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The Impact of Supportive Parenting on Career Confidence of Young Adults

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THE IMPACT OF SUPPORTIVE PARENTING ON

CAREER CONFIDENCE OF YOUNG ADULTS

By

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ii

ABSTRACT

Despite freedoms for women in modern economies, there remains a large disparity between female graduation rates and women achieving high-ranking positions in the business world. Confidence may be one factor why women are underrepresented in the executive class. This exploratory research investigated if supportive parenting has an effect on self-reported career confidence among undergraduates. A quantitative ANOVA analysis found that instrumental support factors (for example, money and tuition) overall were significant in predicting performance-based confidence, particularly for males. However, qualitative results showed that supportive parenting and confidence are not always correlated.

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to my father, Dr. Ali Ettefagh. I was not able to accomplish this without

your unconditional love and endless support. Thanks for believing in me!

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Purpose of the Study

In the Middle East, society remains largely male dominated (Keddie, 2007). While

women are encouraged to work in some Middle Eastern countries, but it is challenging for them

to excel and reach management positions. Some Middle Eastern women might think that

Western women would have more opportunities and fewer challenges in their professional lives;

however, that is not quite the case, even in the United States. Fifty-seven percent of U.S. college

graduates are women (Guo, 2014), yet only 5.6% of S&P 500 companies' CEO's are women

("Women CEOs of The S&P 500", 2017). Why does the majority of the educated population

make up just a small fraction of top professionals? What has happened to the rest of the educated

female population? What contributes to this disparity? How much is related to career confidence,

and, if there is a correlation, what is the source of this confidence? Does any of it come from

parental support? These questions are the basis of this research.

Research Question

The main research question investigates if supportive parenting has any effect on career

confidence of young adults. This will attempt to explore the gaps that exist between the majority

of the educated female population and the relative few who reach the top levels of management.

This research will attempt to identify specific factors that contribute to this achievement gap.

Significance of Study

In order to explore the research question, previous studies were first examined,

particularly those focused on the concepts of supportive parenting and career confidence.

Research reveals that there are major gaps in the study of career-confidence. A significant

amount of existing research focuses on career development and career assessment, while few studies specifically address career confidence. Furthermore, most of the research on parenting focuses on early childhood development, rather than development during teenage years.

The research presented here attempts to fill some of these gaps with respect to advancing the understanding of the effects of supportive parenting in adolescence on later career confidence and achievement. The results of this research will be analyzed to see if there is a direct correlation between supportive parenting and the degree to which young adults feels confident about their careers. If a significant relationship is found, we can better conclude that supportive parenting plays a significant role in the career confidence of young adults.

Definition of Key Terms

- *Supportive parenting* refers to the parenting style that a child receives through childhood development. This paper will cover two main categories of supportive parenting: emotional support and instrumental support.

- *Positive parenting* relates to being a sensitive caregiver. The inverse is referred to as *Negative Parenting.*

- *Parent/s* refers to a child's caregiver/s.

- *Non-traditional parents* can include adoptive parents, aunts, other extended family members, gay/lesbian couples, or stepparents.

- *Traditional parents* are a two-parent household consisting of both biological mother and father.

- *Confidence* in a broad context, is the degree to which a person believes in him- or herself.

- *Career confidence.* While there are many forms of confidence and various ways of measuring it, this research focuses on measuring how much an undergraduate student

2

feels confident about their performance and their qualifications upon entering the

workforce.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This literature review is structured to follow the development of a child from adolescence through the college years, focusing on the importance of supportive parenting throughout a person's life. Also, this research examines the varying roles that parenting plays in shaping a child's career decisions. The purpose of the literature review is to provide the reader a clear understanding of how supportive parenting can be measured and how it may relate to career confidence in young adults.

Supportive Parenting

Family researchers define parental supportive behavior as nurturing or affective (Barber, Stolz, & Olsen, 2005). This literature review focuses on several aspects of supportive parenting drawn from various fields and explains the characteristics across different views of parenting.

The first comprehensive study on this subject is presented by Seay, Freysteinson, and McFarlane (2014). The researchers examine positive parenting and negative parenting, and the impact of each approach on children. Seay et al. (2014) define the concept of supportive parenting as a continuous and unconditional relationship in the form of caring, teaching, leading, communicating, and providing support between the parent(s) and a child. They conclude that supportive parenting behaviors have positive effects on children. Moreover, the study highlights undesirable outcomes of negative parenting, which could lead to child abuse. In addition to the findings of the study, the researchers illustrate the significance of educating parents on the importance of supportive parenting (Seay et al., 2014). Their research shows the positive impact of parental supportive behavior on the children in a broader sense, and more research is required

to assess the specific effect of supportive parenting behavior on different aspects of a child's life, such as their future career achievements.

A cross-cultural study by McNeely and Barber (2010) divides parental supportive behavior into two main forms: emotional and instrumental support. The concept of supportive parenting defined by McNeely and Barber (2010) is especially relevant to the research presented here because it studied the supportive parenting behavior in 12 cultures across Africa, Asia, Australia, the Americas, the Balkans, Europe, and the Middle East.

Emotional Support

In order to help define emotional support, Schaefer (1965) introduced the Children's Report of Parent Behavior Inventory (CRPBI) to assess emotional and companionate behaviors in parents. This scale asks adolescents ten questions to figure out how parents make their children feel.

1. makes youth feel better after talking over my worries with him or her,
2. makes youth feel better when upset,
3. cheers youth up when he or she is sad,
4. shows youth love,
5. praises youth,
6. enjoys doing things with youth,
7. is easy to talk to,
8. smiles at youth,
9. gives youth care and
10. attention.

In the study conducted by McNeely and Barber (2010), the researchers combined CRPBI with their coding and categorized the emotional and companionate support as the behaviors that transfer the feeling of love and care to the adolescent. Their categories consist of:

1. Affection and encouragement: Parents are the main role model for the children, in most cases for their whole lives (there are exceptions that children do not want to set their parent/s as their role model). Therefore, parents play a major role in encouraging children throughout their lives, such as providing encouragement to achieve their personal goals. Emotional support in form of affection includes references to being loved, told they are loved, given attention, or being treated in a caring manner.

2. Talk/Listen: Talking and listening are the basis for communication. No relationship would survive without effective communication. A child needs to be able to exchange dialogue with the parent, and the child must feel that the parent listens to them when they talk.

3. Show physical affection: This includes smiles, kisses, and hugs from the parents.

4. Do things with me: This part emphasized the importance of performing activities with the child or attending events with the child.

5. Praise me: Parent expresses admiration or makes positive remarks to the child.

According to McNeely and Barber (2010), these five behaviors are the most important ways that parents can emotionally support their children. The first four items were found to have the same meaning across different cultures (McNeely & Barber, 2010), demonstrating that parental emotional support has some universal meaning across all cultures. Only the last item, praise me, is perceived in two different ways across different cultures: emotional care and physical care (McNeely & Barber, 2010).

Instrumental Support

Instrumental support is distinct from emotional support, as it comes in the form of providing financial resources and taking physical care of the child. There are several measures to evaluate this support, starting with the metric designed by Vaux (1988): the Social Supports Behavior scale (SS-B). Vaux presents the following behaviors to measure the instrumental support of parents:

1. bought clothes,

2. bought meals,

3. bought little presents,

4. gave or loaned money,

5. assistance with school work,

6. help with chores,

7. make arrangements for youth,

8. show youth how to do something new, and

9. assistance with transportation.

McNeely and Barber (2010) combined and modified Vaux's SS-B scale with their coding and introduced the following subcategories for instrumental supportive behaviors:

1. Buy/provide things I want: This support is when parent gives child material items such as gifts or other monetary resource.

2. Provide necessities: This is economic support by providing basic necessitaties to the child such as food, clothes, a home.

3. Give me money: This financial support is for allowance or bank funds that parents provide to a child.

4. Support for education: This support could be in form of instrumental support by providing financial resources such as paying for the child's college tuition, dorm, and textbook expenses. Support for education can constitute emotional support as well; parents instill in the child of the benefits of higher education, and they can go on to provide guidance on issues such as deciding among colleges and majors.

5. Take care of me: This can be referred to as physical care.

6. Help me: refers to general help or assistance by the parent.

The result of the McNeely and Barber (2010) study shows that there are some differences in instrumental support across different cultures. For example, some cultures reported that providing material goods is the most important form of instrumental support, whereas some other cultures reported that helping with tasks as the most important form of support. In general, to buy or provide necessities is viewed as the most important form of parental instrumental support, followed by support for education.

The Importance of Supportive Parenting

All in all, adolescents in the McNeely and Barber (2010) study show that supportive parenting behavior that makes children feel loved has a greater effect than other supportive parenting behaviors in both the emotional and instrumental support categories. Moreover, their study concludes that adolescents in all cultures feel most loved when parents show the following supportive behaviors (in order of importance): affection, encouragement, and provision of material goods.

Kulkarni (2010) finds that 30% of children who lack supportive parenting develop social, emotional, and intellectual problems. Considering McNeely and Barber (2010) together with Kulkarni (2010), the importance of supportive parenting can be understood in more depth. Based

on the above literature, there is a connection between supportive parenting and positive outcomes for children.

Supportive Parenting and Interpersonal Relationships

Raby et al. (2015) studied the impact of supportive parenting (referred to as sensitive caregivers in their research) on children's social competence. Their results show that while some personality qualities can be inherited (Kendler & Baker, 2007), supportive parenting has direct and indirect effects on children's relationships throughout their lives.

According to their teachers, students that received higher levels of parental support in the first three years of their life exhibit a higher social competence with their peers at school (Patterson, 1998). Moreover, the results of Raby et al. (2015) show that these children—ones who had sensitive caregivers—are most likely to have better relationships with their romantic partners later in life. Parental supportive behavior could also lead to higher social competence. This improvement in social competence with both peers and partners could potentially extend to relationships at work with managers and coworkers, and have an indirect correlation to how confident an individual may feel entering into the workforce.

