited. The same is confirmed by Ballatine et al.
36 (2024), who argue that accounting educators need to ensure their teaching meets
37 the needs of contemporary society since accounting is a difficult subject to pass
38 and not a subject that creates critical and creative individuals, thus this paper will
39 endeavour to address the gap existing in literature.
40

1 **Methodology**

2
3 **Research Objectives**

4
5 The aim of the paper is to investigate if the use of AI teaching tools in
6 undergraduate accounting subjects contributes toward a higher final mark for the
7 students, given a student's personality grit on perseverance of effort thus creating
8 a dynamic scaffolding being created rather than a static staircase.

9 To answer the above research questions four hypotheses have been
10 developed following the literature review.

11
12 H1: Academic performance in accounting subjects improves when using AI
13 teaching tools

14
15 Zhang and Zhao (2022) have found that by utilizing AI-assisted education,
16 for accounting courses there is an increase in student participation and
17 performance. Thus, this research will test if this applies to both Financial and
18 Management Accounting subjects when using the same population.

19
20 H2 Gender has a moderating effect on subject performance using AI teaching Tools

21
22 Fachrurrozie et al. (2025) have found that the gender variable can influence
23 the intention to use AI tools, however there was no moderating effect found
24 between gender and performance. Lu & Chiou, (2010) found that male teachers
25 tend to be more satisfied of online platform studies than female teachers. In
26 addition, it has been found that there are perceptions that males consider the AI
27 tools to be more useful and easier to use, than females (Bajaj et al., 2021).
28 However, there have been no concrete findings regarding gender as a moderating
29 effect on academic performance having used AI teaching tools in accounting.

30
31 H3 There is a relationship between academic merit and the use of AI teaching tools
32 and academic performance

33
34 Researchers (Wecks et al., 2024) have found that the learning progress of
35 students with high learning potential will be harmful if they use AI tools.
36 However, this finding does not relate to students registered in accounting
37 subjects but relates to the impact of students' usage of generative artificial
38 intelligence (GenAI) tools such as ChatGPT on the students' exam performance.
39 However, there is no finding relating to a plugged and unplugged activities that
40 will contribute to a holistic AI literacy (Dai, 2025).

41
42 H4 Personality factors mediate the relationship between AI tool usage and student
43 academic performance

44
45 Fachrurrozie et al. (2025) advocated that AI tools may offer benefits for
46 learning and engagement, particularly to students with lower academic

1 outcomes, however they have not used any cognitive or personality grit testing
2 to determine the correlation between perseverance and academic performance.

3 4 **Materials and Methods**

5
6 In the academic year 2024-2025 for the Financial and Management
7 Accounting subjects, which run over two consecutive semesters, the researchers
8 utilize a textbook published by McGraw which provided AI teaching tools. The
9 tools provided by the publisher can be classified as holistic AI literacy (see Dai,
10 2025 framework) and fulfilled Bao's (2019) theoretical model. The AI tools were
11 both plugged and unplugged (Long and Magerko, 2020; Ng et al 2023; Lindner
12 et al. 2019). As suggested by researchers (Christoper, 1996; Biggs,1999, 2014)
13 teachers ought to initially identify the learning objectives, then the AI tools will
14 design assessments that will motivate and encourage students to be engaged in
15 the subject, an argument also put forward by (Ali et al. 2024). The first author,
16 an accounting professor, identified the learning objectives for each chapter, and
17 the AI educational tools provided a list of questions for each student to complete.
18 If students, when completing the questions, did not get the correct answer, the
19 system would divert the student to the section of the book that related to the
20 question so he/she can do further reading before attempting to answer the
21 question again. Students could have up to three attempts to complete the question
22 and resubmit. The system would mark each weekly assessment and determine
23 the internal assessment (20% of the final mark). It would also identify which
24 learning objectives the instructor needed to revisit based on the students' weekly
25 performance. The system would also generate the midterm (30% of the final
26 mark) and final exam (50% of the final mark) based on the parameters set by the
27 instructor and develop quizzes for students to practice on the same basis as the
28 midterm and final exam.

29 The AI teaching tool used enabled students to have a personalized
30 interactive system, which enabled the creation of an intelligent system capable
31 of learning, reasoning, adapting, and performing tasks, like humans. The
32 information created was stored, analyzed, evaluated and communicated to the
33 instructor to enable him/her to adapt teaching materials. Additionally, this tool
34 navigated the engagement of students and ensured students completed the
35 exercises within the set timeframes as no extensions could have been granted on
36 an individual basis thus, encouraged the students to complete tasks timely
37 without procrastination.

38 All students who registered for the accounting subjects were asked to
39 register on the AI teaching tool. At the same time, ethical clearance from the
40 National Bioethics Committee was sought in February 2025 to enable the current
41 authors to use the personality grit and the students' individual academic
42 performance for the subjects of Financial Accounting and Management
43 Accounting. Both courses are first-year compulsory courses offered in two
44 consecutive semesters for three departments: Finance, Management, and
45 Hospitality. It is worth noting that the entrance scores to those departments vary.
46 Better academic performance students register in the Finance Department, then

1 in Management, and finally in the Hospitality and Tourism Department. Some
2 students were repeating either subject.

3 Given that the relevant literature shows a significant relation between
4 personality factors and academic performance, it was decided to administer a
5 personality test, the HEXACO personality inventory (Lee & Ashton, 2004), to
6 test whether personality factors mediated or moderated the effects of AI-based
7 assessment tool on academic performance. In this vein, we decided to
8 additionally administer the Grit scale (Duckworth et al., 2007), because recent
9 research identifies Grit as a more fine-grained measure of Conscientiousness,
10 increasing the predictive usefulness of this personality factor (Eisenberg et al.,
11 2014; Isenberg et al., 2020; MacCann et al., 2009).

