

Career Preparation and Employability Readiness among Final-Year Students in Zhejiang, China: A Descriptive Survey

Cai Xuan¹, Ayesha Nawal^{2*}, Asad Ur Rehman³, Raja Irfan Sabir⁴, Sultan Rehman Sherief⁵

¹Management and Science University, University Drive, Off Persiaran Olahraga, 40100, Shah Alam, Malaysia, ORCID: 0009-0000-9443-8094

²Management and Science University, University Drive, Off Persiaran Olahraga, 40100, Shah Alam, Malaysia, ORCID: 0000-0002-3769-518X

³Management and Science University, University Drive, Off Persiaran Olahraga, 40100, Shah Alam, Malaysia, ORCID: 0000-0001-7623-2754

⁴University of Central Punjab, Pakistan, ORCID: 0000-0001-8982-0029

⁵Faculty of business management and professional studies (FBMP), Management and Science University, University Drive, Off Persiaran Olahraga, 40100, Shah Alam, Malaysia

Corresponding Author : Ayesha Nawal

ABSTRACT: Career preparation has become a central responsibility of higher education, yet many employability studies move quickly from broad conceptual models to predictive mechanisms. This article takes a narrower and more descriptive route. It extracts a non-overlapping sub-study from a doctoral survey on graduate employability and asks what the career readiness profile of final-year students looks like in a digitally developed region of China. Using survey data from 521 final-year students in Zhejiang Province, the paper describes students' institutional background, field of study, job-search participation, access to digital tools, and self-rated readiness indicators. The results show that career activity was high: 72.55% of respondents were already applying for jobs or attending career fairs, and a further 8.25% planned to do so within three months. However, access to digital tools and internet connectivity was uneven, with 56.05% rating their access as fair, poor, or very poor. Mean scores for cognitive competencies, social competencies, behavioural competencies, digital literacy, resilience, and perceived employability were all above the scale midpoint, but resilience had the lowest mean score ($M = 3.540$, $SD = 1.030$), followed by digital literacy ($M = 3.666$, $SD = 0.980$). These findings suggest that active job seeking should not be equated with full employability readiness. For ordinary career education practice, universities should combine career events with targeted support for digital access, digital confidence, and psychological readiness.

KEYWORDS: employability readiness; career preparation; final-year students; digital access; higher education; Zhejiang Province

1. INTRODUCTION

Graduate employability is now treated as a major concern in higher education policy and institutional practice. Universities are expected to help students move from academic study into labour markets that are unstable, digitalised, and increasingly dependent on self-directed career development. This expectation has created an extensive literature on employability, including debates about whether employability should be considered a core role of higher education and how it can be cultivated without reducing university learning to narrow job training (Tight, 2023; Yorke, 2006).

Much of this literature focuses on competencies, graduate capital, self-perceived employability, work-integrated learning, career management, and digital skills (Rothwell & Arnold, 2007; Tomlinson, 2017). Such work is valuable because employability is not simply the possession of a degree. It includes students' confidence, social resources, career identity, ability to communicate capability, and capacity to adapt to new labour-market demands. Recent studies also show that participation in employability-building activities can contribute to graduate outcomes, although students do not benefit equally from these activities (Jackson et al., 2024).

Career Preparation and Employability Readiness among Final-Year Students in Zhejiang, China: A Descriptive Survey

The digital economy has made career preparation more complex. Students increasingly search for work through online platforms, attend hybrid recruitment events, prepare digital portfolios, and use communication technologies to engage with employers. Digital competence frameworks describe digital competence as a combination of information, communication, content creation, safety, and problem-solving capabilities (Vuorikari et al., 2022). In higher education, digital literacy is linked not only to technical tool use but also to students' ability to learn, collaborate, evaluate information, and participate in digital environments (Gutiérrez-Ángel et al., 2022; Ng, 2012). Employer-focused research similarly indicates that digital skill gaps can influence graduate employability (Tee et al., 2024).