Autonomy-Supportive Parenting and Children's Executive Function

Bindman, Pomerantz, and Roiman (2015) measured children's achievements when parents provided autonomy-support behaviors to the children. Bindman et al. (2015) describe autonomy-supportive parenting as giving children the chance to occasionally perform tasks on their own, which encourages children to be autonomously motivated. During this time, the children may face challenging activities, which require Executive Functions (EF) to solve them. Cartwright (2012) describes EF as "an array of processes, such as attention, inhabitation, working memory, and cognitive flexibility, which provide the means by which individuals

control their own behavior, work toward goals, and manage complex cognitive processes" (P.

24).

Bindman et al. (2015) show that when parents provide autonomy to their children from

an early age, this autonomy fosters the development of children's EF. As a result, children with a

more developed EF tend to do better in school. Therefore, the researchers conclude that there is a

relationship between autonomy-supportive parenting and development of Executive Functions.

This enhanced EF, which will assist children's achievements at school, might be related to

achievements in the workplace.

Parental Feedback and Performance

Gershgoren, Tenenbaum, Gershgoren, and Eklund (2011) studied the effect of parental

feedback on young athletes' performance. They conducted a study on the performance of 12-

year-old athletes by asking their parents to provide feedback to their children. The purpose of the

study was to learn if these young athletes would consider their parents' advice and see if it would

help them to perform better. They conclude that parental feedback and involvement in sports

generally has a positive outcome on the children's performance. The study demonstrates that

when children receive emotional support from their parents in the form of verbal feedback, they

perform better in sports. This point could possibly be expanded to the importance of emotional

support in other aspects of a child's life. However, it is not clear if Gershgoren et al. (2011),

which was performed on 12-year-old athletes, can be expanded to children of other ages, both

older and younger. Moreover, additional research is required to ascertain whether giving children

feedback in other areas of their lives, such as in their careers, would have the same positive

outcomes.

Parents and Mentoring

Articles make little mention about the role of families in mentoring their sons and daughters when it comes to their careers. Brownell (1994) highlights that women cite a lack of mentoring as an obstacle to career advancement; this was statistically different from male respondents. This evidence shows the importance of mentoring, particularly for younger women. This begs the question, "can the parents of young women serve as mentors?" A father or a mother, who has gained invaluable work experiences through his or her career, could transfer their knowledge to their children. Providing guidance is a crucial element of supportive parenting behavior. Could clear and informative guidance from parent-to-daughter fulfill, if not all, at least part of the mentoring required for career success? Can this supportive behavior boost their career confidence?

Supportive Parenting Summary

According to the research, supportive parenting behaviors predict positive outcomes in children in different settings and across different cultures (Barber et al., 2005). Parental support in the form of emotional and instrumental support can make children feel loved (McNeely and Barber, 2010). It can also improve their interpersonal relationships and boost their Executive Function capabilities (Cartwright, 2012; Raby et al., 2015). Moreover, child athletes performed better when they received parental support in form of feedback through encouragement (Gershgoren et al., 2011).

<center>**Parents and their Children's Careers**</center>

Parental Support and Career Success

Career success is important to most adults, but it has special significance for young adults. It is often considered a developmental milestone, sometimes even more important than

<center>11</center>

marriage and parenthood (Arnett, 2002). Besides an unideal economic climate, there are other factors that influence success and determine why some people achieve higher management levels in their careers than others (Mortimer, 2009). There is currently not enough research on whether positive parenting may play a contributory role in a young adult's career success.

Faas, Benson, and Kaestle (2012) found that there is a connection between a family's socioeconomic resources and the expectation of education and eventual career success for their children. According to their results, children of families with higher socioeconomic resources are more likely to attend college and earn a degree. Similarly, when parents have higher educational expectations for their children, those children are more likely to attend college.

Faas et al. (2012) found that parents with higher incomes are more likely to be able to provide more material support to their children. For example, these families might be able to pay for expenses such as their children's college tuition or private tutors. These socioeconomic factors, combined with a family's higher educational expectations, make children more likely to achieve higher levels of education. Moreover, an employee with a higher level of education tends to be more successful at the workplace, and this success could lead to a higher level of career satisfaction (Faas et al., 2012). Furthermore, the findings of Jones and Whitmore (1995) support the Faas et al. (2012) study from an employer's standpoint. It concludes that education-oriented employees have a better chance of career advancement because companies perceive them as a value-generating source (Jones and Whitmore, 1995).

These articles all highlight the importance of education in career advancement. Most of the young adults in these studies were able to attain higher levels of education due to parental instrumental support, where parents were able to pay for children's school expenses. Based on these findings, the connection between parental support and career achievement becomes more

12

evident. However, there is not enough research on how emotional support from parents plays a role in career confidence and eventual success.

The Role of Confidence

In the book *The Confidence Code*, Kay and Shipman (2014) define the meaning of confidence as "the quality that turns thoughts into actions." The research proposed here is focused on confidence at the workplace, which we will refer to as career confidence. Though there is much literature on career assessment and career success, there remains limited research on career confidence, which is presented here.

Self-Confidence in Career Planning and Reaching Career Goals

In any industry, employees can be indecisive about their career paths and goals. McAuliffe et al. (2006) studied the relationship between self-confidence in career planning and reaching career goals by introducing the Career Planning Confidence Scale (CPCS). The scale consists of six factors: deciding, implementing decisions, information seeking, self-assessment, readiness to make career decisions, and generating options. The purpose of CPCS is to measure employees' readiness and confidence in making career decisions, and subsequently reaching those goals. McAuliffe et al. (2006) discover that having self-confidence is a noticeable factor in the career planning of employees, because confident employees are able to make career goals, follow them, and, consequently, become more successful in their fields. This study establishes a connection between employees' self-confidence and their career success.

The weakness of this study is that it does not address how self-confidence is attained. According to McAuliffe et al. (2006), self-confidence is a major factor in career success. Therefore, there is a need for more research establish the roots of self-confidence.

Self-Confidence and Earning Inequality

The advantages of having self-confidence are more than achieving higher positions at work. Self-confidence also has impacts on other areas of a person's career. According to Keller (2010), confident people have willpower, which helps make them more optimistic about the future. Keller (2010) developed a self-confidence scale to measure participants' confidence and its correlation with earning. He concluded that "people who are determined and able to control their future *ceteris paribus* earn more" (Keller, 2010). As to this finding, the researcher explains that confident people are highly determined, and this determination leads them to believing in themselves, which gives them a sense that they have more control over their fate. This is important because, as Keller (2010) finds, self-confidence is the single most influential factor in a person's earnings. A person often has to believe that he or she is capable and deserving of higher income to make that aspiration a reality. In a related vein, as Arnett (2002) discusses, adolescents perceive their careers as achievements. Therefore, higher earnings could satisfy this sense of accomplishment in adolescents and possibly improve their perceptions of themselves. The findings of these two studies provide evidence that self-confidence has a connection to both earning potential and the feeling of achievement. Still, there is little explanation regarding the origins of self-confidence. More research is required.

Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale

Dr. Morris Rosenberg (1965) introduced a self-reported scale to measure high school student's self-esteem. The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSE) consists of ten questions to measure positive or negative feelings of the participants about themselves. There are four possible answers in the Likert scale: "strongly agree," "agree," "disagree," or "strongly disagree." The following items are provided in the scale:

1. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.

2. At times I think I am no good at all.

3. I feel that I have a number of good qualities.

4. I am able to do things as well as most other people.

5. I feel I do not have much to be proud of.

6. I certainly feel useless at times.

7. I feel that I'm a person of worth.

8. I wish I could have more respect for myself.

9. All in all, I am inclined to think that I am a failure.

10. I take a positive attitude toward myself.

While the RSE scale was originally conducted to measure high school students' self-reported confidence, the research presented here applies this scale to college students. Though RSE does not specifically measure career confidence, it has been used worldwide to measure self-worth in a variety of settings. The diversity and wide-scale use of RSE has made it a globally accepted scale (Rosenberg, 1965) and fitting for the research purpose.

The Role of Gender

Fifty-seven percent of U.S. college graduates are women, yet only 5.6% of the top Fortune 500 companies' CEO's are women (Guo, 2014; "Women CEOs of The S&P 500", 2017). Statistics provided by the University of Nevada, Las Vegas, show that in 2014, 23,813 students enrolled in the undergraduate program, of which 10,666 (44.8%) were male and 13,147(55.2%) were female (University of Nevada, Las Vegas, Facts & Stats, 2017). Where are the rest of the educated women? What is the reason for this gap? Why do these educated women fail to reach top positions at the same rate as their male counterparts?

Gender Differences within the Hospitality Industry

According to Santero-Sanchez, Segovia-Perez, Castro-Nunez, Figueroa-Domecq, & Talon-Ballestero (2015), the female participation rate in the labor market is growing, but their working conditions, and also their job quality, are not as good as those of men. Santero-Sanchez et al (2015) focus mainly on the tourism industry, and in particular the hospitality industry, because the industry is growing and has a significant need for more human resources. Women who work in the hospitality industry often work in unfavorable conditions. This includes higher unemployment rates, employment contracts that are not as valuable, and take up a larger proportion of part-time work (Santero-Sanchez et al., 2015). The result of the study shows while women are a major part of the workforce, on average they have lower-quality jobs in comparison to men.

The job quality disparity between men and women only expands with age (Santero-Sanchez et al., 2015). As men age and gain industry work experience, they often have higher positions and better quality jobs (Santero-Sanchez et al., 2015). By contrast, women's age and work experience does not seem to relate to job quality as much as it does for men. This discrepancy falls in line with a research question introduced earlier, as it relates to both gender and the role of confidence. Nowadays, more women than men are entering the hospitality industry, which is in line with UNLV's Hotel College graduation rate, but the quality of their jobs are not compatible. This study intends to explore the reasons for this gender disproportionality and investigate whether supportive parenting may play a role. Are men more confident than women, and is supportive parenting the reason behind it? If so, why? One implication of this research is to hypothesize how women can become more confident and attain

higher quality jobs. Outside of supportive parenting, other key factors related to career advancement have already been identified through existing research.