12 13 14 **Results**

15
16 An Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was conducted on the 12-item Grit
17 Scale using Maximum Likelihood (ML) estimation and a promax (oblique)
18 rotation. The suitability of the data for factor analysis was confirmed. The scree
19 plot and model fit statistics supported a two-factor solution, which aligns with
20 the theoretical conception of grit comprising two related but distinct facets. The
21 two-factor solution accounted for 40% of the total variance in the items. The
22 factors were moderately correlated ($r = -0.24$), indicating they measure distinct
23 but related constructs. The pattern matrix of factor loadings revealed a clear,
24 simple structure. Items intended to measure "Consistency of Interests" loaded
25 saliently on the first factor, while items intended to measure "Perseverance of
26 Effort" loaded saliently on the second factor. One item (item11) demonstrated a
27 complex structure, cross-loading on both factors, though more strongly on
28 "Consistency of Interests". Model fit indices suggested the two-factor model
29 provided adequate to good fit to the data. The Root Mean Square Error of
30 Approximation (RMSEA) was 0.048 (90% CI [0.00, 0.08]), and the Tucker-
31 Lewis Index (TLI) was 0.945. The reliability of the factor scores was high, with
32 correlation between scores and factors of 0.91 for both factors.

33 A second EFA was subsequently performed on the 60-item HEXACO
34 personality inventory using ML estimation and a promax rotation to test its
35 hypothesized six-factor structure. The analysis yielded six factors that
36 collectively accounted for 29% of the total variance. The correlation matrix
37 revealed generally low to moderate inter-factor correlations, ranging from $|0.02|$
38 to 0.22, supporting the relative independence of the derived factors. The pattern
39 of factor loadings (see Table 2) provided mixed support for the theoretical
40 structure. While several factors captured their intended constructs, the solution
41 was characterized by a significant number of items with weak, complex, or
42 unexpected loadings. For instance, the first factor was defined by strong loadings
43 from items such as item 53 and item 35, while the second factor was marked by
44 items like 4 and 52. However, many items failed to load saliently on any factor,
45 resulting in low communalities and suggesting a poor fit for the six-factor model
46 in this sample. This interpretation is supported by the model fit indices. The TLI

of 0.592 falls below conventional thresholds for acceptable fit, indicating that the six-factor model does not adequately reproduce the observed correlation matrix. However, the RMSEA of 0.048 (90% CI [0.042, 0.054]) suggests a reasonable error of approximation. Despite the overall poor model fit, the reliability of the derived factor scores was acceptable, with correlations between scores and factors ranging from 0.89 to 0.92. Based on the two EFAs, we estimated the two factors of the Grit scale and the six factors of the HEXACO inventory.

To assess how AI-assisted educational tools influence student outcomes in accounting classes, we performed various statistical analyses using SPSS (Version 28). Preliminary analysis showed that the skewness and kurtosis of all variables ranged between ± 2 . At first, we calculated the intercorrelation matrices between AI-assisted educational tools (AI scores) and academic achievement (Midterm and Final exam scores). We also examined the relationships between academic performance, the two Grit subscales, and the six HEXACO factors.

Hypothesis 1: Relationship Between AI Tool Use and Academic Performance.

Concerning the relation of AI tool usage with academic performance, we estimated the intercorrelation matrix between AI scores (AIscore1 and AIscore2) and exam results (Midterm1, Final1, Midterm2, Final2). The results (Table 1) revealed significant positive correlations between these variables. Specifically, AIscore1 was moderately correlated with Midterm1 ($r = 0.25$, $p < 0.05$) and Final1 ($r = 0.33$, $p < .01$). AIscore1 showed a stronger association with AIscore2 ($r = 0.51$, $p < .01$) but non-significant correlations with Midterm2 and Final2. In addition, a significant correlation was revealed between AIscore2 and Final1 ($r = 0.31$, $p < .01$). These findings suggest that engagement with AI-assisted learning tools is associated with improved academic performance, with more pronounced effects in the first semester (i.e. when Financial Accounting was taught).

Table 1. The intercorrelation matrix between AI scores and exam results

	AIscore1	Midterm1	Final1	AIscore2	Midterm2	Final2
AIscore1	1					
Midterm1	.25*	1				
Final1	.33**	.40**	1			
AIscore2	.51**	.16	.31**	1		
Midterm2	.10	.29**	.35**	-.03	1	
Final2	.05	.22*	.44**	.01	.42**	1

* $p < .05$ (2-tailed), ** $p < .01$ (2-tailed).

The intercorrelation matrix examining academic performance, Grit subscales, and HEXACO factors revealed only three statistically significant associations. Specifically, Midterm scores exhibited a weak correlation with both Grit subscales ($r = 0.18$, $p < 0.01$ for Perseverance of Effort and $r = -0.16$, $p < 0.05$ for Consistency of Interest) and the HEXACO Emotionality factor ($r = -0.15$, $p < .05$).

1 Hypothesis 2: Gender is a moderating effect on subject performance using AI
2 teaching Tools

3
4 Before testing our primary hypotheses, we examined whether male and
5 female students differed on key baseline variables. The sample comprised 99
6 female students (73.9%) and 35 male students (26.1%). Independent samples t-
7 tests revealed no statistically significant sex differences in AI tool engagement
8 during Semester 1 [$t(57.11) = -0.91, p = .365$], or Semester 2, $t(37.79) = 0.71, p$
9 $= .484$]. Similarly, no significant differences were found in personality traits,
10 including Grit [$t(63.29) = -0.91, p = .365$] and conscientiousness, $t(59.90) = 1.34,$
11 $p = .185$].

12 Analysis of academic performance showed comparable midterm and final
13 exam scores between sexes across both semesters. In Semester 1 (Financial
14 Accounting), female students had a mean midterm score of 17.1 (SD = 5.4) and
15 a mean final score of 23.3 (SD = 11.0), while male students had a mean midterm
16 score of 17.5 (SD = 4.8) and a mean final score of 26.2 (SD = 11.3). In Semester
17 2 (Management Accounting), female students had a mean midterm score of 18.1
18 (SD = 4.3) and a mean final score of 31.3 (SD = 7.8), while male students had a
19 mean midterm score of 19.5 (SD = 4.1) and a mean final score of 31.8 (SD =
20 7.3).

