

The Impact of Career Readiness and Job Information Access on Students' Career Opportunities: The Moderating Role of Self-Confidence

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ABSTRACT: The rapid structural shift in the modern industrial landscape, characterized by automation and the Fourth Industrial Revolution, has intensified competition in the global labor market. Consequently, university graduates face persistent challenges regarding employment acquisition and skill-matching discrepancies. This study aims to investigate the influence of career readiness and job information access on students' career opportunities, while examining the moderating role of self-confidence in these relationships. An explanatory quantitative research design was implemented, surveying 150 active undergraduate students (semester 5 and above) and fresh graduates from Universitas Islam Sultan Agung Semarang, selected via purposive sampling. Data were gathered through structured 5-point Likert questionnaires and analyzed using Partial Least Squares–Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM) assisted by SmartPLS 4. The empirical findings indicate that job information access ($\beta = 0.325$, $t = 2.218$, $p = 0.027$) and self-confidence ($\beta = 0.468$, $t = 2.388$, $p = 0.017$) exert positive and statistically significant direct effects on career opportunities. Conversely, career readiness does not exhibit a significant direct effect on career opportunities ($\beta = 0.165$, $t = 1.551$, $p = 0.121$). In the moderation analysis, self-confidence significantly strengthens the positive relationship between job information access and career opportunities ($\beta = 0.179$, $t = 2.062$, $p = 0.039$), but fails to moderate the effect of career readiness on career opportunities ($\beta = -0.048$, $t = 0.558$, $p = 0.577$). The structural model demonstrates an R^2 value of 0.708. These results underscore that facilitating comprehensive job information channels and cultivating psychological confidence are critical for maximizing graduate employability.

KEYWORDS: Career Readiness, Job Information Access, Self-Confidence, Career Opportunities, Graduate Employability, PLS-SEM

I. INTRODUCTION

Transformations in the global economic landscape driven by globalization, digital disruption, and the Fourth Industrial Revolution have reorganized workplace structures and labor market dynamics. The rapid convergence of artificial intelligence, machine learning, and automated operational systems across industrial sectors has shifted employee competency benchmarks. According to the World Economic Forum (2023), approximately 44% of workers' core skills are projected to be disrupted in the coming years, requiring entrants to cultivate adaptive agility, digital proficiency, and cognitive flexibility.¹ In Indonesia, data from the National Labor Force Survey (Sakernas) conducted by the Central Bureau of Statistics (BPS) in August 2025 revealed that open unemployment among tertiary education graduates reached 1,050,764 individuals out of a national total of 7,461,507 unemployed persons.² This statistic illustrates an ongoing skill mismatch between graduate competencies and the specifications demanded by the corporate sector.

Higher education institutions are tasked with developing workforce-ready graduates equipped with professional skills that extend beyond classroom academic theory. In modern organizational literature, career opportunities refer to an individual's potential to secure initial employment, maintain sustained employability, and experience upward professional mobility aligned with their competencies.³ Employability is shaped by internal and external determinants. Internal dimensions encompass individual career readiness the consolidation of specialized knowledge, soft skills, internship exposure, and adaptive vocational identity.^{4,5,6} Although conventional assumptions hold that high career readiness directly expands job opportunities^{7,8}, empirical studies show that internal preparedness does not always translate into career success if disconnected from market access and direct industry exposure.³

Concurrently, external determinants such as job information access serve as an operational conduit connecting prospective job seekers with labor market openings. In an interconnected digital economy, vacancy advertisements, skill specifications, and industry trends are disseminated across online platforms and professional social networks.^{9,10,11} Students who possess digital literacy and

The Impact of Career Readiness and Job Information Access on Students' Career Opportunities: The Moderating Role of Self-Confidence

information-retrieval competencies can identify viable employment opportunities and tailor their applications to industry requirements.¹²

However, having access to job information and possessing technical competencies may not produce optimal outcomes without supportive psychological resources. Grounded in Bandura's (1997) Self-Efficacy Theory and Lent et al.'s (1994) Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT)¹³, self-confidence governs how individuals evaluate their personal capabilities, make career-related decisions, and persevere through hiring processes. Students with high self-confidence view recruitment hurdles as achievable tasks, actively pursue vacancies, and present their competencies during evaluations.^{14,15} Conversely, lower self-confidence often results in hesitation and underutilization of available job information.