General Managers' Perceptions of Factors related to Career Development

Brownell (1994) studied the factors that affect employees' career development, specifically women's career development. She acknowledges that communication skills and job-related activities are the main factors for individual advancement. Employees who have better communication skills are more likely to advance in their careers.

McNealy et al. (2010), mentioned earlier, categorizes communication in the form of talking and listening as part of emotional supportive behavior. Children start communicating with their parents from early ages. The purpose of communication changes over time, but the basis of how to do it in an effective way remains, in essence, the same. Findings of Brownell (1994) link the role of supportive parenting to career advancement, with specific regard to communication.

Brownell (1994) also studied each gender's view on the required qualifications for advancement in the hospitality industry. Through a content analysis of survey responses conducted on hotel general managers, Brownell (1994) shows that mentoring has an impact on career advancement. She claims that numerous studies have reported a lack of mentors as one of the main career obstacles women confront.

In another study, Zhong, Couch, & Blum (2013) explored the role of hospitality education in women's career advancement. They emphasize that education can help women reach top level management positions. The findings of their research suggested preparing women for leadership by focusing on mentoring and providing female role models to educators and employees. The research suggests that hospitality schools need to focus on teaching female

students more leadership skills by provide mentoring programs that encourage women to mentor other women.

Proposed Conceptual Framework

The primary objective of the study presented here is to explore the role of parental support in children's career confidence. DiPrete and Eirich (2006) argue that parental support has a positive outcome on children's lives. It is therefore possible that parents can help their children improve their self-confidence and teach them to be more determined, which may in turn help them to be more confident in the workplace.

From this conceptual standpoint, instrumental support helps young adults with their financial and practical needs, whereas emotional support guides and helps them to find their way in life and quite possibly their careers as well. Therefore, the purpose of the methodology is to investigate the relationships between the different supportive parenting types, and ultimately determine if and how parenting may affect a college student's self-reported career confidence. From this purpose, the study was proposed with the following hypotheses.

H1: Emotional support is a predictor of career confidence.

H2: Instrumental support is a predictor of career confidence.

H3: The total of both emotional and instrumental support predicts career confidence.

H4: The total of both emotional and instrumental support in its ability to predict career confidence differs based on gender.
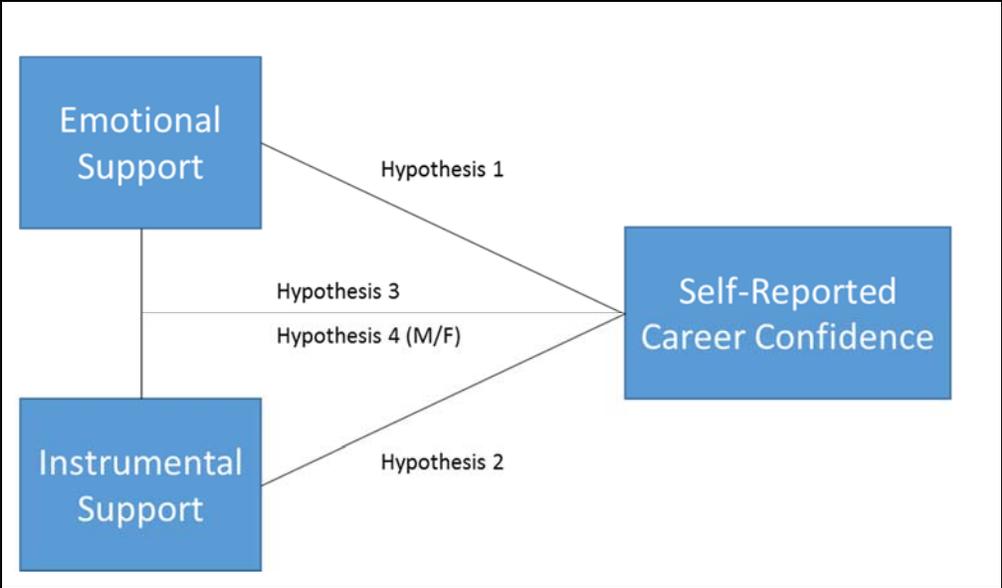
Figure 1. Originally proposed research model.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This field of research is new, and has little existing research. Therefore, an exploratory approach to pursuing more knowledge in this field is applied. Exploratory research is considered an appropriate first step in gaining new understanding before more in-depth research is to be performed (Zikmund, Babin, Carr, & Griffin, 2008). Exploratory research is conducted to clarify ambiguous situations or discover ideas that may have potential practical implications (Zikmund et al., 2008).

Design

For this study, both quantitative and qualitative data was collected through a survey. Because this is a new field of research, the use of both quantitative and qualitative data was collected with the intention of gaining a greater chance of gathering meaningful data. Both quantitative and qualitative methodologies, of course, have strengths and weaknesses. Quantitative data allows for larger-scale data collection via standardized questions and categorized responses; qualitative results, however, do not limit how participants can respond, which is especially useful with exploratory research, as it may not be known at the onset of the study how best to categorize responses. Respondents may even come up with categories that have not yet been considered by researchers. Therefore, in this situation, a mixed-methods approach seemed most prudent.

All analysis was performed in RStudio statistical package. The statistical analysis employed Kruskal-Wallis non-parametric test for equal means, and test of independence via polychoric correlations among the response and predictor variables. Non-parametric test of

means and polychoric correlations were used since our data was Likert scale data on an ordinal scale, and not interval or ratio scale. Holgado-Tello et al. (2010) recommend using polychoric correlations instead of Pearson correlation when data is ordinal. According to Coote (1998, p. 404): "Product-moment correlation matrices are often used, although they are only appropriate for continuous variables" (Joreskog and Sorbom, 1996). Information collected using five- and seven-point Likert scales have ordinal properties (Bollen, 1989). Ordinal variables do not have origins or units of measurement and should not be treated as though they are continuous (Joreskog, 1994), as treating ordinal data as continuous increases the likelihood of correlated error variances, particularly where the initial factor loadings are large. The purpose of this design is to determine whether and to what degree different types of supportive parenting can predict a student's self-reported career confidence.

While data was collected on ethnicity and parental type, this data was not used in this study due to sample limitations, which will be addressed in a further section. Additionally, the open-ended questions relating to supportive parenting may provide qualitative insights into the validity of the model. The responses to these questions were designed to illuminate the interpretation of the quantitative results.

Intended Sample

This study will rely upon a non-probability sample based on convenience and incorporating judgment sampling, both of which are common with exploratory research (Zikmund et al., 2008). As is often the case with graduate-level thesis research, a survey of UNLV students will be both convenient and effective for the intended purpose of this study. Specifically, the judgment sampling techniques allow for the targeting of soon-to-be graduates who are entering the workforce—in this case, students from a hospitality capstone class. The

capstone class is the last class of an undergraduate's academic career, and it seeks to bring

together all of his/her learning experiences into a single final project. This sample was selected

because students in this class are at a stage of their undergraduate careers when they are most

likely to be prepared to answer questions about career confidence. They are most likely

graduating and about to enter the workforce, or if the student is already employed, the attainment

of a degree would possibly lead to significant career advancement. The original target sample

size was 200 participants. While an equal balance of male and female participants would be ideal

for one of the hypotheses being tested, this could not have been ensured. However, the main aim

of sampling was to achieve a sample that is representative of UNLV's hospitality program.

UNLV is noteworthy for sample selection because the university was ranked the second most

diverse campus in the country ("UNLV Ranked Second Most Diverse Campus in the Nation,"

2015).

Survey

The survey (Appendix A) is broken up into five sections of questions. Section 1 consists

of two questions that ask about the student's career confidence. These questions are derived from

Rosenberg's (1965) self-esteem scale. These questions were asked first, so that no bias about

their confidence was introduced. Section 2 asks the student about what parental environment

they grew up in, as the structure of American families has changed dramatically since the 1960s

(Schulte, 2014). This section is not central to the quantitative analysis but may prove useful for

rerunning the model using different subsets of the data and for future research. Section 3 asks

about how much emotional support the student received from his or her parents. Section 4 asks

the student about the degree of instrumental support received. Both Sections 3 and 4, because

they relate to supportive parenting, contain open-ended questions that allow the respondent to

provide more detail about the support they received from their parents. Finally, Section 5 is where general demographic information is collected, specifically, gender, age, and ethnicity.

Data Collection

The survey was conducted during the Spring semester of 2017. Qualtrics, an online survey tool, was used to conduct the survey on students. The survey was conducted only after full Institutional Review Board approval was gained (Appendix C). Upon completion of data collection and validation, the quantitative and qualitative analysis was performed.

Collected Sample

The survey was created and submitted to the Institutional Review Board (IRB) office at UNLV. The IRB approved the survey as exempt status on March 22, 2017. The survey was available immediately for distribution. For the first phase of data collection, UNLV Hospitality professors of the capstone class were contacted as outlined in the original methodology. Formal instructions were provided in an email to the professors on how to distribute the survey to their undergraduate students. The class codes were HMD 454 and TCA 490 in the Hotel College at UNLV. A total of five professors distributed the survey to the students on March 28, 2017, followed by a reminder email that was sent on April 17, 2017. At this point, 150 students were targeted and 51 responses were collected with a response rate at this point of 34%. Due to a small sample size, the decision was made to expand the sample to all UNLV Hotel School undergraduates. The survey was next distributed on May 1, 2017 and a reminder was sent two weeks later. The survey was closed on June 5, 2017 because the Spring 2017 semester was completed at that point. In total, 65 surveys were received from 2,264 undergraduate students in the Hotel College at UNLV, a 2.86% response rate. The expanded sample resulted in participants including individuals outside of the original target population, namely those who were not young

adults and some young adults who were not in the last year of college. This decision was taken with an understanding that the sample may not be completely representative of the intended target population. Also, it was understood that by including respondents outside the target population, the findings may not be generalizable. Due to the exploratory nature of this study, the additional non-target sample data was collected. It was not known at the time if the additional non-target sample data would be included in the analysis section. The researcher was well aware that by including them, the findings would not be generalizable. The limitations of sampling are addressed in chapters 4 and 5.