21 When examining standardized improvement scores (change in z-scores
22 from midterm to final), no significant sex differences emerged in either Semester
23 1, $t(35.39) = -0.91, p = .368$), or Semester 2 $t(31.28) = 0.74, p = .467$). However,
24 exploratory analysis revealed notable variation in improvement patterns when
25 considering the interaction between sex and academic department (see Table 2).
26

27 *Table 2. Standardized Improvement Scores by Sex and Academic Department*

Sex	Department	n	Semester 1 Improvement (z)	Semester 2 Improvement (z)
Female	HTM	33	-0.26	-0.04
Female	GTM	28	-0.21	0.02
Female	Finance	21	0.51	0.20
Male	HTM	5	-0.65	-0.93
Male	GTM	7	0.76	0.56
Male	Finance	10	0.19	-0.28

28 Note: HTM = Hospitality; GTM = General Management

29
30 Primary Analysis: AI Tool Use and Academic Improvement Controlling for
31 Sex: We next tested our primary hypothesis that AI tool use would predict

1 academic improvement, while controlling for sex, academic department, and
 2 course repetition status. For Semester 1, the regression model was not
 3 statistically significant, $F(4, 99) = 1.95$, $p = .109$, and accounted for 7.3% of the
 4 variance in improvement ($R^2 = .073$). After controlling for sex, AI tool
 5 engagement remained a non-significant predictor of improvement ($\beta = 0.005$, p
 6 $= .821$). The academic department was the only significant predictor in the model
 7 ($\beta = 0.336$, $p = .017$), while sex was not a significant covariate ($\beta = 0.092$, $p =$
 8 $.728$).

9 For Management Accounting (i.e. semester 2), the regression model was
 10 also non-significant, $F(4, 99) = 0.41$, $p = .800$, accounting for only 1.6% of the
 11 variance ($R^2 = .016$). AI tool engagement remained non-significant ($\beta = -0.005$,
 12 $p = .823$), as did sex ($\beta = -0.257$, $p = .349$) and all other predictors. A model
 13 comparison using ANOVA confirmed that adding sex to the baseline model
 14 (which included AI tool use, department, and repetition status) did not
 15 significantly improve model fit for Semester 1, $F(1, 99) = 0.12$, $p = .728$.

16 Moderation Analysis: Testing Sex as a Moderator: We tested whether sex
 17 moderated the relationship between AI tool use and academic improvement. For
 18 Semester 1, the moderation model including the AI tool use \times sex interaction
 19 term was not statistically significant, $F(5, 98) = 1.86$, $p = .109$. The interaction
 20 between AI tool use and sex was non-significant ($\beta = 0.098$, $p = .231$), indicating
 21 that the relationship between AI tool engagement and improvement did not differ
 22 significantly between male and female students. Similarly, for Semester 2, the
 23 moderation model was non-significant, $F(5, 98) = 0.81$, $p = .547$, with a non-
 24 significant AI tool use \times sex interaction ($\beta = -0.082$, $p = .127$).

25 Three-Way Interaction: Sex \times Grit \times AI Tool Use: Given our finding that
 26 Grit moderates the effect of AI tool use on improvement, we tested a
 27 comprehensive three-way interaction model to determine if this moderation
 28 effect itself differed by sex. The model testing the AI tool use \times Grit \times sex
 29 interaction was statistically significant, $F(9, 91) = 2.13$, $p = .034$, and accounted
 30 for 17.4% of the variance in improvement (Adjusted $R^2 = .093$). However, the
 31 three-way interaction term was not statistically significant ($\beta = -0.093$, $p = .590$),
 32 indicating that the moderating effect of Grit on the relationship between AI tool
 33 use and academic improvement does not differ between male and female
 34 students.

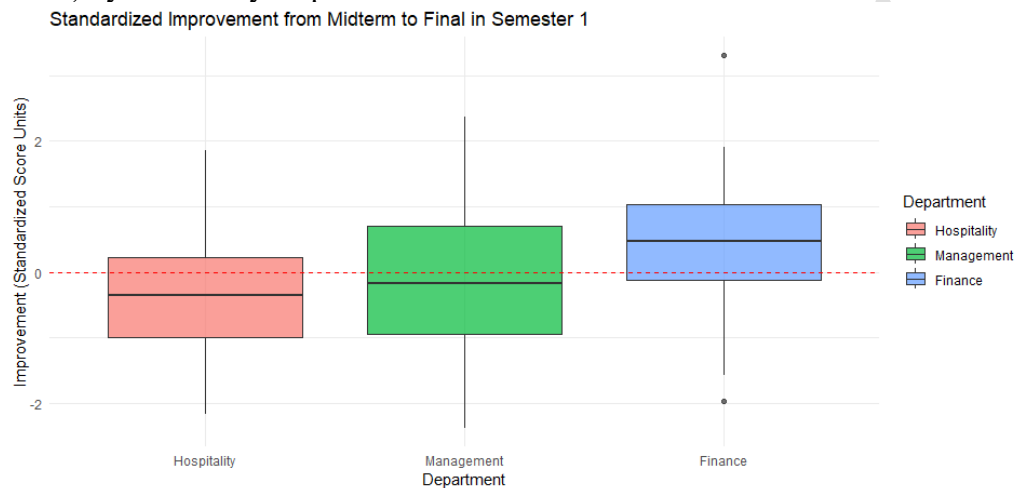
35
 36 Hypothesis 3: There is a relationship between academic merit and the use of AI
 37 teaching tools and academic performance

38
 39 Given that the midterm (worth 30% of the final assessment) and final
 40 examinations (worth 50% of the final assessment) were scored on different
 41 scales (Midterm 1: 0-28.2; Final 1: 0-48; Midterm 2: 7-29; Final 2: 11-45), raw
 42 score comparisons of improvement were not statistically appropriate. To enable
 43 a valid analysis of performance change, student scores were standardized within
 44 each examination (converted to z-scores). This transformation allows for the
 45 interpretation of improvement as a change in a student's relative standing within
 46 the cohort. Additionally, scores were converted to Percentage of Maximum
 47 Possible (POMP) scores, and percentile ranks as robustness checks. The final

1 analytic sample consisted of 104 students across three university departments
 2 (Hospitality [HTM], n=38; General Management [GTM], n=35; Finance, n=31),
 3 with 30 cases excluded due to missing data.