Zhejiang Province provides a useful context for examining these issues. The province is strongly associated with e-commerce, digital platforms, smart manufacturing, and online business ecosystems. Final-year students in this setting are likely to encounter digitally mediated job searching and digitally framed expectations of employability. However, before testing complex explanatory models, there is value in asking a simpler descriptive question: What does students' career preparation profile actually look like?

This descriptive question is not secondary or merely preliminary. Institutions often make career-support decisions from visible signals: attendance at a career fair, number of students submitting applications, number of workshops delivered, or number of employers invited to campus. These indicators are useful for management reporting, but they may not reveal whether students feel prepared to use digital tools, communicate capability, recover from rejection, or adapt to changing job requirements. A student can be highly active in job searching while still lacking the conditions that make that activity productive.

This article answers that question. Unlike the previous mechanism-focused article extracted from the same doctoral project, this paper does not test mediation, moderation, or a structural pathway model. Its purpose is to provide a descriptive profile of final-year students' career activity, digital access, and employability readiness indicators. The central argument is that career activity and employability readiness should be distinguished. Students may be actively applying for work or attending career fairs while still needing support with digital access, digital confidence, and psychological resilience.

2. LITERATURE BACKGROUND

Employability is often defined more broadly than employment itself. Employment refers to obtaining work, whereas employability refers to the capability and perceived capacity to obtain, maintain, and adapt within work over time (Rothwell & Arnold, 2007; Yorke, 2006). This distinction is important for final-year students because many have not yet entered stable employment but are already making judgements about their readiness. Perceived employability is therefore a meaningful indicator of transition confidence, although it should not be treated as proof of later job attainment.

Graduate employability also involves multiple forms of resource. Tomlinson's (2017) graduate capital framework, for example, emphasises human, social, cultural, identity, and psychological capital. From this perspective, career readiness is not merely a list of skills. It is the ability to mobilise educational, social, personal, and psychological resources in ways that support labour-market transition. This view is useful for the present article because it suggests that job-search participation alone may not capture the full readiness profile of students.

Career events and employability-building activities remain important. Career fairs, internships, work experience, employer talks, portfolio development, and career guidance can help students acquire labour-market information and practise professional self-presentation. Stonebraker et al. (2019) showed that students' use of information at career fairs is itself a learning process, not only a recruitment encounter. Jackson et al. (2024) similarly emphasised that student participation in employability-building activities can contribute to graduate outcomes, although barriers and unequal participation matter.

Digital access adds another layer to this discussion. Digital literacy cannot develop fully when students lack stable access to devices, connectivity, or digitally supportive learning environments. Although access does not guarantee capability, insufficient access can constrain learning, job search, and professional communication. In a digital labour market, students with weak access may be disadvantaged even if they are motivated to prepare for work. Research on digital literacy in higher education has therefore moved beyond basic technical competence to include information evaluation, collaboration, communication, and confidence in digital settings (Gutiérrez-Ángel et al., 2022; Martzoukou et al., 2023).

Psychological readiness also deserves attention. Career transition often involves rejection, uncertainty, social comparison, and repeated adaptation. Resilience, commonly understood as the capacity to recover and continue functioning under difficulty, is therefore relevant to students' readiness for employment transition (Connor & Davidson, 2003). Recent employability research has also considered future work self, confidence, and psychological resources as part of student employability development (Chen et al., 2023; Ma et al., 2024). For career services, this means that a student who is active in job searching may still need emotional and strategic support.

Career Preparation and Employability Readiness among Final-Year Students in Zhejiang, China: A Descriptive Survey

The present article brings these strands together in a descriptive way. It does not ask which variable causes another variable. Instead, it asks whether final-year students' observed profile suggests a practical mismatch between career activity and readiness resources.