Final Sample

Among the 65 surveys that were retained, some participants only answered the qualifying questions and abandoned the survey. Those responses were deleted from the sample to avoid misleading information. This left the sample with 46 responses, 22 of which were confirmed young adults between the ages of 20 and 24. Even within these 46 surveys, there was some missing data; however, there were enough complete responses to key questions to enable them to be retained in the study.

Age and gender. The youngest respondent was 20 years old and the oldest was 50 years old. Initially, the goal of the survey was to collect data from the age group 20-24, but since the sample is small, the responses above age 24 were kept for additional analysis purposes. 87.5% of the female respondents were between 20 and 27 years old, and 12.6% of the female respondents were between 25 and 50 years old. 63% of the male respondents were between 20 and 27 years old, and 37% of the male respondents were between 25 and 50. Among the participants, 19 were male, 16 were female, and 11 participants abandoned the survey before the age question (Table 1).

Table 1

Survey Participant Summary Statistics

	Gender		
Age Category	Male	Female	Gender Not Reported
20-24	9	13	0
24+	10	3	0
No Age Reported	0	0	11

Note. n=46.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

Preliminary Analysis

Prior to looking at the main research questions, some interesting patterns in the response

data began to emerge. This chapter begins first with some notable findings about how the

participants responded to the career confidence questions. The concept of career confidence

revealed itself to be not as clear-cut as first anticipated, which led to adjustments to the

methodology. This pre-analysis was not part of the original purpose of this study, and because it

dealt with career confidence in isolation, all respondents, including non-young-adults, were

included.

Preliminary Analysis Results

To measure confidence, the survey asked participants to respond in two ways.

Participants were asked to describe how much they agreed to statements related to their ability to

perform in a future job, as well as if they felt they were qualified for their future job of choice.

First, it was observed that no one responded as "strongly disagree" to the confidence questions.

This indicates that in this sample, there is at least a baseline level of confidence among all

respondents. Eight participants did "disagree" on the qualifications question, and five

participants responded "disagree" on the performance question. All other participants either

"agree" or "strongly agree" that they have career confidence (Table 2).

Table 2

Confidence Responses

	Confidence Responses	
	Related to Qualifications	Related to Performance
Strongly Agree	12	19
Agree	26	22
Disagree	8	5
Strongly Disagree	0	0

Note. n=46.

One possible explanation for why no one strongly disagrees with having confidence—either in performance or qualifications—may have to do with the sample being college students. Faas, Benson, and Kaestle (2012) show that those from families with higher socioeconomic resources are more likely to attend college, and a college graduate on average will go further in professional work. Therefore, subjects already in college may be predisposed to having confidence.

The confidence responses were recoded to have numeric values. A t-test between the male and female confidence levels was performed, but with a small sample size it was inconclusive to determine that males are significantly more confident than females, as has been inferred by previous research. While not statistically significant, males did show a tendency to score higher in confidence as it relates to both qualifications and performance versus females. For the confidence in qualifications question, the mean for male participant was 3.37, whereas, the mean for female participants was 3.00 (0.37 difference), same as confidence in performance question, where the mean for males was 3.63 and 3.25 for females, a 0.38 difference (Table 3).

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics of Confidence by Gender

	Male			Female		
	n	M	SD	*n*	M	SD
Confidence by qualifications	19	3.37	0.68	16	3.00	0.52
Confidence by performance	19	3.63	0.50	16	3.25	0.68

Note. Does not include responses from those that did not report gender.

These results on confidence and gender align with Jakobsson (2012), which found that among students ages 18 to 35, when it comes to performance in mathematics, women tended to be underconfident whereas men tended to be overconfident. The study asked student to predict what grade they would receive in a macroeconomic exam; after the exam, the results of the exams were compared to their own expectations. The males' predictions more closely matched their predicted performance, whereas women underpredicted their performance. This example may help explain why women reported less confidence on the performance-based question in the research presented here.

According to Santero-Sanchez, Segovia-Perez, Castro-Nunez, Figueroa-Domecq, & Talon-Ballestero (2015), mentioned in the literature review, women are a main part of the workforce, but they have lower quality jobs in comparison to men. The results presented here, while not statistically significant, does suggest the confirmatory finding that women have lower career confidence than their male counterparts. This could provide further support to Santero-Sanchez et al (2015), because if women feel that they do not necessarily have the qualifications of a job and cannot perform well, then they will not advance in their career and occupy entry-to-

mid-level positions. Additionally, according to McAuliffe et al. (2006), employees with higher

levels of confidence are more likely to set and attain career goals. In this study, men showed

higher levels of confidence, even though it is assumed that both males and females have the

same quality and level of education at this point in their lives.

A closer look was taken at the confidence questions without considering gender. As

mentioned, the confidence questions were asked in two ways: as related to qualifications and to

performance. It was seen that across entire sample, the average was different. The null

hypothesis was that the means were the same. The analysis showed that we could reject the null

hypothesis. Therefore, the mean confidence scores were statistically significantly higher for

performance than qualifications (Table 4). Confidence asked as performance was higher than

confidence as qualifications. Performing a t-test, the mean differences were significant at p-value

of $< .05$ level.

Table 4

*Paired T-Test Results Comparing Confidence Related to Qualifications and Confidence Related
to Performance*

					95% CI		
Confidence type	n	M	SD	*t*	LB	UB	Decision
Qualifications	46	3.09	0.66	-2.34	-0.40	-0.03	Reject
Performance	46	3.30	0.66				

Note. p-value = 0.02363.

Primary Analysis Results

Introduction

From the preliminary analysis results, it was discovered that career confidence could not be treated as a single concept. Instead, qualification-based career confidence and performance-based career confidence had to be addressed differently. Based on these initial results from the preliminary analysis, changes were made to the original research model so that each confidence type was treated separately. Another adjustment to the hypotheses was made based on our sampling limitations. As it was understood that non-young adults were part of the sample, hypotheses were added to see if the inclusion of these non-young adults would prove significant. By understanding whether they were significant, a decision could be made on if the data from non-young adults could be included in the primary analysis. The revised hypotheses are:

- H1: Qualification- and performance-based career confidence are correlated with instrumental and emotional support factors.

- H2: Instrumental support factors, gender, and young-adulthood are predictors of qualification-based career confidence.

- H3: Emotional support factors, gender, and young-adulthood are predictors of qualification-based career confidence.

- H4: Instrumental support, gender, and young-adulthood are predictors of performance-based career confidence.

- H5: Emotional support, gender, and young-adulthood are predictors of performance-based career confidence.

Hypothesis 1: Qualification- and performance-based career confidence are correlated with instrumental and emotional support factors.

The association between the response variables and the predictors were next tested by computing 95% confidence intervals for true polychoric correlations between the response variables and the predictors. The estimated polychoric correlations between the dependent variables and the predictors are shown in Table 5. In the table, qualification-based confidence is referred to as QC (confidence question 1) and performance-based confidence is referred to as PC (confidence question 2).

Table 5

Polychoric Correlations between the Dependent Variables (QC, PC) and the Predictors

	QC	PC
QC	1	0.7435
PC	0.7435	1
IS15.Service	-0.03817	0.3429
IS16.Money	0.03589	0.4013
IS17.Ed	-0.04217	0.4621
IS18.Task	-0.05175	0.3847
ES12.Comm	-0.01301	0.2729
ES13.Encourage	0.05429	0.2355
ES14.Affection	0.1758	0.127

Table 6 shows the confidence intervals of polychoric correlations between qualification-based career confidence and the predictors. Since the confidence intervals for true polychoric

31

correlations between the response variables and the predictors in Table 6 contain zero, none of the predictors is significantly correlated with the two response variables.

Table 6

95% Confidence Intervals of Polychoric Correlations between Qualification (QC) Based Career Confidence and the Predictors

	QC-Lower Bound	QC-Upper Bound
QC	1.00	1.00
QP	0.53	0.95
IS15.Service	-0.47	0.39
IS16.Money	-0.38	0.45
IS17.Ed	-0.49	0.40
IS18.Task	-0.45	0.35
ES12.Comm	-0.41	0.38
ES13.Encourage	-0.35	0.46
ES14.Affection	-0.22	0.57

Table 7 depicts 95% confidence intervals of polychoric correlations between performance based career confidence (PC) and the predictor variables.

Table 7

Polychoric Correlations between Performance Based Career Confidence and the Predictors

	PC-Lower Bound	PC-Upper Bound
QC	0.53	0.95
PC	1.00	1.00
IS15.Service	-0.08	0.77
IS16.Money*	0.02	0.78
IS17.Ed*	0.06	0.86
IS18.Task*	0.02	0.75
ES12.Comm	-0.11	0.66
ES13.Encourage	-0.19	0.66
ES14.Affection	-0.30	0.56

Note. * = significant at 95% confidence level.