While career readiness, information access, and self-efficacy have been examined individually across vocational literature, empirical assessments evaluating their simultaneous interactions within a moderation framework remain limited. To address this gap, this study investigates the empirical effects of career readiness and job information access on university students' career opportunities, while analyzing the moderating role of self-confidence.

II. LITERATUR REVIEW AND HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

A. THEORETICAL REVIEW

Career Opportunities

Career opportunities refer to an individual's ability to obtain, maintain, and develop employment in accordance with their competencies and the demands of the labor market. This concept is not only related to the availability of job vacancies but also reflects an individual's readiness to take advantage of employment opportunities, develop competencies, and adapt to changes in the work environment. Along with the development of digital transformation, career opportunities are increasingly influenced by an individual's ability to improve skills, expand professional networks, and respond to the continuously changing needs of industries (Jackson (2016);World Economic Forum, (2023).

From an employability perspective, career opportunities are the result of the interaction between human capital, career adaptability, and an individual's career identity. Individuals who possess competencies that are relevant to industry needs are more likely to obtain employment and maintain sustainable career development. Therefore, career opportunities are influenced not only by external factors, such as labor market conditions, but also by an individual's readiness to develop relevant competencies (Jackson (2016); Savickas (2019).

In this study, career opportunities are defined as the opportunities available to students to obtain employment, develop their careers sustainably, and compete in the workforce through the mastery of competencies and the ability to adapt to changes in the work environment.

Career Readiness

Career readiness describes the level of an individual's preparedness to enter the workforce through the acquisition of knowledge, skills, experience, and well-developed career planning. This concept emphasizes that university graduates are not only required to possess academic abilities but also need to be prepared to face organizational changes and technological developments that influence the world of work (Savickas, 2019).

Jackson (2016) explains that career readiness reflects an individual's ability to integrate technical competencies, interpersonal skills, experience, and professional identity, enabling them to successfully navigate the transition from education to employment. Individuals with a high level of career readiness tend to find it easier to identify employment opportunities, align their competencies with industry needs, and demonstrate greater adaptability to changes in the work environment.

Previous studies have shown that career readiness contributes to improving the competitiveness of graduates. Students who have career plans, internship experience, and adequate competencies tend to have greater opportunities to obtain employment compared to students who are less prepared (Pranitasari et al. (2025); Puteri (2024).

Access to Job Information

Access to job information refers to an individual's ability to obtain, understand, evaluate, and utilize information related to the world of work as a basis for career decision-making. The development of digital technology has expanded access to employment information through various online platforms, such as recruitment portals, professional social media, official company websites, and alumni networks, enabling students to obtain information more quickly and accurately (Astuti, 2023).

The ability to access job information is also closely related to digital literacy. Individuals with good digital literacy skills are more capable of searching for information regarding industry requirements, the competencies required by companies, and career development opportunities. Conversely, limitations in obtaining or processing information can hinder the job-search process even when employment opportunities are available(Adelia & Mardalis, 2024; Alexander J A M van Deursen & van Dijk, 2014).

Therefore, access to job information is not merely defined as the ease of obtaining information but also as students' ability to utilize such information as a basis for developing career development strategies.

The Impact of Career Readiness and Job Information Access on Students' Career Opportunities: The Moderating Role of Self-Confidence

Self-Confidence

Self-confidence refers to an individual's belief in their ability to complete tasks, face challenges, and achieve desired goals. In the context of career development, self-confidence encourages individuals to actively seek employment opportunities, make decisions, and demonstrate their competencies during the job selection process (Bandura, 1997).

The concept of self-confidence is closely related to self-efficacy, which refers to an individual's belief in their ability to perform the actions necessary to achieve success. Individuals with high levels of self-efficacy tend to be more optimistic, persistent in facing obstacles, and capable of transforming challenges into opportunities for self-development (Maddux & Kleiman, 2016).

From the perspective of Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT), self-confidence is a major determinant that influences career choices, goal formation, and individual behavior in achieving career success (Lent et al., 1994). Therefore, self-confidence is expected not only to directly influence students' career opportunities but also to strengthen the influence of career readiness and access to job information on students' career opportunities.