4 Initial analysis revealed no statistically significant mean improvement from
 5 midterm to final examinations at the cohort level in either Semester 1 (Mean Δz
 6 = $1.45e-16$, $p = 1.00$) or Semester 2 (Mean $\Delta z = 2.50e-16$, $p = 1.00$). However,
 7 notable variation in improvement patterns emerged when examining results by
 8 academic department (see Figure 1).

9
 10 *Figure 1.* Standardized Improvement (Final Exam z-score minus Midterm z-
 11 score) by University Department in Semester 1



12 Note: A positive value indicates improvement in relative standing.

13
 14
 15 A one-way ANOVA confirmed that the department a student belonged to be
 16 a significant predictor of improvement in Semester 1, $F(2, 100) = 2.54$, $p = .013$.
 17 Post-hoc comparisons using the fitted linear model indicated that, controlling for
 18 other factors, students in the Finance department showed greater improvement
 19 than those in the Hospitality and Management departments (see Figure 1).

20 To test the primary hypothesis that using the AI assessment tool predicts
 21 academic improvement, two hierarchical linear regression models were
 22 constructed, one for each semester. The outcome variable was the standardized
 23 improvement score (change z). Predictors included the continuous AI
 24 engagement score (AIScore), University department (department), and course
 25 repetition status (repeat2).

26 For Financial Accounting (semester 1), the overall model was marginally
 27 non-significant, $F(3, 100) = 2.58$, $p = .058$, and explained approximately 7.2%
 28 of the variance in improvement ($R^2 = .072$). Contrary to expectations, the AI
 29 engagement score was not a significant predictor of improvement ($\beta = 0.005$, p
 30 = $.812$). The only significant predictor was department ($\beta = 0.343$, $p = .013$). For
 31 Semester 2, the regression model was non-significant, $F(3, 100) = 0.25$, $p = .859$,
 32 and accounted for less than 1% of the variance ($R^2 = .008$). Again, AI
 33 engagement was not a significant predictor of improvement ($\beta = -0.001$, $p =$
 34 $.954$).

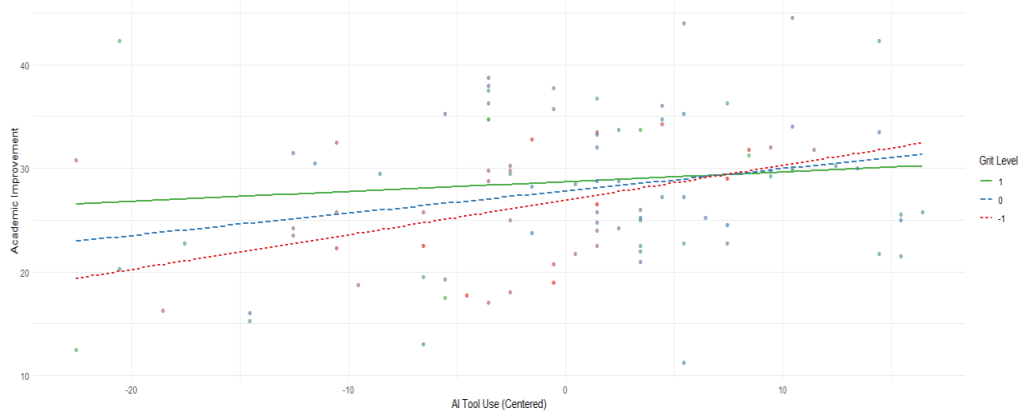
1 Hypothesis 4: Moderating Role of Personality Traits

2
3 Given the non-significant direct effect of AI tool use, we tested whether its
4 effectiveness was moderated by student personality, specifically Grit. A
5 moderation analysis was conducted for Semester 1 data, with standardized
6 improvement as the outcome and the interaction term between Aiscore1 and grit
7 as the predictor, while controlling for department and repetition status.

8 The moderation model was statistically significant, $F(5, 95) = 3.54, p = .006$,
9 and accounted for 15.7% of the variance in improvement ($\text{Adjusted } R^2 = .113$).
10 The analysis revealed a significant main effect of Grit ($\beta = 2.09, p = .002$) and a
11 significant main effect of AI tool use ($\beta = 0.44, p = .002$). Crucially, these main
12 effects were qualified by a significant negative interaction between AI tool use
13 and Grit ($\beta = -0.127, p = .002$).

14 To interpret this interaction, simple slopes were plotted for students with
15 low (1 SD below the mean) and high (1 SD above the mean) levels of Grit (see
16 Figure 2). The analysis indicated that the AI tool was beneficial for students with
17 low Grit ($\beta = 0.44, p = .002$), whereas for students with high Grit, the effect of
18 the AI tool was not significant ($\beta = -0.02, p = .908$). In essence, the AI assessment
19 tool was particularly effective in promoting academic improvement for students
20 who were lower in the personality trait of Grit.

21
22 *Figure 2.* The Moderating Effect of Grit on the Relationship Between AI Tool
23 Use and Academic Improvement in Semester 1. The positive effect of AI tool
24 engagement on improvement is significant only for students low in Grit



25
26
27
28 **Discussion**

29
30 The existing literature (Jonhson et al. 2009; Cano and Troya, 2023) suggests
31 that the use of AI tools can enhance students' engagement and academic
32 performance. This finding, however, was observed primarily in the first semester
33 for the Finance Accounting Course but was not replicated in the second semester
34 for Management Accounting. This discrepancy might indicate that the novelty
35 effect of the AI tool diminished, or students perceived that the effort required for
36 engagement did not proportionally translate to improved grades. Interestingly,

1 no significant difference was noted among repeat students. However, in
2 agreement with Zhang and Zoo (2022), we found that engagement with AI-assisted
3 learning tools is associated with improved academic performance, with more
4 pronounced effects in Financial Accounting than Management Accounting.

5 Further, in agreement with Fachrurrozie et al. (2025), we found that there
6 was no moderating effect between the gender variable, the use of AI teaching
7 tools and academic performance. A particularly interesting finding, contrasting
8 with Wecks et al. (2024), reveals that students with higher academic standing
9 (e.g., Finance students) experienced a significant improvement in academic
10 performance in Semester 1, but not in Semester 2, across both accounting
11 subjects when utilizing the AI teaching tool, as opposed to students with lower
12 academic standing (e.g., Hospitality students).