Descriptive employability research has a practical role because employability problems are often institutional before they become statistical. A university may need to know whether students are active, whether digital conditions are uneven, whether students' self-rated readiness is balanced across domains, and which readiness domain appears weakest. These questions do not require causal modelling, but they do require careful reporting. A descriptive profile can therefore serve as a diagnostic bridge between a broad employability strategy and targeted support design.

3. METHOD

3.1 Research Design

The study used a quantitative, cross-sectional survey design. This article reports a descriptive sub-study extracted from the first five chapters of a doctoral dissertation on graduate employability in Zhejiang Province. The analysis in this paper is deliberately limited to sample characteristics, job-search participation, digital access, scale descriptives, and reliability. It does not report the dissertation's mediation or moderation tests, because the aim is to produce a separate ordinary journal article with a non-overlapping focus.

3.2 Participants

The sample consisted of 521 final-year students from higher education institutions in Zhejiang Province, China. The gender distribution was balanced, with 272 male respondents (52.21%) and 249 female respondents (47.79%). Respondents came from public universities, private universities, and vocational or technical colleges. The largest institutional group was private universities (50.67%), followed by public universities (31.29%) and vocational or technical colleges (18.04%).

The sample included students at diploma, bachelor's, and postgraduate levels. Bachelor's degree students formed the largest group (51.44%). Social sciences and business or management accounted for a substantial share of the sample. The sample therefore reflects a broad higher education population rather than a single discipline or institution type.

3.3 Measures

The questionnaire included demographic and career-preparation questions. Respondents reported gender, institution type, education level, field of study, grade point average category, whether they were currently applying for jobs or attending career fairs, and how they rated their access to digital tools and internet connectivity for learning and job searching.

The questionnaire also measured six employability readiness indicators using five-point Likert-type items: cognitive competencies, social competencies, behavioural competencies, digital literacy, resilience, and perceived employability. Cognitive competencies covered critical thinking, problem solving, logical analysis, reflective learning, and knowledge application. Social competencies covered collaboration, conflict resolution, professional communication, networking, and adaptation to varied work environments. Behavioural competencies covered initiative, time management, adaptability, self-motivation, and sustained effort. Digital literacy covered digital tool use, online information evaluation, digital collaboration, adaptation to new tools, and digitally supported problem solving. Resilience covered calmness under stress, recovery after setbacks, positive outlook, persistence, and confidence in overcoming challenges. Perceived employability covered confidence in securing employment, readiness for digitally driven workplaces, adaptation to changing job requirements, integration of academic and practical skills, and readiness to contribute in professional settings.

3.4 Data Analysis

The analysis used frequencies, percentages, means, standard deviations, medians, and Cronbach's alpha values. Percentages were used to describe job-search participation and digital access. Mean scores were used to compare the six readiness indicators. Cronbach's alpha values were used to report internal consistency. Because the article is descriptive, it does not make causal claims or test explanatory mechanisms.

4. RESULTS

4.1 Sample Characteristics

Table 1 summarises the demographic and preparation characteristics of the sample. The sample was slightly male-majority but reasonably balanced by gender. Private university students represented just over half of the sample. In terms of academic level, bachelor's degree students were the largest group, followed by diploma students and postgraduate students. Social sciences and

Career Preparation and Employability Readiness among Final-Year Students in Zhejiang, China: A Descriptive Survey

business or management together accounted for more than half of respondents, which should be considered when interpreting the findings.