B. Theoretical Background and Concept Definitions

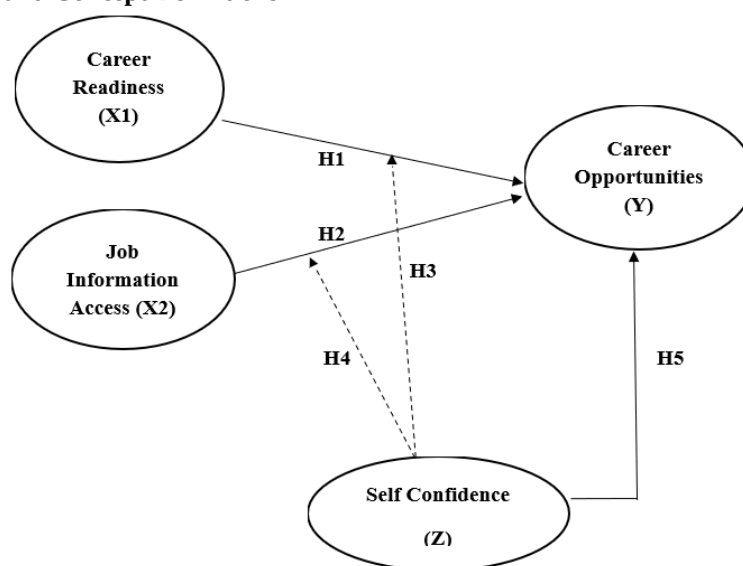


Figure 1. Empirical Framework

1. Career Opportunities (Y)

Career opportunities reflect an individual's capacity to obtain, sustain, and advance within a professional occupation that matches their educational background and competencies³ Fugate et al., (2004) conceptualize employability as a psycho-social construct consisting of career identity, personal adaptability, and human/social capital.¹⁶ In this study, career opportunities encompass five core dimensions: capability to obtain suitable employment, alignment between skills and job specifications, promotion/career development prospects, market competitiveness, and adaptability to evolving industrial demands.

2. Career Readiness (X1)

Career readiness is defined as a student's preparedness to enter the workforce, supported by conceptual mastery, technical competence, experiential background, and adaptive professional identity.⁴ Savickas (2019) emphasizes career adaptability as an essential component of readiness, encompassing concern, control, curiosity, and confidence.⁶ This construct is operationalized through five indicators: clarity of career planning, exploration of career pathways, technical and non-technical skill mastery, relevant internship/practical experience, and adaptability to workplace change.

3. Job Information Access (X2)

Job information access refers to an individual's ability to search, comprehend, evaluate, and utilize labor market information across digital channels and social networks.¹² "Strength of Weak Ties" theory posits that external social networks provide critical access to non-redundant employment opportunities. Furthermore, digital divide models by Van Deursen and Van Dijk (2014) highlight that operational and strategic internet skills determine an individual's effectiveness in leveraging career-related data.¹⁰ Five dimensions measure this construct: information-seeking ability, comprehension of job market criteria, critical evaluation of source credibility, digital job platform utilization, and networking effectiveness.

The Impact of Career Readiness and Job Information Access on Students' Career Opportunities: The Moderating Role of Self-Confidence

4. Self-Confidence (Z)

Self-confidence reflects an individual's belief in their ability to execute tasks, navigate challenges, and attain career goals.¹⁷ According to Social Cognitive Career Theory¹³, self-efficacy beliefs directly influence career choice goals, outcome expectations, and performance attainments. Five indicators operationalize self-confidence in this study: belief in personal capabilities, decisiveness in career choices, optimism facing challenges, resilience against setbacks, and capability to display personal potential.

C. Hypotheses Development

1. Career Readiness and Career Opportunities

Students with structured career plans, technical skills, and internship exposure are theoretically better equipped to meet employer qualifications and secure employment.³ Empirical findings by Pranitasari et al. (2025) and Puteri (2024) confirm that career readiness significantly enhances students' competitiveness and job placement prospects.

- H1: Career readiness has a positive effect on students' career opportunities.⁸

2. Job Information Access and Career Opportunities

Access to job vacancy data, industry profiles, and recruitment requirements allows job seekers to target openings matching their skill profiles.¹¹ Van Deursen and Van Dijk (2014)¹⁰ and Adelia and Mardalis (2024)¹² demonstrate that digital information-seeking capabilities significantly increase graduate employment prospects.

- H2: Job information access has a positive effect on students' career opportunities.