Table 7 shows that Instrumental Support predictors (Money, Education, and Task) are positively correlated with both of the response variables, and that these correlations are statistically significant. The correlation plot in Figure 2 provides a visual representation of these findings.
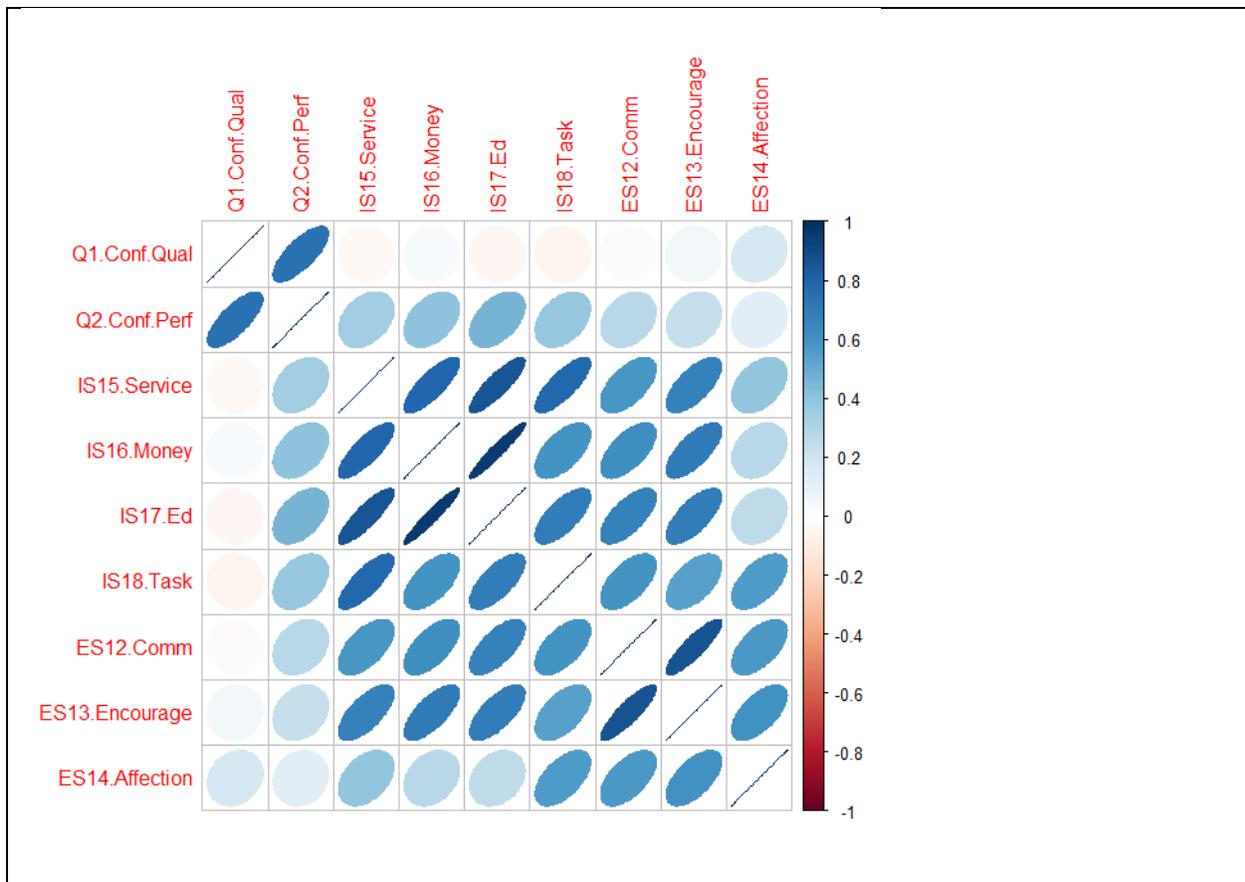
Figure 2. Correlation plot of confidence, instrumental, and emotional support items.

The results of the correlation analysis begin to suggest that there is some relationship between supportive parenting and career confidence. While this is not evidence of a causal relationship, the following hypotheses may show a more significant connection between supportive parenting and career confidence.

Hypotheses 2 through 5: Emotional and Instrumental Support, Gender, and Young-Adulthood on Qualification- and Performance-Based Career Confidence.

The purpose of testing hypotheses 2 through 5 was to determine if being a young adult (age 24 or younger) was significant to the eventual analysis (Figure 3).
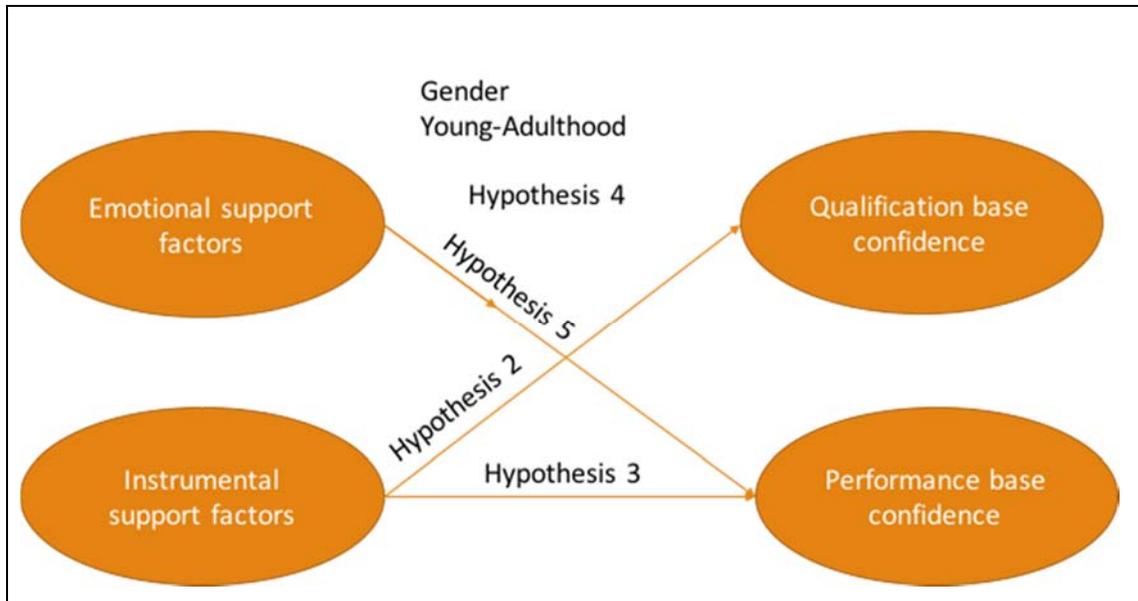
Figure 3. Hypotheses 2-5 research model.

The collected sample included respondents older than 24, so it had to first be determined if those responses could be included. By assigning a dummy code for young-adulthood, where <=24 years old was coded as 1 and >24 years old was coded as 0, it was discovered that young-adulthood was not significant to the model as seen in Table 8. Since there were multiple dependent variables, MANOVA was also considered for this research. However, it was concluded that MANOVA would likely have been supplemented by a follow-up ANOVA analysis regardless of the MANOVA analysis. Understanding performance- and qualification-based confidence was concluded to provide a stronger understanding, since an earlier finding in the preliminary analysis determined that confidence is not a straightforward concept. Also, because this research is testing multiple hypotheses, the use of a Bonferroni correction was considered. However, because confidence and support results were classified as categorical and not continuous data, the Bonferroni correction does not apply. Statistical significance is treated differently for continuous variables than categorical ones.

Table 8

Significance Levels of Young Adulthood in Linear Models

Dependent Variable	Support Category	Support Type	Young Adult (P-Value)
	Independent Variables		
Qualification Confidence	IS	Service	0.84
Qualification Confidence	IS	Money	0.65
Qualification Confidence	IS	Education	0.47
Qualification Confidence	IS	Tasks	0.84
Qualification Confidence	ES	Communication	0.69
Qualification Confidence	ES	Encouragement	0.96
Qualification Confidence	ES	Affection	0.43
Qualification Confidence	ES	Activities	0.78
Performance Confidence	IS	Service	0.20
Performance Confidence	IS	Money	0.08
Performance Confidence	IS	Education	0.04
Performance Confidence	IS	Tasks	0.44
Performance Confidence	ES	Communication	0.09
Performance Confidence	ES	Encouragement	0.42
Performance Confidence	ES	Affection	0.39
Performance Confidence	ES	Tasks	0.53

Note. ES = emotional support and IS = instrumental support.

Showing that being either a young adult or a non-young adult was not significant to the model gave some justification to incorporating the entire sample, which included non-young adults. The models were rerun with the full sample and the young adult variable was removed in order to observe if emotional support and instrumental support factors, along with gender, predict qualification- and emotional-support based confidence. This can be expressed as the following hypotheses, as visualized in Figure 4:

- H6: Instrumental support factors and gender are predictors of qualification-based career confidence.

- H7: Instrumental support factors and gender are predictors of performance-based career confidence.

- H8: Emotional support and gender are predictors of qualification-based career confidence.

- H9: Emotional support and gender are predictors of performance-based career confidence.
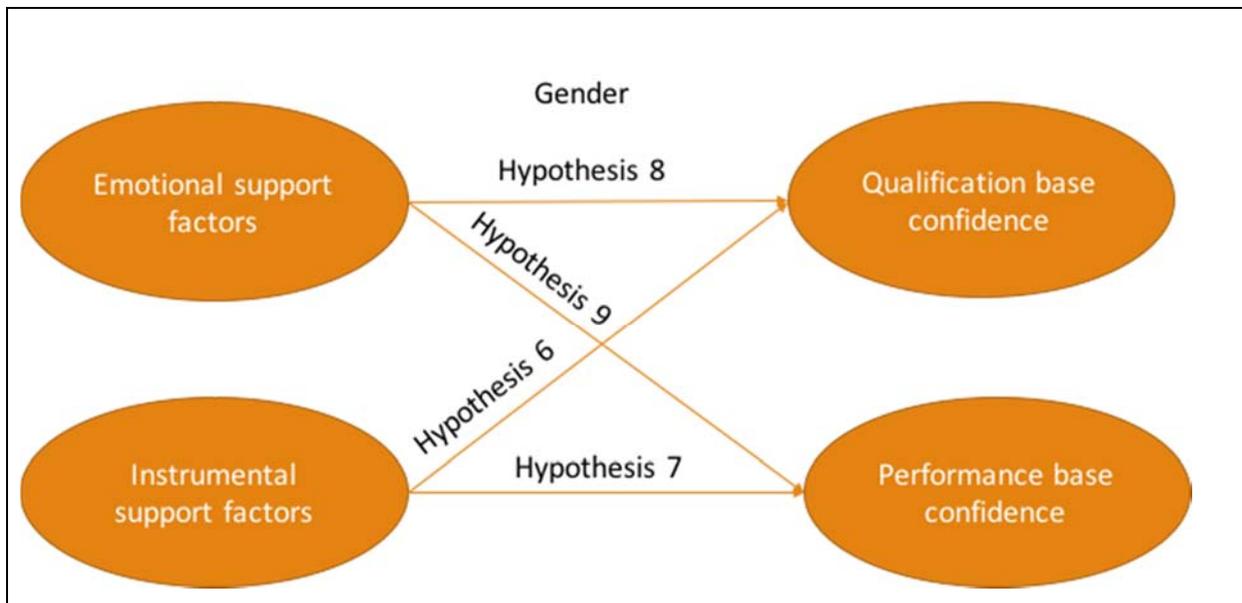
Figure 4. Hypotheses 6-9 research model.