Table 1. Sample characteristics of respondents (N = 521)

Variable	Category	n	%
Gender	Male	272	52.21
	Female	249	47.79
Type of University	Public University	163	31.29
	Private University	264	50.67
	Vocational/Technical	94	18.04
	College		
Education	College Diploma	165	31.67
	Bachelor's Degree	268	51.44
	Postgraduate and above	88	16.89
Field of Study	Engineering and Technology	75	14.40
	Business and Management	121	23.22
	Social Sciences	171	32.82
	Education	55	10.56
	Arts and Humanities	70	13.44
	Natural Sciences	29	5.57
Average academic performance (Grade Point Average - GPA)	Below 2.5	97	18.62
	2.5-2.99	158	30.33
	3.0-3.49	209	40.12
	3.5-4.0	57	10.94
Are you currently applying for jobs or attending career fairs	Yes	378	72.55
	No	100	19.19
	Planning to within the next 3 months	43	8.25
How would you rate your access to digital tools and internet connectivity for learning and job searching	Very Poor	29	5.57
	Poor	64	12.28
	Fair	199	38.20
	Good	140	26.87
	Excellent	89	17.08

4.2 Career Activity and Digital Access

The sample showed high levels of career activity. A total of 72.55% of respondents reported that they were currently applying for jobs or attending career fairs. A further 8.25% planned to do so within the next three months. This means that more than four-fifths of respondents were either already active or close to entering active career preparation.

Digital access was less uniformly strong. Only 43.95% of respondents rated their access to digital tools and internet connectivity as good or excellent. By contrast, 56.05% rated access as fair, poor, or very poor. Figure 1 visualises this contrast. The pattern suggests that many students were career-active but did not necessarily have strong digital conditions for learning and job searching.

This contrast is important because contemporary career preparation is increasingly platform-based. Students may need to search vacancy information, attend online briefings, prepare digital materials, complete web-based assessments, communicate with employers, and maintain online professional profiles. Fair or weak access may therefore affect more than convenience. It may reduce students' ability to practise and sustain the routines through which employability is made visible to employers.

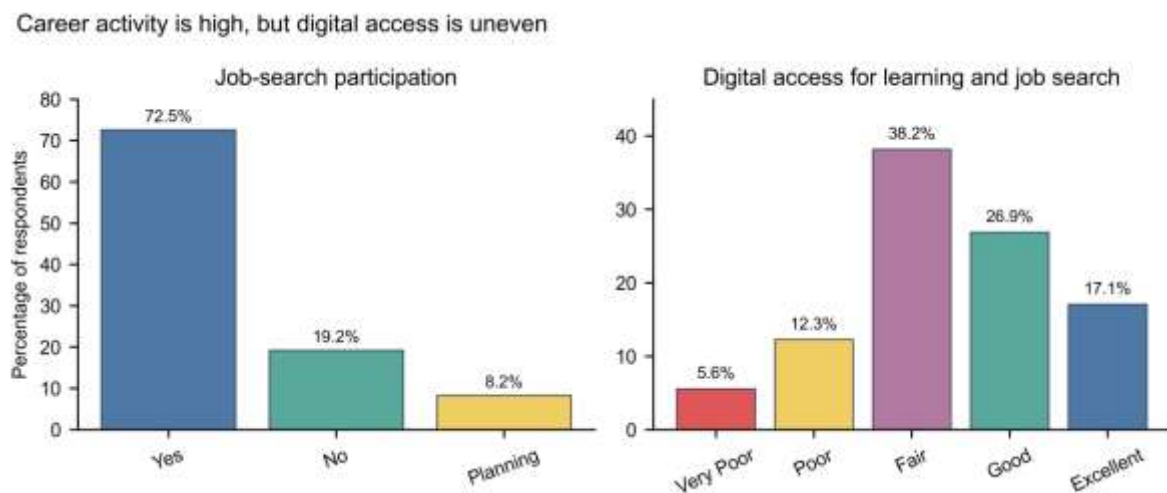


Figure 1. Career activity and digital access among final-year students. The left panel shows job-search participation; the right panel shows ratings of access to digital tools and internet connectivity for learning and job searching.