3. The Moderating Role of Self-Confidence on Career Readiness

While career readiness provides foundational competencies, its translation into realized career opportunities may depend on psychological self-efficacy.¹⁴ Confident graduates are more likely to assertively deploy their knowledge during selection tests and interview assessments, thereby strengthening the impact of career readiness on career outcomes.¹⁵

- H3: Self-confidence moderates the effect of career readiness on students' career opportunities.

4. The Moderating Role of Self-Confidence on Job Information Access

Accessing employment information requires personal initiative to convert data into action.¹⁷ Students possessing high self-confidence are more likely to submit applications, follow up on openings, attend career fairs, and network with recruiters. In contrast, those lacking confidence may hesitate despite having access to relevant information.

- H4: Self-confidence moderates the effect of job information access on students' career opportunities.

5. Self-Confidence and Career Opportunities

Self-efficacy directly influences career exploration behavior, persistence, and interview performance (Bandura, 1997; Lent et al., 1994). Confident candidates project competence and adaptability during selection processes, increasing their likelihood of securing job offers.

- H5: Self-confidence has a positive direct effect on students' career opportunities.

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A. Research Design, Population, and Sampling

This study utilized a quantitative explanatory research design to examine causal relationships and moderation effects within the structural model. The target population comprised active undergraduate students (minimum semester 5) and fresh graduates across various faculties at Universitas Islam Sultan Agung (UNISSULA) Semarang, Indonesia.

A non-probability purposive sampling technique was applied based on specific inclusion criteria:

1. Active undergraduate (S1) students enrolled in semester 5 or above, or fresh graduates;
2. Actively searching for career/employment information;
3. Aged between 18 and 25 years;
4. Willing to complete the survey instrument fully and objectively.

The sample size was established at N = 150 respondents, meeting the sample-to-indicator ratio guideline (5 to 10 respondents per indicator across 20 primary indicators) recommended for PLS-SEM estimation.¹⁸

B. Operational Definition and Measurement Variables

Primary data were gathered through an online questionnaire using a 5-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree). The measurement framework comprised 4 latent variables with 20 total indicators (each measured by 2 specific sub-items):

The Impact of Career Readiness and Job Information Access on Students' Career Opportunities: The Moderating Role of Self-Confidence

Table 1. Variable operationalization and indicators

Variable	Conceptual Definition	Operational Indicators	References
Career Readiness (X1)	Student preparedness to enter the workforce through knowledge, skills, experience, and adaptability.	- Clear career planning (X1.1) - Career information exploration (X1.2) - Technical and soft skill mastery (X1.3) - Internship/work experience (X1.4) - Workplace adaptability (X1.5)	1. Jackson (2016)³ 2. Yorke (2006)⁴ 3. Savickas (2019)⁶
Job Information Access (X2)	Ability to obtain, understand, evaluate, and use labor market information via digital media and networks.	- Job information retrieval ability (X2.1) - Job market comprehension (X2.2) - Information evaluation ability (X2.3) - Digital platform utilization (X2.4) - Networking utilization (X2.5)	1. Granovetter (1973)⁹ 2. Van Deursen & Van Dijk (2014)¹⁰ 3. Astuti (2023)¹¹
Self-Confidence (Z)	Student belief in personal capabilities to solve tasks, make decisions, and seize career prospects.	- Belief in self-ability (Z1) - Decision-making courage (Z2) - Optimism facing challenges (Z3) - Resilience against failure (Z4) - Potential presentation ability (Z5)	1. Bandura (1997)¹⁷ 2. Maddux & Kleiman (2016)¹⁴ 3. Lent et al. (1994)¹³
Career Opportunities (Y)	Chances to obtain, develop, and sustain professional employment aligned with competence.	- Ability to obtain matched job (Y1) - Competency-job alignment (Y2) - Career development chances (Y3) - Labor market competitiveness (Y4) - Workplace change readiness (Y5)	1. Jackson (2016)³ 2. Fugate et al. (2004)¹⁶

C. Data Analysis Technique

Data were analyzed via Partial Least Squares–Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM) using SmartPLS 4.0. PLS-SEM was selected because it accommodates complex structural relationships with interaction terms and does not require distributional normality assumptions.¹⁸

1. Measurement Model (Outer Model): Evaluated through Convergent Validity (Outer Loading ≥ 0.70 , AVE ≥ 0.50), Discriminant Validity (Cross-Loadings and Fornell-Larcker Criterion where the square root of AVE must be greater than the correlations between constructs), and Reliability (Cronbach's Alpha ≥ 0.70 , Composite Reliability ≥ 0.70).
2. Structural Model (Inner Model): Evaluated through Coefficient of Determination (R^2), Effect Size (f^2), and Path Significance via non-parametric bootstrapping (5,000 subsamples, two-tailed test, critical t-value = 1.96, p-value < 0.05).