From these hypotheses there were several notable and statistically significant findings, as show in Table 9. First, 9 out of 14 models run showed being male as a significant predictor of confidence, which aligned with Jakobsson's (2012) findings that males tend to be more confident. Second, instrumental support factors were the standout models in predicting performance-based confidence (Table 9). Money and Support of education were the most significant positive predictors of confidence. This aligns with the findings from Faas et al. (2012) that showed that children from higher socioeconomic status have a higher chance of going to college. Another finding was that more of the significant models predicted performance-based confidence (5 models), as opposed to qualification-based confidence (3 models). It appears it may be easier to predict confidence based on performance than it is to predict qualification-based confidence. This may suggest that at the undergraduate level, students are still unsure of how qualified they may be in regard to their career aspirations, whereas it may be easier to anticipate their ability to perform a certain job.

Table 9

Significant Results from Hypotheses 6 - 9

Dependent Variable	Independent Variables	Significant Predictors, Directionality and Effect Size						
		Never 2	3	4	5	6	Always 7	Gender M=0 F=1
Qualification Confidence	ES-Activities							
	ES-Communication							
	ES-Encouragement	*-2.0		*-1.57	*-1.71	*-1.48	* -1.35	. -.42
	ES-Affection			* +1.3				* -.47
	IS-Services	*-1.2		*-1.3			. -0.7	. -0.40
	IS-Money							. -0.45
	IS-Education							
	IS-Tasks							
Performance Confidence	ES-Activities							
	ES-Communication							. -.39
	ES-Encouragement							. -000
	ES-Affection							* -.49
	IS-Services							. -.45
	IS-Money		* +1.2	* +.95	. +.6		*.67	** -.66
	IS-Education		*+1.3			. +.82	* .74	* - .54
	IS-Tasks		. +.77				* .74	. -.37

*Note. *p<.05. **p<.01.*

Qualitative Analysis

        Theme 1: Instrumental and Emotional Support. Since the data set was small, the answers were categorized based on theme, following the McNeely and Barber (2010) research model. First, the answers that mentioned "love," "hug," and "kiss" were put into one category as emotional support in the from of verbal/physical expressions. The answers that mentioned "call" or "visit" were categorized together as emotional support. Then, all the answers that mentioned "money," "finance," and "tuition" were categorized as instrumental support.

        On the open-ended emotional-support question, "please list four specific things that your parents/caregivers do that make you feel like they love you?" each participant had the opportunity to provide answers in four text boxes. A total of 184 filled text responses were collected, with 40 left blank. Seventy-nine answers were related to emotional support. Among this 79, 51 responded that they feel loved by their parents because their parents verbally express their love and care. Twenty-eight responses indicated that they feel their parents love them because they call them or often visit them. Fifteen answers mentioned the word "support," which was unclear in determining if this referred to emotional or financial support (Table 9).

Table 10

Question Number 4: Emotional and Instrumental Support Themes

Theme	f
Emotional support	79
Verbal expression of love	51
"Call me" or "Come to visit me"	28
Financial support (money or education)	35
General support	15

One remarkable result was that 35 responses indicated that they feel "loved" by their parents based on financial or educational support. This was one of the most interesting findings of the research, in which parental instrumental support in form of "money" was listed as a sign of feeling loved. It is noteworthy because McNeely and Barber (2010) showed that the buying of provisions and necessities is viewed as the most important form of parental instrumental support, followed by paying for college. The result of this study confirms that parents paying for college is highly valued by young adults. However, it is interesting to note that paying for something, while instrumentally supportive in nature, can be described as a reason for why parents "love" their children, which is a generally thought of as an emotionally supportive term.

On the other open-ended question, "how do you think your parents could have provided you greater support?" which is a general support question, participants had to fill 3 boxes: one for mother, father, and other. A total of 138 text boxes contained data, with 36 null. The answers in this section were categorized into four categories. Twenty-six responses indicated that the students are happy with the level of support they have received from their parents and they believe that there is nothing else their parents could have done for them. Twenty-eight answers

indicated that their parents could have provided them more emotional support in form of "more guidance/advise" and "tell me they love me." Twelve students indicated that their parents could have financially supported them better in terms of "more money" and "financial help." Thirty-six percent of the responses indicated N/A. These N/A responses were not combined with the first category (happy with the current level of support).

Table 11

Question Number 7: Emotional and Instrumental Support Themes

Theme	*f*
Happy with the current level of support	26
More emotional support	28
More financial support	12
Non-response (NA)	36

Theme 2: Counterexamples of Support and Confidence. In addition to an analysis of emergent themes, an exploration into counterintuitive examples was also performed. Such uncommon data could be beneficial in providing understanding that purely quantitative data would not be able to provide. Through this analysis, it was discovered that some respondents indicated high levels of emotional support but did not report corresponding levels of confidence. Response number 28, a 24-year-old female who identified as Asian/Pacific Islander from a family with two parents in a first marriage, responded "disagree" to both questions relating to having confidence; however, she also provided the highest value of "always true" in response to 7 out of 8 emotional and instrumental support Likert questions. Here are some of her qualitative responses:

- They fully support my opinions.

- They contact me a lot

- They try to give me everything I want

- They lead me to good ways.

This respondent did indicate a 2 value (1 being "never true") to the instrumental support question "My parent/s and I perform activities or attend events together." This was the only aspect where the respondent felt they did not have support.

Respondents 10 and 20 are notable counterexamples, as they indicated high confidence despite moderate-to-low ES values. Respondent number 10, a 28-year-old male who identified as Asian/Pacific Islander from a family with two parents in a first marriage, responded "Agree" to both confidence questions. However, he marked a three on a 1-to-7 scale on all of the emotional support questions, which indicates low levels of emotional support. He also wrote "love" on all 3 open-ended support question. This response shows that, although this person did not receive a high level of emotional support, he nonetheless feels confident. A similar result was observed for respondent number 20, a 20-year-old white female who has a limited contact with her parents. She did not receive much emotional support from her parents, but she marked "Agree" on both confidence questions. These two responses indicate that confidence is a complex factor that can arise with or without parental emotional support.

Respondent number 32, a 38-year-old white male, was noteworthy because this subject represents a clear illustration of contrasting confidence as it relates to performance and qualifications. This respondent indicated "strongly agree" when asked about confidence as it relates to performance but indicated "disagree" when asked about confidence as it relates to qualifications. As indicated by the earlier significant finding in the quantitative analysis, reported

43

levels of confidence can vary based on the ways the response is solicited. This qualitative data provides a clear example that confidence is thought of in different ways.

Theme 3: Age and sophistication of response. The responses demonstrated a distinction between young adults and older adults, with younger adults tending to be more brief. For example: "pay for college," "financially support me," "They feed me." However, the responses provided by older subjects (those over 24-year-old) tended to be more detailed and sophisticated. For example, one response said: "Send money/support when they can." This suggests that older individuals may have a better understanding of their parents' financial situations. One possible reason for this is that because they are older now, they have a better perspective regarding the challenges of providing support to children. This insight may give older adults more understanding and respect for their parents.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

Implications

The results of the study suggested that, overall, men are more confident than women. However, it is not clear if they truly believe in themselves or if they simply project higher confidence. Future research may investigate if this high confidence could be a result of social norms and societal expectations of men. Additionally, this research does not measure overconfidence, which could be the case for some participants. Technically, no undergraduate student has yet started his or her professional career and are highly unlikely to have all the qualifications required for a professional job. Therefore, this would be an area for future research: why certain undergraduates feel that they have all the qualifications required for their career.

The results of this study show that students with high emotional support do not necessarily have higher career confidence. Based on the literature review, this was not the expected result. However, it is interesting to note that people can possess confidence even without receiving a lot of emotional support. Future research may examine whether confidence develops through multiple ways beyond just emotionally supportive parenting. Emotional support may be important in early childhood, but it is possible that because participants in this study are older, they are less reliant on the emotional support of their parents. It is also important to consider that confidence may derive from their social networks and being accepted by their friends or partners, as well as by broader society. Another possibility cause of the inconclusive connection between emotional support and confidence may be that social norms might cause

young adults to be embarrassed by having emotional support of their parents. Even if the connection is there, they may not be willing to disclose that they are emotionally connected.

Instrumental support does appear as significant in predicting career confidence—not significant enough at a p-value of less than .05, but with the combination of qualitative data, it becomes a notable finding. If we are to accept that a relationship exists between certain kinds of instrumental support and career confidence, then it may suggest the following: if a parent can provide their college-aged child education and money, is there then a connection to socioeconomic status and confidence? This research did not explore if confidence were related to the financing of the education, or if confidence derived from the college learning experience itself. Future research may want to explore whether college students consider the connections between the confidence gained from education and the background that was able to provide that schooling. The distinction here is that educational support, while typically considered a form of instrumental support, is also in some ways a form of emotional support. This aspect may have something to do with the enrichment that education provides, which contributes to a student's ability to go into the world autonomously.