4.3 Employability Readiness Indicators

Table 2 reports the six readiness indicators. All mean scores were above the theoretical midpoint of 3 on the five-point scale. Social competencies had the highest mean score ($M = 3.754$, $SD = 0.931$), followed by behavioural competencies ($M = 3.697$, $SD = 0.923$), cognitive competencies ($M = 3.693$, $SD = 0.979$), perceived employability ($M = 3.691$, $SD = 0.955$), digital literacy ($M = 3.666$, $SD = 0.980$), and resilience ($M = 3.540$, $SD = 1.030$).

Table 2. Descriptive statistics and reliability of employability readiness indicators

Indicator	N	Mean	SD	Median	Cronbach's alpha
Cognitive competencies	521	3.693	0.979	4.000	0.881
Social competencies	521	3.754	0.931	4.000	0.874
Behavioural competencies	521	3.697	0.923	4.000	0.865
Digital Literacy	521	3.666	0.980	4.000	0.883
Resilience	521	3.540	1.030	4.000	0.892
Perceived employability	521	3.691	0.955	4.000	0.867

Figure 2 displays the same readiness profile visually. The most notable descriptive result is not that any indicator was low in an absolute sense. Rather, the relative pattern shows that resilience and digital literacy were the two weakest areas. This matters because career preparation in a digital economy requires students not only to attend career events but also to use digital tools confidently and continue acting under uncertainty.

The pattern also suggests that social confidence may be more developed than transition confidence. Social competencies had the highest mean score, indicating that respondents generally felt able to communicate and collaborate. However, the lower resilience score suggests that students may find the pressure of job search, feedback delay, and labour-market uncertainty more difficult than everyday interpersonal interaction. The lower digital literacy score also suggests that communication confidence may not automatically translate into confidence in digital professional environments.

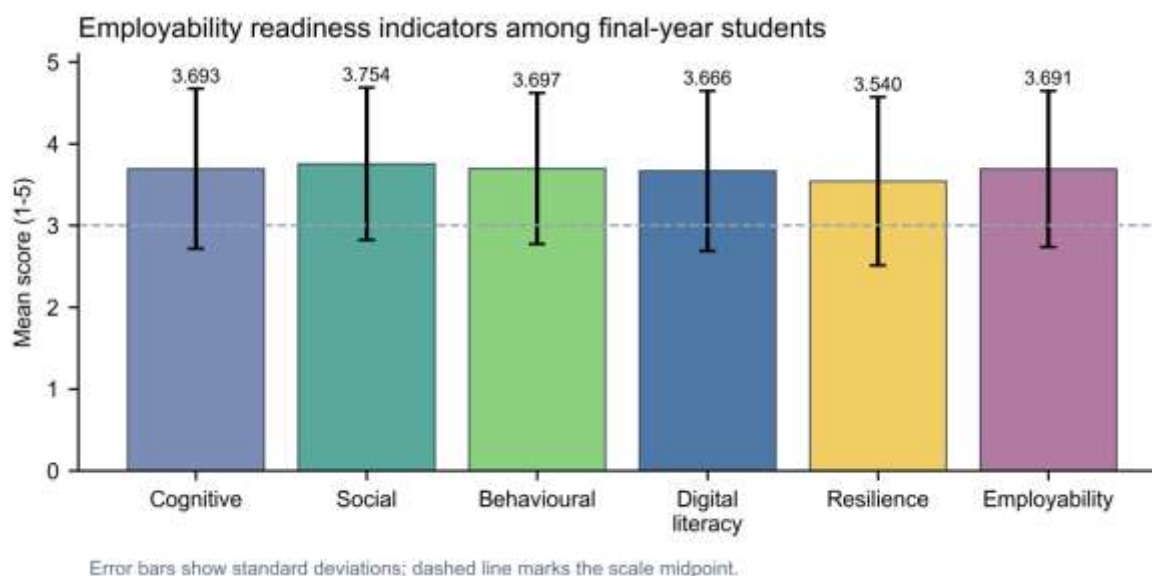


Figure 2. Employability readiness profile across six indicators. Bars show mean scores on a five-point scale; error bars show standard deviations.