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Demographic Profile of Respondents

The demographic composition of the 150 respondents is summarized in Table II:

Table 2. Demographic characteristics of respondents (n=150))

Characteristic	Classification Category	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
Gender	Female	122	81.3%
	Male	28	18.7%
Academic Status	Active Undergraduate Student	133	88.7%
	Fresh Graduate (Class of 2026)	17	11.3%
Semester Stage	Semester 5	8	5.3%
	Semester 6	122	81.3%
	Semester 7	1	0.7%
	Semester 8 & Above	2	1.4%
	Graduated	17	11.3%
Major / Study Program	Management	50	33.3%
	Nursing	45	30.0%
	Accounting	17	11.3%
	Informatics Engineering	8	5.3%
	Mathematics Education	5	3.3%

The Impact of Career Readiness and Job Information Access on Students' Career Opportunities: The Moderating Role of Self-Confidence

	Psychology	5	3.3%
	Islamic Education (PAI)	3	2.0%
	Primary Teacher Education (PGSD)	3	2.0%
	Industrial Engineering	3	2.0%
	General Engineering	2	1.3%
	Others (Medicine, Dentistry, Midwifery, etc.)	9	6.0%
Work/Internship Experience	Have Experience	90	60.0%
	No Prior Experience	60	40.0%

Respondents were predominantly female (81.3%) and active students in semester 6 (81.3%). The two largest academic majors were Management (33.3%) and Nursing (30.0%). Notably, 60.0% had completed an internship or held work experience, providing practical context for evaluating career readiness and job market perspectives.

B. Descriptive Statistical Analysis

Descriptive statistics for the latent variables across all 10 indicator items each are presented in table 3:

Table 3. Summary of descriptive statistics for latent constructs

Variable Construct	Mean Range	Median	Standard Deviation Range	Overall Assessment
Career Readiness (X1)	3.807 – 4.180	4.000	0.812 - 0.964	High (Good)
Job Information Access (X2)	3.920 – 4.253	4.000	0.793 - 0.934	High (Good)
Self-Confidence (Z)	4.000 – 4.187	4.000	0.792 - 0.959	High (Good)
Career Opportunities (Y)	4.093 – 4.247	4.000	0.799 - 0.919	High (Very Good)

The mean scores across all constructs fell within the high category (3.80 to 4.25 on a 5.0 scale), with median values consistently at 4.000 and standard deviations below 1.000, indicating homogeneous perceptions among respondents.

C. Measurement Model Evaluation (Outer Model)

1. Convergent Validity

Convergent validity was assessed through outer loadings and Average Variance Extracted (AVE). As shown in Table IV, outer loadings for all items exceeded the 0.70 threshold (ranging from 0.709 to 0.866). The AVE values for Career Readiness (0.572), Job Information Access (0.617), Self-Confidence (0.679), and Career Opportunities (0.682) exceeded the 0.50 benchmark, confirming convergent validity.

Table 4. Outer loadings and convergent validity metrics

Construct	Indicator Code	Outer Loading	AVE	Cronbach's α	Composite Reliability (pc)
Career Readiness (X1)	X1.1.1	0.777	0.572	0.917	0.930
	X1.1.2	0.772			
	X1.2.1	0.769			
	X1.2.2	0.725			
	X1.3.1	0.780			
	X1.3.2	0.788			
	X1.4.1	0.722			
	X1.4.2	0.709			
	X1.5.1	0.760			
	X1.5.2	0.752			
Job Information Access (X2)	X2.1.1	0.821	0.617	0.930	0.941
	X2.1.2	0.713			
	X2.2.1	0.834			
	X2.2.2	0.820			
	X2.3.1	0.799			
	X2.3.2	0.822			
	X2.4.1	0.826			

The Impact of Career Readiness and Job Information Access on Students' Career Opportunities: The Moderating Role of Self-Confidence