13 Finally, a significant contribution of this study is the observation that
14 students with lower grit—specifically a reduced level of perseverance of effort—
15 demonstrated significantly better academic performance when using the AI
16 teaching tool compared to their counterparts with higher grit. Thus, for students
17 with low grit, the AI tool was highly beneficial acting as an ‘intelligent
18 scaffolding’ that enforced timeframes and discouraged procrastination. For
19 high-grit students, the tool’s effect was non-significant, as they likely possess the
20 internal discipline to succeed independently. The finding can be referred to as
21 the “grit paradox” in this study since it describes a significant and
22 counterintuitive interaction between a student’s level of personality grit and their
23 engagement with the AI teaching tools. While grit is traditionally a positive
24 predictor of academic success, the sources reveal that AI tools provided the
25 greatest academic benefit to students with low grit.

26 27 28 **Conclusions, Policy Implications and study Limitations** 29

30 A primary limitation of this study is the rather small sample size, comprising
31 of 104 participants, which necessitates replication with a larger cohort to validate
32 the findings. Despite this, the conclusions drawn are reliable and do not relate to
33 perceptions but actual findings because the students included in the analysis
34 were: (a) registered in both Financial and Management Accounting, (b)
35 completed the Personal Grit, and (c) agreed for their personal information (i.e.
36 final marks) to be used for the study.

37 The authors are aware that students may be answering the personality and
38 grit questionnaires randomly; thus, to address this, the researchers calculated
39 Cronbach’s α for all scales, and respondents whose answers significantly
40 lowered the reliability were excluded. In addition, they looked for patterned
41 responses across the data; all unreliable responses were excluded. Another
42 potential limitation, where students might have outsourced the grit scale, was
43 mitigated by administering the scale in class, requiring completion and
44 submission before students left the room. Some students opted not to provide
45 their identity numbers, which precluded the use of their final marks and

1 prevented comparison of grit with AI usage and academic performance,
2 consequently reducing the sample size.

3 Finally, the limited temporal and geographic scope of the research may
4 affect the generalizability of the results. Thus, this study is suggested to be
5 exploratory and worth replicating with a bigger sample.

6 Thus, the use of AI teaching tools create a bimodal benefit of intelligent
7 scaffolding by: (a) the accelerator on one side targeting students with high
8 academic merit and uncapping the ceiling for those top performers and (b)
9 creating a safety net for low-grit/ unengaged students through adaptive loops
10 which prevent failure fatigue thus raising the floor for vulnerable students.
11 Hence, AI does not operate uniformly, its impact cascades through a network of
12 individual differences, serving entirely different pedagogical functions based on
13 psychometric profiles.

14 In conclusion, the superpower of AI in accounting education is not making
15 exams easier, nor is it merely automating the grading process. It is providing an
16 intelligent, tireless scaffold that uniquely rescues the students who are most
17 likely to give up.

20 Acknowledgments

21
22 The authors would like to thank the students who agreed to participate in
23 the study.

25 References

- 26
27 Akbulaev, N., Mammadov, I., & Shahbazli, S. (2021). Accounting education in the
28 universities and structuring according to the expectations of the business world.
29 *Universal Journal of Accounting and Finance*, 9(1), 130–137. <https://doi.org/10.13189/ujaf.2021.090114>
30
31 Ali Abusalem, Bennett L. & Antonelou-Abusalem D. (2024), Engaging and Retaining
32 Students in Online Learning Athens Journal of Education - Volume 11, Issue 1: 51-
33 70
34 Almutiry Muhnnad, Alshehri M.Y & Sayed G(2022) Diffusion of High Impact
35 Educational Practices at a Saudi University, Athens Journal of Education - Volume
36 9, Issue 3:413-428
37 Arpaci, I., Kuşci, I. & Gibreel, O. (2025). The role of personality traits in predicting
38 educational use of generative AI in higher education. *Scientific Reports*, 15, 30440.
39 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-025-16339-0>.
40 Ashton M. C., Lee K. (2007). Empirical, theoretical, and practical advantages of the
41 HEXACO model of personality structure. *Personality and Social Psychology*
42 *Review*, 11(2), 150–166. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1088868306294907>.
43 Ashton, M. C., and Lee, K. (2009). The HEXACO–60: a short measure of the major
44 dimensions of personality. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 91, 340–345. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00223890902935878>.
45
46 Awadallah, E., & Elgharbawy, A. (2020). Utilizing the theory of reasoned action in
47 understanding students' choice in selecting accounting as major. *Accounting*
48 *Education*, 30(1), 86–106. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09639284.2020.1811992>