4.4 Measurement Reliability

The scales showed acceptable internal consistency. Cronbach's alpha values were 0.881 for cognitive competencies, 0.874 for social competencies, 0.865 for behavioural competencies, 0.883 for digital literacy, 0.892 for resilience, and 0.867 for perceived employability. These values support the use of the scale scores for descriptive analysis.

5. DISCUSSION

This article provides a descriptive profile of final-year students' employability readiness in Zhejiang Province. The main finding is a practical mismatch: students were highly engaged in job-search activity, but their readiness resources were uneven. Most respondents were already applying for jobs or attending career fairs, yet digital access was not uniformly strong, and resilience was the lowest-rated readiness indicator.

The first implication is that career activity should not be treated as equivalent to career readiness. Career fairs and job applications indicate exposure to the labour market, but they do not automatically show that students possess the digital, psychological, and reflective resources needed to benefit from that exposure. This interpretation is consistent with research showing that employability-building activities matter, but that participation and benefit depend on students' resources and contexts (Jackson et al., 2024; Stonebraker et al., 2019).

For university managers, this distinction changes how career preparation should be evaluated. A high level of participation can look successful in administrative reports, but it may hide unequal readiness. Students who attend events without sufficient digital access may struggle to follow up with employers. Students who submit applications without resilience support may stop after repeated rejection. Students who have general social confidence may still find platform-based professional communication unfamiliar. Career preparation should therefore be evaluated by both activity indicators and readiness indicators. The second implication concerns digital access. In a digitally developed province, it may be tempting to assume that students have adequate digital conditions for job search and career development. The data do not support such a simple assumption. More than half of respondents rated their access as fair or below. This does not mean that students lacked all access; rather, it suggests that access quality may vary enough to affect learning and career preparation. For ordinary university practice, digital employability support should therefore include attention to access, connectivity, platform familiarity, and confidence in using digital tools for professional purposes.

This finding is particularly relevant because digital inequality is no longer only a question of whether students have any device or any internet connection. Differences may appear in device quality, stable connectivity, quiet study space, familiarity with recruitment platforms, confidence with online forms, or ability to create digital evidence of competence. A student with intermittent access may still complete an application, but the quality of preparation, revision, and follow-up may be weaker. Institutions should therefore treat digital access as a layered condition rather than a simple yes-or-no variable.

The third implication concerns psychological readiness. Resilience was not low in an absolute sense, but it was the weakest of the six indicators. This is meaningful because final-year students face repeated uncertainty during the transition from

Career Preparation and Employability Readiness among Final-Year Students in Zhejiang, China: A Descriptive Survey

study to work. A student may attend career fairs and submit applications while still struggling with rejection, comparison, and anxiety. Career services should therefore integrate resilience-building elements such as rejection recovery, structured reflection, coping strategies, and peer support. Such support is not a substitute for skills development; it helps students continue using their skills under pressure.

The resilience result should not be read as a problem inside individual students alone. It may also reflect the structure of the transition from university to employment. Digital recruitment systems can generate silence, repeated automated rejection, and limited feedback. Students may compare themselves with peers through social media or group chats. These conditions can weaken confidence even among students who are active and capable. Resilience support should therefore be designed as part of the career environment, not as a message that students should simply become tougher.

The fourth implication concerns the role of descriptive evidence in employability research. Predictive and structural models are useful, but descriptive profiles are also valuable for institutional decision-making. A career centre does not always need a causal model before acting. It may first need to know which groups are active, whether access is uneven, which readiness indicators are relatively weaker, and where practical support should be concentrated. This article provides that type of evidence. The profile also shows why employability support should be coordinated across units. Career services can organise employer engagement, but they may not control digital infrastructure. Information technology departments can improve access, but they may not address students' career confidence. Academic departments can embed employability tasks in courses, but they may not see patterns of student anxiety during recruitment. A descriptive readiness profile can give these units a shared evidence base for coordinated intervention.