	X2.4.2	0.757			
	X2.5.1	0.737			
	X2.5.2	0.712			
Self-Confidence (Z)	Z1.1.1	0.849	0.679	0.947	0.955
	Z1.1.2	0.827			
	Z2.1.1	0.853			
	Z2.2.1	0.818			
	Z3.1.1	0.798			
	Z3.2.1	0.833			
	Z4.1.1	0.806			
	Z4.2.1	0.793			
	Z5.1.1	0.819			
	Z5.2.1	0.844			
Career Opportunities (Y)	Y1.1.1	0.810	0.682	0.948	0.955
	Y1.1.2	0.844			
	Y2.1.1	0.778			
	Y2.2.1	0.830			
	Y3.1.1	0.866			
	Y3.2.1	0.827			
	Y4.1.1	0.839			
	Y4.2.1	0.829			
	Y5.1.1	0.817			
	Y5.2.1	0.813			
Z × X1 (Interaction 1)	Single Indicator	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
Z × X2 (Interaction 2)	Single Indicator	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000

2. Discriminant Validity

Discriminant validity was established via the Fornell-Larcker criterion (Table V) and cross-loading checks. The square root of the AVE for each construct exceeded its correlations with all other constructs. Cross-loading analysis confirmed that all items loaded highest on their assigned construct, demonstrating discriminant validity.

Table 5. Discriminant Validity (Fornell-Larcker Criterion)

Construct	Job Information Access	Self-Confidence	Career Readiness	Career Opportunities
Job Information Access (X2)	0.785			
Self-Confidence (Z)	0.721	0.824		
Career Readiness (X1)	0.727	0.729	0.756	
Career Opportunities (Y)	0.700	0.748	0.745	0.826

D. Structural Model Evaluation (Inner Model) and Hypotheses Testing

The structural model yielded an R^2 of 0.708 (R^2 adj = 0.698), indicating that 70.8% of the variance in career opportunities is explained by the predictor and interaction variables in the model. According to Sarstedt et al. (2021), an R^2 value above 0.70 denotes substantial explanatory power.

Effect size calculations (f^2) revealed that Self-Confidence had the largest direct effect ($f^2 = 0.245$, medium effect), followed by the interaction $Z \times X2$ ($f^2 = 0.164$, medium effect), and Job Information Access ($f^2 = 0.105$, small-to-medium effect). In contrast, Career Readiness ($f^2 = 0.027$) and the interaction $Z \times X1$ ($f^2 = 0.007$) exhibited negligible effect sizes.

Table 6. Hypothesis testing results via bootstrapping

Hyp.	Structural Specification	Path	Path Coeff. (β)	Sample Mean (M)	Standard Deviation	t-Statistics	p-Values	Effect Size (f^2)	Empirical Decision
H1	Career Readiness → Career Opportunities		0.165	0.163	0.106	1.551	0.121	0.027	Rejected

The Impact of Career Readiness and Job Information Access on Students' Career Opportunities: The Moderating Role of Self-Confidence

H2	Job Info Access → Career Opportunities	0.325	0.323	0.146	2.218	0.027*	0.105	Accepted
H3	Self-Confidence × Career Readiness → Career Opportunities	-0.048	-0.042	0.086	0.558	0.577	0.007	Rejected
H4	Self-Confidence × Job Info Access → Career Opportunities	0.179	0.180	0.087	2.062	0.039*	0.164	Accepted
H5	Self-Confidence → Career Opportunities	0.468	0.472	0.196	2.388	0.017*	0.245	Accepted

E. Discussion

4. Career Readiness Does Not Directly Drive Career Opportunities (H1 Rejected)

The bootstrapping results indicate that career readiness has no statistically significant direct effect on career opportunities ($\beta = 0.165$, $t = 1.551$, $p = 0.121$). While students demonstrated high descriptive readiness including career goal planning and basic soft skills this internal preparation alone did not translate into immediate career opportunities.

This outcome diverges from prior studies (Pranitasari et al., 2025; Puteri, 2024), which reported strong positive linkages. This discrepancy may be attributed to the sample composition, where 88.7% were active students (principally semester 6) rather than full-time job seekers. At this stage, student career planning remains largely conceptual and lacks direct corporate testing or professional validation. In competitive labor markets, formal preparation without verified industry certifications or professional networks is often insufficient on its own to secure employment opportunities (Jackson, 2016; Yorke, 2006).