Since the results of the study show that emotional support in the form of encouragement is marginally significant to confidence in performance, this suggests that women respond better encouragement than men. This idea is supported by Brownell (1994), which reports that women consider lack of mentoring to be a key obstacle to their career advancement. As it relates to my research, parents can therefore play a role as a mentor for their children, particularly daughters. For example, a working mother or father could share his or her work experiences with their daughter. This may also increase the child's confidence, as Kay and Shipman (2014) argue that confidence is a quality that will turn a person's thoughts into actions. Therefore, by this kind of

mentoring, children may feel as if they possess certain qualities and become more confident as a result. McAulliffe et al. (2006) shows that employees with higher self-confidence are more apt to set career goals and are more likely to reach those goals. Also as it relates to this study, for women in particular, mentoring may lead to career planning and career advancement beyond the middle-management level. Consequently, mentoring may help close the earning gap between men and women because confidence and earning are correlated (Keller, 2010).

This research was intended to be for exploratory purposes. While the findings led to only some statistically significant connections between instrumental support and career confidence, a stronger understanding of both career confidence and supportive parenting was discovered. Furthermore, this study reveals that confidence in young adults comes in different forms and that varying responses will occur if confidence is asked as a measure of qualification or performance. Confidence itself is complex and difficult to measure. Future researchers should make sure to be specific on the type of confidence they are investigating. They should also look more closely at the different types of supportive parenting. Even within one supportive parenting type, such as instrumental support, more studies could be developed to explore more closely what a young adult experiences when thinking about the monetary and educational support that they receive from their parents.

The literature review concluded that parental support in the form of emotional support and instrumental support are both important. However, the findings of the research show that instrumental support is a significant predictor, whereas emotional support is not. This is evidenced by examples of students that received little emotional support but still reported high confidence. This may suggest that young adults, in their college years, are more in need of instrumental support than emotional support—in particular, financial and educational assistance.

47

Because most of the parenting literature covered here focused on parental support during early childhood, more research is needed to study confidence and the link to parental support in young adulthood.

Despite the difficulty of defining emotional support, it represents for parents something that is monetarily free to give to a child. On the other hand, while instrumental support is more easily defined and has a tangible direct quality, this type of support is not free and is not possible for all parents to provide. Within the qualitative data, the themes of "love" and "call/visit" do frequently appear, and these forms of support do not require many monetary resources. So while not all parents can afford tuition, emotional support is something that can be provided for free or at a limited cost. While the question of whether every child will be accepting of the emotional support is beyond the scope of this research, it remains significant enough to report as an implication. Future research should look to explore emotional support to better understand why it is accepted in some cases and not in others.

Limitations

There were four key limitations, which are addressed in this section. First, there were issues of having a small sample size. Secondly, there were issues of data quality. Third, there were challenges of measuring emotional support. Fourth, limitations arising from cultural factors were considered.

Due to lack of participants, the sample is small, which puts a limitation on the generalizability of the findings of this research. Some of the surveys question asked the participants about their parents, which could be a sensitive topic for the students, causing them to skip the question or abandon the survey. This sensitivity may help explain why 9 of the 46

participants did not answer key Likert scale questions, which are important for quantitative analysis.

There were also incomplete and short answers provided. Since Qualtrics tracks the time each participant spent taking the survey, it was evident that some participated must have rushed through the questions, which could have affected the quality of their answers. Additionally, respondents included participants who were not part of the intended target population, such as older individuals. Since this study deals with personal matters related to self-reported confidence and family relationships, future researchers may want to opt to collect data that is more reactive with the participant. While this may make it more difficult to ensure anonymity, more and higher quality data may be acquired, especially for the qualitative data.

In a future design, it may be helpful to add an open-ended section to both confidence questions. For example, after each question researchers might add, "Please explain why do you feel this way," or, "Where do you feel you get this confidence?" Asking more specific open-ended questions may have provided more useful information regarding how young adults think about the source of their confidence. Another suggestion for future researchers is to more closely examine the age factor. This design never intended to study older populations. However, based on some of the qualitative data, the impact of age and the kind of responses received cannot be underestimated. In a future design, researchers may want to collect data from a full sample of both older and younger students and perform comparisons between the two populations. Parental issues could also be a sensitive topic for college students, depending on their family dynamics, and responses may be difficult to answer for some people. This may be the reason why some respondents dropped the survey and did not complete it. Answers about this subject may also vary from day to day. For example, if an argument occurred within the family earlier in

the day, this may have impacted the answer. Longitudinal data could provide more reliable data, which should be considered for future research. Also, siblings may have an affect. Depending on which child you ask, the responses may be different. Emotional support overall is therefore more indirect and difficult to define, measure, and study. This could be a significant area for future research. Instrumental support, on the other hand, is more direct and easier to define. Likewise, confidence, at least in this study, is self-measured and therefore easier to assess. It is worth considering, however, that confidence as assessed by others might vary significantly; for example, a boss may see an employee as lacking confidence even though the employee may feel very confident.

This study did not also factor in heavily how parenting may vary across different cultures. While information on ethnicity was collected, the data was not extensive enough to perform an analysis on this factor. Nonetheless, the way parents support their kids across different cultures cannot be ignored. Hofstede's (1983) cultural dimensions, for instance, could be useful in a future related study.

APPENDIX A

SURVEY INSTRUMENT INCLUDING INFORMED CONSENT

Informed Consent College of Hotel Administration Title of Study: The Impact of Supportive Parenting on Career Confidence of Young Adults Investigator(s): Dr. Bo Bernhard For questions or concerns about the study, you may contact Bo Bernhard at bo.bernhard@unlv.edu   For questions regarding the rights of research subjects, any complaints or comments regarding the manner in which the study is being conducted, contact the UNLV Office of Research Integrity – Human Subjects at 702-895-2794, toll free at 877-895-2794 or via email at IRB@unlv.edu. Purpose of the Study You are invited to participate in this research study. The purpose of this study is to measure student's career confidence and its relationship to the level of support they received from their parents. Participants You are being asked to participate in the study because you are an undergraduate student at UNLV's Hotel College. Procedures You will first be asked one screening question to determine your eligibility to take the survey. Then, the survey will start with question about your career, followed by questions about your parents. At the end, the survey will ask questions about your demographics. Benefits of Participation There are no direct benefits for the participants. However, we hope to learn more about the factors that impact young adults career through your participation. Risks of Participation There are minimal risks involve in this study. You might feel uncomfortable answering some of the questions.   Cost/Compensation There is no financial cost to you to participate in this study. The study will take 10-15 minutes of your time.   Confidentiality All information gathered in this study will be kept completely confidential. No reference will be made in written or oral materials that could link you to this study. All records will be stored in Qualtrics-secure database until it has been deleted by the primary investigator.   Participation Your participation in this study is voluntary. You may refuse to participate in this study or in any part of this study. You may withdraw at any time without prejudice to your relations with UNLV. Participant Consent I have read the above information and agree to participate in this study.

❍ I AGREE to participate in this survey

Thank you for participating in this survey. By selecting "Yes" below, I acknowledge that I am a UNLV Hospitality student that is either in senior standing or in the Hospitality Capstone class.

❍ Yes, I am qualified to take this survey.

1- Choose the answer that best describes your feelings.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1A. I feel that I have all the qualifications I need to achieve my career goals.	○	○	○	○
1B. I will be able to perform as well as most other people in the workforce.	○	○	○	○

2-Please choose the item that best describes the household in which you were raised.
○ Two parents in first marriage
○ Two parents in remarriage
○ Cohabiting parents
○ Single parent
○ No parent
○ Other (Please specify) _____

3-Do you currently have contact with your parents?
○ Yes (Please specify: Mother/Father/Both/Other) _____
○ No
○ Limited

4- Please list four specific things that your parents/caregivers do that make you feel like they love you.
    1.
    2.
    3.
    4.

5- Choose a whole number value from 1 to 7 where 1 represents never true and 7 means always true.

	Never 1	2	3	4	5	6	Always 7
My parent/s and I perform activities or attend events together	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
My parent/s and I communicate effectively	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
My parent/s encourage me/emotionally support me	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
My parent/s show physical affection to me (in form of smiles, kisses, or hugs)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

6- Choose a whole number value from 1 to 7 where 1 represents never true and 7 means always true.

	Never 1	2	3	4	5	6	Always 7
My parent/s provide me items and services necessary for survival (shelter, food, clothes, shoes)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
My parent/s give me money besides money required for basic necessities (such as gifts, allowance, bank funds)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
My parent/s provide financial support for my education	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
My parents help me with tasks	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

7- How do you think your parent/s could have provided you greater support? (please provide answers for each parent separately)
    Mother
    Father
    Other

8- What is your age (in years)?

9- What is your gender? Mark one.
○ Male
○ Female
○ Other (Please specify) _____

10- Please specify your ethnicity.
❑ White
❑ Hispanic or Latino
❑ Black or African American
❑ Native America or American Indian
❑ Asian/ Pacific Islander
❑ Other (Please specify) _____

APPENDIX B

ANALYSIS CODE AND RESULTS FROM TWO-WAY ANOVA

Results from 2-way ANOVA Models

> # summaries of the two-way ANOVA model -------------------------------
> summary(aG1)

Call:
lm(formula = Q1.Conf.Qual ~ factor(IS15.Service) + Gender, data = S)

Residuals:
     Min   1Q   Median   3Q   Max
-0.98096886 -0.50000000 0.01903114 0.41695502 1.01903114

Coefficients:
                Estimate Std. Error t value   Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept)   2.6989619 0.4154710 6.49615 4.8678e-07 ***
factor(IS15.Service)2 -1.1989619 0.5770801 -2.07764 0.047029 *
factor(IS15.Service)3 -0.8010381 0.5770801 -1.38809 0.176057
factor(IS15.Service)4 -1.3010381 0.5770801 -2.25452 0.032174 *
factor(IS15.Service)5 -0.1505190 0.4936200 -0.30493 0.762675
factor(IS15.Service)6 -0.8010381 0.5770801 -1.38809 0.176057
factor(IS15.Service)7 -0.7179931 0.4187975 -1.71442 0.097503 .
GenderMale   -0.3979239 0.2210049 -1.80052 0.082561 .