The findings should be read within the regional and sample context. Zhejiang's digital economy makes digital access and digital competence especially relevant. However, the sample contained a high proportion of private university students and students from social science, business, and management fields. The findings may therefore be most useful for institutions with similar student populations and labour-market conditions.

6. PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

Universities should not evaluate career preparation only by counting student attendance at career fairs or application workshops. High participation may hide uneven readiness. Career services could add short diagnostic surveys before or after events to identify students with weak digital access, low confidence, or low resilience.

Second, digital access should be treated as part of employability infrastructure. Universities can provide device-lending schemes, stable campus connectivity, access to job-search platforms, and guided practice with digital portfolios, online applications, and professional communication tools. This is especially important for students who rate their access as fair or poor.

Third, employability education should combine career information with psychological preparation. Workshops can include scenario-based exercises on rejection, delayed responses from employers, platform-based comparison, and uncertainty in job matching. These exercises would help students turn career activity into sustained career behaviour.

Fourth, curriculum teams can embed employability readiness into discipline learning. Students should not encounter employability only in final-year career events. Earlier coursework can help students gather evidence of skills, reflect on learning, practise digital communication, and build confidence before the final transition.

Fifth, institutions can use a tiered support model. Universal support can include career information sessions and basic digital job-search training for all final-year students. Targeted support can be provided to students who report fair or poor access, low confidence, or difficulty coping with rejection. Intensive support can be reserved for students who combine low access, low readiness scores, and limited participation in career activities. Such a model would help universities move from general employability provision to more precise student support.

Finally, employability dashboards should include readiness indicators. A dashboard that reports only numbers of events, employers, or attendees may encourage institutions to expand visible activity without improving student outcomes. Adding measures of digital access, digital literacy confidence, resilience, and perceived employability would give career teams a fuller picture of whether activities are building readiness.

7. LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

Several limitations should be noted. First, the study is cross-sectional and descriptive. It cannot show whether career activity, digital access, or readiness indicators lead to employment outcomes. Second, the data are based on self-report, which may be affected by optimism, social desirability, and common method bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Third, the study reports perceived employability rather than objective employment outcomes such as job attainment, salary, job quality, or job fit. Fourth, the sample

Career Preparation and Employability Readiness among Final-Year Students in Zhejiang, China: A Descriptive Survey

is located in Zhejiang Province, so generalisation to regions with different digital infrastructure or labour-market conditions should be cautious.

Future research should link descriptive readiness profiles with longitudinal outcomes. A useful next step would be to follow final-year students after graduation and examine whether digital access, resilience, and career activity predict employment status, job quality, or satisfaction. Future studies could also compare institution types, disciplines, and socioeconomic backgrounds to identify which students need the most support.

Future research could also add qualitative interviews. Survey data can show that access and resilience are weaker areas, but interviews could explain why. Students may interpret "digital access" in terms of hardware, platform familiarity, internet stability, or confidence in online professional interaction. They may interpret "resilience" in relation to family pressure, repeated rejection, peer comparison, or uncertainty about career identity. Understanding these meanings would help universities design interventions that match students' lived experience.

8. CONCLUSION

This descriptive study shows that final-year students in Zhejiang Province were highly engaged in career preparation, but readiness was uneven. Most respondents were already applying for jobs or attending career fairs, yet digital access was mixed and resilience was the weakest readiness indicator. The findings suggest that universities should distinguish visible career activity from deeper employability readiness. For ordinary employability practice, career events should be paired with digital access support, digital confidence development, and psychological preparation for labour-market uncertainty.

Data Availability

The aggregated data used to prepare the tables and figures in this article are available from the author. De-identified respondent-level survey data are not publicly released at this stage because participant consent and institutional data-sharing requirements need to be confirmed.