5. Job Information Access Expands Career Opportunities (H2 Accepted)

Job information access demonstrated a positive and statistically significant direct effect on career opportunities ($\beta = 0.325$, $t = 2.218$, $p = 0.027$). This finding supports digital divide frameworks and social capital theory (Van Deursen & Van Dijk, 2014; Granovetter, 1973).

Students who actively navigate job platforms, decode qualification criteria, and evaluate vacancy credibility gain earlier exposure to matching positions. These results align with Astuti (2023) and Adelia & Mardalis (2024), confirming that digital literacy and information-retrieval competencies facilitate entry into the labor market.

6. Moderating Mechanics of Self-Confidence (H3 Rejected vs. H4 Accepted)

The moderation test for Career Readiness × Self-Confidence was not statistically significant ($\beta = -0.048$, $t = 0.558$, $p = 0.577$). Confidence does not compensate for gaps in practical market access or verified qualifications, as employer screening relies on documented competencies rather than candidate self-perception.

Conversely, self-confidence significantly moderated the relationship between job information access and career opportunities ($\beta = 0.179$, $t = 2.062$, $p = 0.039$). This supports Bandura's (1997) and Maddux & Kleiman's (2016) models of self-efficacy as an action catalyst. Information availability alone does not produce employment outcomes; students must have the confidence to apply, participate in selection interviews, and engage in professional communication. High self-confidence enables students to convert labor market data into proactive application behaviors, expanding their realized career opportunities.

7. Direct Psychological Potency of Self-Confidence (H5 Accepted)

Self-confidence was the strongest predictor of career opportunities in the structural model ($\beta = 0.468$, $t = 2.388$, $p = 0.017$, $f^2 = 0.245$). Grounded in Social Cognitive Career Theory (Lent et al., 1994), individuals with higher self-efficacy set clearer career objectives, display greater persistence through setbacks, and project competence during recruitment assessments. These findings are consistent with Muhammad et al. (2019), demonstrating that psychological self-efficacy is a core driver of graduate employability.

V. CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

A. Conclusions

- Career readiness does not have a statistically significant direct effect on university students' career opportunities, indicating that conceptual preparedness needs to be supported by external labor market engagement.
- Job information access has a positive and statistically significant direct effect on career opportunities, showing that digital job search capabilities can improve employment prospects.
- Self-confidence does not moderate the effect of career readiness on career opportunities.

The Impact of Career Readiness and Job Information Access on Students' Career Opportunities: The Moderating Role of Self-Confidence

7. Self-confidence significantly moderates the relationship between job information access and career opportunities, acting as a catalyst that helps students convert job vacancy information into proactive application behaviors.
8. Self-confidence has a positive direct effect on career opportunities and represents the strongest direct predictor in the structural model ($R^2 = 0.708$).

B. Managerial and Practical Implications

1. Higher Education Career Development Centers (CDCs): Universities should improve digital career platforms, provide verified corporate recruitment listings, organize annual career fairs, and expand alumni mentoring networks to facilitate access to employment information.
2. Psychological Empowerment and Soft-Skill Coaching: Academic institutions should provide self-efficacy training, such as mock interviews, public speaking, leadership workshops, and career coaching, to build students' confidence in recruitment processes.
3. Experiential Industry Learning: To bridge the gap between theoretical career readiness and labor market demands, universities should expand project-based learning, mandatory corporate internships, and recognized professional certification programs.
4. Integrated Employability Framework: Institutions should coordinate academic faculties, CDCs, and industry partners to develop both technical competencies and psychological readiness so that graduates can navigate the modern labor market effectively.

C. Limitations and Future Research Directions

1. Single Institution Scope: This study was conducted exclusively at Universitas Islam Sultan Agung (UNISSULA) Semarang. Future research should involve multiple public and private universities across different regions to improve the generalizability of the findings.
2. Cross-Sectional Design: The cross-sectional design captures respondents' perceptions at a single point in time. Future studies should use longitudinal designs to examine how readiness, confidence, and information access influence employment outcomes over time.
3. Unexamined Variables: Although the model explained 70.8% of the variance, 29.2% remains unexplained. Future research could include additional variables such as digital skill proficiency, social capital, grade point average (GPA), and family socio-economic support.
4. Mixed-Method Approaches: Future research should consider combining quantitative surveys with qualitative interviews or focus group discussions (FGDs) to gain deeper insights into how students navigate recruitment processes and career transitions.

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