- 1 Bajaj, P., Khan, A., Tabash, M. I., & Anagreh, S. (2021). Teachers' intention to continue
2 the use of online teaching tools post Covid-19. *Cogent Education*, 8(1).
3 <https://doi.org/10.1080/2331186X.2021.2002130>.
- 4 Ballantine, J., Boyce, G., Stoner, G. (2024). A critical review of AI in accounting
5 education: Threat and opportunity, *Critical Perspective on Accounting*, 99, 102711.
6 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cpa.2024.102711>.
- 7 Bao, W. (2019). Research on the Application of Artificial Intelligence Technology in
8 Accounting Teaching Colleges, *Advances in Social Science, Education and*
9 *Humanities Research*, V. 322, 333-335.
- 10 Biggs, J. (1999). What the Student Does: teaching for enhanced learning. *Higher*
11 *Education Research & Development*, 18(1), 57-75.
12 <https://doi.org/10.1080/0729436990180105>
- 13 Biggs, J. (2014). Constructive alignment in university teaching. *HERDSA Review of*
14 *Higher Education*, 1, 5-22.
- 15 Blayney, P., and Freeman, M. (2008). Individualised interactive formative assessments
16 to promote independent learning. *Journal of Accounting Education*,
17 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jaccedu.2008.01.001>
- 18 Boyce G. (2018). Accounting education, In R. Roslender (Ed.), *The Routledge*
19 *Companion to Critical Accounting*, pp. 376-393. Routledge.
- 20 Boyce, G., Williams, S., Kelly, A., & Yee, H. (2001). Fostering deep and elaborative
21 learning and generic (soft) skill development: the strategic use of case studies in
22 accounting education. *Accounting education*, 10(1), 37-60.
23 [10.1080/09639280121889](https://doi.org/10.1080/09639280121889).
- 24 Brooks, C., Schopohl, L., Tao, R., Walker, J., Zhu, M. (2025). The female finance
25 penalty: Why are women less successful in academic finance than related fields?,
26 *Research Policy*, 54(4), 105207, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.respol.2025.105207>.
- 27 Cai, C. (2022), Training Mode of Innovative Accounting Talents in Colleges Using
28 Artificial Intelligence. *Mobile Information Systems*, 6516658.
29 <https://doi.org/10.1155/2022/6516658>.
- 30 Cano, C. A. G and Troya, A. L. C. (2023). Artificial Intelligence applied to teaching and
31 learning processes, *LatIA*. 1(2), <https://doi.org/10.62486/latia20232>.
- 32 Casal-Otero, L., Catala, A., Fernández-Morante, C. et al. (2023), AI literacy in K-12: a
33 systematic literature review. *International Journal of STEM Education*, 10, 29.
34 <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40594-023-00418-7>
- 35 Cherukuri, A. K., Jonnalagadda, A., and Murugesan, S. (2021). AI in education:
36 applications & impact, *Cutter IT Journal*, 34(5), 26-33.
- 37 Chi, M. T. H., Siler, S., Jeong, H., Yamauchi, T., & Hausmann, R. G. (2001). Learning
38 from human tutoring. *Cognitive Science*, 25, 471-533.
- 39 Choi, J. H., Hickman, K. E., and Monahan, A., and Schwarcz, D. (2023). ChatGPT Goes
40 to Law School. *Journal of Legal Education*, 387, Available at
41 SSRN: <https://ssrn.com/abstract=4335905> or <http://dx.doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.4335905>
- 42 [05](https://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.4335905)
- 43 Crandall, D. & Phillips, F. (2002). Using hypertext in instructional material: Helping
44 students link accounting concept knowledge to case applications. *Issues in*
45 *Accounting Education*, 17(2), 163-183
- 46 Dai, Y. (2025). Integrating unplugged and plugged activities for holistic AI education:
47 An embodied constructionist pedagogical approach. *Education and Information*
48 *Technologies*, 30, 6741-6764. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10639-024-13043-w>.

- 1 Dillard, J., Vinnari, E. (2017). A case study of critique: Critical perspectives on critical
2 accounting, *Critical Perspectives on Accounting*, 43, 88-109,
3 doi.org/10.1016/j.cpa.2016.09.004.
- 4 Djatej, A., Chen, Y., Eriksen, S., & Zhou, D. (2015). Understanding students' major
5 choice in accounting: An application of the theory of reasoned action. *Global*
6 *Perspectives on Accounting Education*, 12, 53–72.
- 7 Douglas, S., Gammie, E. (2019). An investigation into the development of non-technical
8 skills by undergraduate accounting programmes, *Accounting Education*, 28 (3).
9 304-332, 10.1080/09639284.2019.1605532.
- 10 Duckworth, A.L., Peterson, C., Matthews, M.D., & Kelly, D.R. (2007). Grit:
11 Perseverance and passion for long-term goals. *Journal of Personality and Social*
12 *Psychology*, 9, 1087-1101. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.92.6.1087>.
- 13 Eisenberg, N., Duckworth, A. L., Spinrad, T. L., & Valiente, C. (2014).
14 Conscientiousness: Origins in childhood? *Developmental Psychology*, 50, 1331–
15 1349. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/a0030977>.
- 16 Evens, M., and Michael, J. (2000). *One-on-one tutoring by humans and machines*.
17 Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
- 18 Fachrurrozie, F., Santoso, J.T.B., Mukhibad H., & Wolor, C. W. (2025). Exploring the
19 use of artificial intelligence in Indonesian accounting classes, *Cogent Education*,
20 12:1, 2448053, <https://doi.org/10.1080/2331186X.2024.2448053>.
- 21 Fitria, T. N. (2021). *Artificial Intelligence (AI) in Education: Using AI Tools for*
22 *Teaching and Learning Process*. Prosiding Seminar Nasional & Call for Paper
23 STIE AAS, Surakarta, 134-147.
- 24 Freire P. (1973). *Education for Critical Consciousness*, Seabury Press.
- 25 Freire, P. (1998). *Pedagogy of Freedom: Ethics, Democracy, and Civic Courage* (P.
26 Clarke, Trans.). Rowman & Littlefield.
- 27 Gabbin A.L. (2002). The crisis in accounting education, *Journal of Accountancy*,
28 193(4), 81-86.
- 29 Goldwater, P. M., and Fogarty, T. J. (2007). Protecting the solution: A “high-tech”
30 method to guarantee individual effort in accounting classes. *Accounting Education:*
31 *An International Journal*, 16(2), 129-143.
- 32 González-Calatayud, V., Prendes-Espinosa, P., Roig-Vila, R. (2021). Artificial
33 Intelligence for Student Assessment: A Systematic Review. *Applied Sciences*, 11,
34 5467. <https://doi.org/10.3390/app1112546>.
- 35 Hakim, L., Eynon, R., and Murphy, V. A. (2021). The ethics of using digital trace data
36 in education: A thematic review of the research landscape. *Review of Educational*
37 *Research*, 91(5), 671–717. <https://doi.org/10.3102/00346543211020116>
- 38 Halabi, A. K. (2006). Applying an instructional learning efficiency model to determine
39 the most efficient feedback for teaching introductory accounting. *Global*
40 *Perspectives on Accounting Education*, 3(1), 93-113.
- 41 Halabi, A. K., Tuovinen, J. E., and Farley, A. A. (2005). The cognitive load of computer-
42 based learning materials for introductory accounting, *Issues in Accounting*
43 *Education*, 20, 21-32.
- 44 Handy, S. A. (2005), An exploratory study of learner use of a computerized accounting
45 tutorial. *Information Technology, Learning, and Performance Journal*, 23(2), 17-
46 31.
- 47 Hassan D. & Anwar Salimi (2021) Mediating effect of use perceptions on technology
48 readiness and adoption of artificial intelligence in accounting, *Accounting*
49 *Education*, 30:2, 107-130. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09639284.2021.1872035>
- 50 Holmes, A.F, and Douglass A. (2022). Artificial Intelligence: Reshaping the
51 Accounting Profession and the Disruption to Accounting Education. *Journal of*