Ethics Statement

This study involves a questionnaire survey of higher education students. Participants received research information and participated voluntarily. No human experimentation was involved, and therefore no ethical review is required.

Funding

This research has not received any specific funding from any public, commercial, or non-profit organization.

Conflict of Interest

The authors declare that there are no known conflicts of interest or personal relationships that may affect the work reported herein.

AI Disclosure

This study used artificial intelligence technology to assist in translation and editing; other content did not use artificial intelligence.

REFERENCES

- 1) Chen, W., Shao, K., Xiao, Q., & Mai, Y. (2023). Development and validation of Chinese college students' future employability scale. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 14, 1063437. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2023.1063437>
- 2) Connor, K. M., & Davidson, J. R. T. (2003). Development of a new resilience scale: The Connor-Davidson Resilience Scale (CD-RISC). *Depression and Anxiety*, 18(2), 76-82. <https://doi.org/10.1002/da.10113>
- 3) Gutiérrez-Ángel, N., Sánchez-García, J.-N., Mercader-Rubio, I., García-Martín, J., & Brito-Costa, S. (2022). Digital literacy in the university setting: A literature review of empirical studies between 2010 and 2021. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 13, 896800. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2022.896800>
- 4) Jackson, D., Lambert, C., Sibson, R., Bridgstock, R., & Tofa, M. (2024). Student employability-building activities: Participation and contribution to graduate outcomes. *Higher Education Research & Development*. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07294360.2024.2325154>
- 5) Ma, Y., Hou, L., Cai, W., Gao, X., & Jiang, L. (2024). Linking undergraduates' future work self and employability: A moderated mediation model. *BMC Psychology*, 12, 160. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40359-024-01530-1>
- 6) Martzoukou, K., Luders, E. S., Mair, J., Kostagiolas, P., Johnson, N., Work, F., & Fulton, C. (2023). A cross-sectional study of discipline-based self-perceived digital literacy competencies of nursing students. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 79(12), 4821-4835. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jan.15801>

- 7) Ng, W. (2012). Can we teach digital natives digital literacy? *Computers & Education*, 59(3), 1065-1078.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compedu.2012.04.016>
- 8) Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J. Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(5), 879-903.
<https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.88.5.879>
- 9) Rothwell, A., & Arnold, J. (2007). Self-perceived employability: Development and validation of a scale. *Personnel Review*, 36(1), 23-41. <https://doi.org/10.1108/00483480710716704>
- 10) Stonebraker, I., Maybee, C., & Chapman, J. (2019). Undergraduate students' experiences of using information at the career fair: A phenomenographic study conducted by the libraries and career center. *The Journal of Academic Librarianship*, 45(4), 358-367. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.acalib.2019.05.002>
- 11) Tee, P. K., Wong, L. C., Dada, M., Song, B. L., & Ng, C. P. (2024). Demand for digital skills, skill gaps and graduate employability: Evidence from employers in Malaysia. *F1000Research*, 13, 389.
<https://doi.org/10.12688/f1000research.148514.1>
- 12) Tight, M. (2023). Employability: A core role of higher education? *Research in Post-Compulsory Education*, 28(4), 551-571.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/13596748.2023.2253649>
- 13) Tomlinson, M. (2017). Forms of graduate capital and their relationship to graduate employability. *Education + Training*, 59(4), 338-352. <https://doi.org/10.1108/ET-05-2016-0090>
- 14) Vuorikari, R., Kluzer, S., & Punie, Y. (2022). DigComp 2.2: The Digital Competence Framework for Citizens. Publications Office of the European Union. <https://doi.org/10.2760/115376>
- 15) Yorke, M. (2006). Employability in higher education: What it is, what it is not. Higher Education Academy.



There is an Open Access article, distributed under the term of the Creative Commons Attribution – Non Commercial 4.0 International (CC BY-NC 4.0) (<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/4.0/>), which permits remixing, adapting and building upon the work for non-commercial use, provided the original work is properly cited.