- 1 *Emerging Technologies in Accounting*; 19 (1): 53–
2 68. <https://doi.org/10.2308/JETA-2020-054>
- 3 Holmes, W., Bialik, M., & Fadel, C. (2019). Artificial intelligence in Education:
4 Promises and implications for teaching & learning. The Center for Curriculum
5 Redesign,
6 [https://www.researchgate.net/publication/332180327_Artificial_Intelligence_in_](https://www.researchgate.net/publication/332180327_Artificial_Intelligence_in_Education_Promise_and_Implications_for_Teaching_and_Learning)
7 [Education_Promise_and_Implications_for_Teaching_and_Learning](https://www.researchgate.net/publication/332180327_Artificial_Intelligence_in_Education_Promise_and_Implications_for_Teaching_and_Learning) [accessed 2
8 June 2025]
- 9 Holmes, W., & Tuomi, I. (2022). State of the art and practice in AI in
10 education. *European Journal of Education*, 57, 542–
11 570. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ejed.12533>
- 12 Isenberg, G., Brown, A., DeSantis, J., Veloski, J., Hojat, M. (2020). The relationship
13 between grit and selected personality measures in medical students. *International*
14 *Journal of Medical Education*, 11, 25-30. <https://doi.org/10.5116/ijme.5e01.f32d>.
- 15 Jackling, B., & Calero, C. (2006). Influences on undergraduate students' intentions to
16 become qualified accountants: Evidence from Australia. *Accounting Education: An*
17 *International Journal*, 15(4), 419–438.
18 <https://doi.org/10.1080/09639280601011115>.
- 19 Jia, R., Bahoo, R., Cai, Z., and Jahan, M. (2022). The Hexaco Personality Traits of
20 Higher Achievers at the University Level. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 13, 881491.
21 <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2022.881491>
- 22 Johnson, B. G., Phillips, F. and Chase, L. G. (2009). An intelligent tutoring system for
23 the accounting cycle: Enhancing textbook homework with artificial intelligence,
24 *Journal of Accounting Education*, 27, 30-39, DOI: [10.2139/ssrn.1151791](https://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.1151791).
- 25 Karlsson, P., & Noela, M. (2021). Beliefs influencing students' career choices in Sweden
26 and reasons for not choosing the accounting profession. *Journal of Accounting*
27 *Education*, 58, 100756. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jaccedu.2021.100756>.
- 28 Katz, S., Connelly, J., and Allbritton, D. (2003), Going beyond the problem given: How
29 human tutors use post-solution discussions to support transfer. *International*
30 *Journal of Artificial Intelligence in Education*, 13, 79–116.
- 31 Kim, D., Markham, F. S., & Cangelosi, J. D. (2002). Why students pursue business
32 degrees: A comparison of business majors across universities. *Journal of Education*
33 *for Business*, 78(1), 28– 32. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08832320209599694>.
- 34 Kovacevic, M., Dagen, T., & Rajter, M. (2025). Leading AI-Driven Student
35 Engagement: The Role of Digital Leadership in Higher Education. *Education*
36 *Sciences*, 15(6), 775. <https://doi.org/10.3390/educsci15060775>.
- 37 Lakshmi, A. J., Kumar, A., Kumar, M. S., Patel, S. I., Naik, S. K. L., & Ramesh, J. V.
38 N. (2023). Artificial intelligence in steering the digital transformation of
39 collaborative technical education. *The Journal of High Technology Management*
40 *Research*, 34(2), 100467. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hitech.2023.100467>
- 41 Laurillard, D. (2001). *Rethinking University Teaching: A Conversational Framework*
42 *for the Effective Use of Learning Technologies*, Taylor and Francis
- 43 Lee, K., & Ashton, M. C. (2004) Psychometric Properties of the HEXACO Personality
44 Inventory, *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, 39:2, 329-358.
45 https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327906mbr3902_8.
- 46 Lu, H. P., & Chiou, M. J. (2010). The impact of individual differences on e-learning
47 system satisfaction: A contingency approach. *British Journal of Educational*
48 *Technology*, 41(2), 307–323. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8535.2009.00937.x>
- 49 Luo, J., Zheng, C., Yin, J. *et al.* (2025). Design and assessment of AI-based learning
50 tools in higher education: a systematic review. *International Journal of*

- 1 *Educational Technology in High Education*, 22, 42.
 2 <https://doi.org/10.1186/s41239-025-00540-2>.
- 3 MacCann, C., Duckworth, A. L., & Roberts, R. D. (2009). Empirical identification of
 4 the major facets of conscientiousness. *Learning and Individual Differences*, 19,
 5 451–458. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.lindif>
- 6 Malik, B. F., Du, N., & Lin, H. (2025). Incorporating visualization into introductory
 7 accounting courses to increase students' interests in accounting. *Accounting*
 8 *Education*. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09639284.2025.2592149>.
- 9 McDowall, T., and Jackling, B. (2006). The impact of computer-assisted learning on
 10 academic grades: An assessment of students' perceptions, *Accounting Education:*
 11 *An International Journal*, 15(4), 377-389.
- 12 Mittal, U., Sai, S., Chamola, V., & Sangwan, D. (2024). A Comprehensive Review on
 13 Generative AI for Education. *IEEE Access*, 12, 142733-142759.
 14 <https://doi.org/10.1109/access.2024.3468368>.
- 15 OECD (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development), (2023), *PISA 2022*
 16 *Results (Volume I): The State of Learning and Equity in Education*.
 17 [https://www.oecd.org/en/publications/pisa-2022-results-volume-i_53f23881-](https://www.oecd.org/en/publications/pisa-2022-results-volume-i_53f23881-en.html)
 18 [en.html](https://www.oecd.org/en/publications/pisa-2022-results-volume-i_53f23881-en.html) [Accessed 2 June 2025]
- 19 Omar Alexis Larios Soldevilla, Verónica Mendoza Ibarra, Julio Ricardo Moscoso
 20 Cuaresma, Rosella Urdanegui Sibina, Dan Stone, Annel Huamani Cerrón &
 21 Enrique Aroldo Pretell Pintado (2025) Transforming accounting education:
 22 integrating technological, soft and research skills in education, *Cogent Education*,
 23 12:1, 2478304, DOI: 10.1080/2331186X.2025.2478304
- 24 Phillips, M. E. & Graeff, T. R. (2014). Using an in-class simulation in the first
 25 accounting class: moving from surface to deep learning. *Journal of Education for*
 26 *Business*, 89(5), 241–247. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08832323.2013.863751>
- 27 Qian, Y. (2022). Research on the construction of a talent training mode for artificial
 28 intelligence specialty in local colleges and universities, *Journal of Contemporary*
 29 *Educational Research*, 6(1), pp. 1–6.
- 30 Sadri, G., & Robertson, I. T. (1993). Self-efficacy and work-related behavior: A review
 31 and meta- analysis. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 42(2), 139–152.
 32 <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1464-0597.1993.tb00728.x>
- 33 Samsuri, A., Arifin, T., & Hussin, S. (2016). Perception of undergraduate accounting
 34 students towards professional accounting career. *International Journal of*
 35 *Academic Research in Accounting, Finance and Management Sciences*, 6(3), 78–
 36 88. <https://doi.org/10.6007/IJARAFMS/v6-i3/2173>.
- 37 Statista (2022). *Total global AI investment 2015–2021*. [https://www.stati](https://www.statista.com/statistics/941137/ai-investment-and-funding-worldwide/)
 38 [sta.com/statistics/941137/ai-investment-](https://www.statista.com/statistics/941137/ai-investment-and-funding-worldwide/)
 39 [and-funding-worldwide/](https://www.statista.com/statistics/941137/ai-investment-and-funding-worldwide/). [Accessed 2
 40 June 2025]
- 40 Sundem G. L. (2014), Fifty years of change in accounting education: The influence of
 41 institutions, In R.M.S. Wilson (Ed.), *The Routledge Companion to Accounting*
 42 *Education*, Routledge, pp. 611-631
- 43 Sundkvist C. H., and Kulset E. M. (2024) Teaching accounting in the era of ChatGPT-
 44 The student perspective, *Journal of Accounting Education*, 69(5),
 45 DOI: [10.1016/j.jaccedu.2024.100932](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jaccedu.2024.100932)
- 46 Tandiano, R. (2023). The Impact of Artificial Intelligence on Accounting Education: A
 47 Review of Literature, E3S Web of Conferences 426, 02016 (2023)
 48 <https://doi.org/10.1051/e3sconf/202342602016>, ICOBAR 2023
- 49 Vachkova, S. N., Petryaeva, E. Y., Tsyrenova, M. G., Shukshina, L. V., Krashennnikova,
 50 N. A., & Leontev, M. G. (2022). Competitive higher education teacher for the

- 1 digital world. *Contemporary Educational Technology*, 14(4), ep391.
 2 <https://doi.org/10.30935/cedtech/12553>
- 3 Wang, S., Wang, F., Zhu, Z., Wang, J., Tran, T., Du, Z. (2024). Artificial intelligence in
 4 education: A systematic literature review, *Expert Systems with Applications*,
 5 252(A), 124167. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eswa.2024.124167>.
- 6 Wecks, J. O., Voshaar, J., Plate, B. J., & Zimmermann, J. (2024). Generative AI usage
 7 and academic performance. *SSRN Electronic Journal*.
 8 <https://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.4812513>
- 9 Wood, D. A., Achhpilia, M. P., Adams, M. T., Margolin, M., & et al. (2023). The
 10 ChatGPT Artificial Intelligence Chatbot: How Well Does It Answer Accounting
 11 Assessment Questions? *Issues in Accounting Education*, 38(4), 81-108.
 12 <https://doi.org/10.2308/issues-2023-013>
- 13 World Economic Forum (2024), *Shaping the Future of Learning: The Role of AI in*
 14 *Education 4.0*, https://www.weforum.org/publications/shaping-the-future-of-learning-the-role-of-ai-in-education-4-0/?gad_source=1&gad_campaignid=22234048793&gbraid=0AAAAAoVy5F5v7hyvTseisEXthMHraMoZc&gclid=Cj0KCOjw_8rBBhCFARIsAJrc9yD-gQmVRz3jb7JfpuvNHpHBmD4P3tOmDjbj9yIKkcjhLe_g_U1U6p0aAqwbEALw_wcB [Accessed 2 June 2025]
- 15
 16
 17
 18
 19
- 20 Xiao, L., & Foster, T. (2024). Undergraduate accounting and finance students'
 21 perception of an individualised assignment: an exploratory case study. *Cogent*
 22 *Education*, 11(1). <https://doi.org/10.1080/2331186X.2023.2290220>.
- 23 Zamaina, N. S, and Subramanian, U. (2024). The Impact of Artificial Intelligence in the
 24 Accounting Profession, The 14th International Symposium on Frontiers in
 25 Ambient and Mobile Systems (FAMS 2024)April 23-25, 2024, Hasselt, Belgium,
 26 https://www.researchgate.net/publication/382087906_The_Impact_of_Artificial_Intelligence_in_the_Accounting_Profession [Accessed 2 June 2025]
- 27
 28 Zhang, A. and Zhao, Y. (2022). Future Challenges of Accounting Education in China
 29 Using Artificial Intelligence Assisted Multimedia Based Smart Accounting
 30 System, *ACM Transactions on Asian and Low-Resource Language Information*
 31 *Processing*, <https://doi.org/10.1145/3517914>Zhao H; She J. Li Z, Rong H, He X an
 32 Bian N (2019), A Research on the Education Mode of Innovative Software Talents
 33 Oriented to Emerging Engineering. *14th International Conference on computer*
 34 *Science and Education (ICCSE)* (pp 959-963) IEEE