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 0.5664015 on 28 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.3413907, Adjusted R-squared: 0.1767384
F-statistic: 2.073404 on 7 and 28 DF, p-value: 0.08041827

> summary(aG2)

Call:
lm(formula = Q1.Conf.Qual ~ factor(IS16.Money) + Gender, data = S)

Residuals:
     Min   1Q   Median   3Q   Max

-0.98493627 -0.54997103 -0.03215527 0.33333333 1.46987254

Coefficients:
             Estimate Std. Error t value   Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept)   1.98493627 0.27106432 7.32275 5.6663e-08 ***
factor(IS16.Money)2 -0.53012746 0.70325457 -0.75382   0.45725
factor(IS16.Money)3 0.46987254 0.70325457 0.66814   0.50951
factor(IS16.Money)4 0.13653920 0.47646157 0.28657   0.77655
factor(IS16.Money)5 0.28794902 0.38906244 0.74011   0.46539
factor(IS16.Money)6 -0.31826960 0.45524889 -0.69911   0.49025
factor(IS16.Money)7 0.07937428 0.30458974 0.26059   0.79631
GenderMale   -0.45480881 0.24349997 -1.86780   0.07229 .

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 0.6335038 on 28 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.1760944, Adjusted R-squared: -0.02988202
F-statistic: 0.854925 on 7 and 28 DF, p-value: 0.5528764

> summary(aG3)

Call:
lm(formula = Q1.Conf.Qual ~ factor(IS17.Ed) + Gender, data = S)

Residuals:
     Min   1Q   Median   3Q   Max
-0.95742164 -0.52860733 0.04257836 0.35186280 1.38557067

Coefficients:
             Estimate Std. Error t value   Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept)   1.92371378 0.29881319 6.43785 4.8274e-07 ***
factor(IS17.Ed)2 -0.26907156 0.53140602 -0.50634   0.61645
factor(IS17.Ed)3 0.38557067 0.70913854 0.54372   0.59079
factor(IS17.Ed)5 0.40961955 0.47275902 0.86644   0.39336
factor(IS17.Ed)6 -0.11442933 0.54914461 -0.20838   0.83639
factor(IS17.Ed)7 0.03370787 0.31548032 0.10685   0.91565
GenderMale   -0.30928445 0.23401734 -1.32163   0.19662

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 0.6345355 on 29 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.1438874, Adjusted R-squared: -0.03323931
F-statistic: 0.8123417 on 6 and 29 DF, p-value: 0.5690237

> summary(aG4)

Call:
lm(formula = Q1.Conf.Qual ~ factor(IS18.Task) + Gender, data = S)

Residuals:
    Min   1Q   Median   3Q   Max
-0.8552712 -0.3587425 -0.0808305 0.2750174 1.4276356

Coefficients:
                  Estimate Std. Error t value   Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept)   1.85527118 0.38705595 4.79329 5.3085e-05 ***
factor(IS18.Task)2 -0.57236441 0.71328531 -0.80243   0.42931
factor(IS18.Task)3 0.51447288 0.44870816 1.14656   0.26162
factor(IS18.Task)4 0.22555933 0.43293130 0.52100   0.60661
factor(IS18.Task)5 -0.22462349 0.42388048 -0.52992   0.60050
factor(IS18.Task)6 0.14472882 0.52487942 0.27574   0.78485
factor(IS18.Task)7 0.07967703 0.41018488 0.19425   0.84744
GenderMale   -0.28290676 0.23298924 -1.21425   0.23517

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 0.6140507 on 27 degrees of freedom
 (1 observation deleted due to missingness)
Multiple R-squared: 0.2514284, Adjusted R-squared: 0.05735429
F-statistic: 1.295528 on 7 and 27 DF, p-value: 0.2900165

> summary(aG5)

Call:
lm(formula = Q1.Conf.Qual ~ factor(ES12.Comm) + Gender, data = S)

Residuals:
    Min   1Q   Median   3Q   Max
-1.08305155 -0.53915189 -0.00286036 0.33305155 1.29567011

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(>|t|)	
(Intercept)	2.08305155	0.33030456	6.30646	6.8955e-07	***
factor(ES12.Comm)3	-0.08389690	0.47421755	-0.17692	0.86080	
factor(ES12.Comm)4	-0.19491408	0.50601750	-0.38519	0.70291	
factor(ES12.Comm)5	-0.21728659	0.45446199	-0.47812	0.63615	
factor(ES12.Comm)6	-0.04651546	0.39342916	-0.11823	0.90670	
factor(ES12.Comm)7	-0.11386691	0.38269509	-0.29754	0.76818	
GenderMale	-0.33220620	0.23117219	-1.43705	0.16141	

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 0.6504185 on 29 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.1004924, Adjusted R-squared: -0.0856126
F-statistic: 0.5399769 on 6 and 29 DF, p-value: 0.7734005

> summary(aG6)

Call:
lm(formula = Q1.Conf.Qual ~ factor(ES13.Encourage) + Gender,
    data = S)

Residuals:

Min	1Q	Median	3Q	Max
-0.94585561	-0.32185829	-0.07486631	0.35294118	1.35294118

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(>|t|)	
(Intercept)	3.4278075	0.6227558	5.50426	7.0026e-06	***
factor(ES13.Encourage)2	-2.0000000	0.8265031	-2.41983	0.022269	*
factor(ES13.Encourage)3	-1.0000000	0.8265031	-1.20992	0.236427	
factor(ES13.Encourage)4	-1.5708556	0.6730301	-2.33400	0.026998	*
factor(ES13.Encourage)5	-1.7139037	0.7238082	-2.36790	0.025031	*
factor(ES13.Encourage)6	-1.4819519	0.6222056	-2.38177	0.024264	*
factor(ES13.Encourage)7	-1.3529412	0.6124045	-2.20923	0.035509	*
GenderMale	-0.4278075	0.2151071	-1.98881	0.056575	.

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 0.5844259 on 28 degrees of freedom

Multiple R-squared: 0.2988063, Adjusted R-squared: 0.1235079
F-statistic: 1.704558 on 7 and 28 DF, p-value: 0.1485743

> summary(aG7)

Call:
lm(formula = Q1.Conf.Qual ~ factor(ES14.Affection) + Gender,
    data = S)

Residuals:
     Min   1Q   Median   3Q   Max
-0.73623446 -0.30550622 -0.08170515 0.30550622 1.39076377

Coefficients:
                         Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept)   1.4724689 0.5799442 2.53898 0.016958 *
factor(ES14.Affection)2 0.3333333 0.6266201 0.53195 0.598953
factor(ES14.Affection)3 0.7637655 0.6724550 1.13579 0.265674
factor(ES14.Affection)4 1.3055062 0.5958702 2.19092 0.036943 *
factor(ES14.Affection)5 0.2637655 0.6152832 0.42869 0.671429
factor(ES14.Affection)6 0.2220249 0.6165783 0.36009 0.721480
factor(ES14.Affection)7 0.6092362 0.5710827 1.06681 0.295170
GenderMale   -0.4724689 0.2045624 -2.30966 0.028497 *

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 0.5426689 on 28 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.3954267, Adjusted R-squared: 0.2442834
F-statistic: 2.616237 on 7 and 28 DF, p-value: 0.03274836

> # ------------------------
> summary(bG1)

Call:
lm(formula = Q2.Conf.Perf ~ factor(IS15.Service) + Gender, data = S)

Residuals:
     Min   1Q   Median   3Q   Max
-0.82179931 -0.36851211 0.08910035 0.36332180 1.17820069

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(>|t|)	
(Intercept)	1.2266436	0.4381768	2.79943	0.0091678	**
factor(IS15.Service)2	0.2733564	0.6086180	0.44914	0.6567859	
factor(IS15.Service)3	0.7266436	0.6086180	1.19392	0.2425250	
factor(IS15.Service)4	0.2266436	0.6086180	0.37239	0.7124059	
factor(IS15.Service)5	0.8633218	0.5205967	1.65833	0.1084134	
factor(IS15.Service)6	0.7266436	0.6086180	1.19392	0.2425250	
factor(IS15.Service)7	0.5951557	0.4416850	1.34747	0.1886334	
GenderMale	-0.4532872	0.2330829	-1.94475	0.0619122	.

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 0.5973558 on 28 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.2248091, Adjusted R-squared: 0.03101136
F-statistic: 1.160019 on 7 and 28 DF, p-value: 0.3563072

> summary(bG2)

Call:
lm(formula = Q2.Conf.Perf ~ factor(IS16.Money) + Gender, data = S)

Residuals:

Min	1Q	Median	3Q	Max
-1.05677868	-0.38760139	-0.05677868	0.33333333	0.94322132

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(>|t|)	
(Intercept)	1.38760139	0.22760239	6.09660	1.4118e-06	***
factor(IS16.Money)2	0.27520278	0.59049608	0.46605	0.6447826	
factor(IS16.Money)3	1.27520278	0.59049608	2.15954	0.0395222	*
factor(IS16.Money)4	0.94186945	0.40006663	2.35428	0.0258050	*
factor(IS16.Money)5	0.61008111	0.32668092	1.86751	0.0723307	.
factor(IS16.Money)6	-0.05426806	0.38225515	-0.14197	0.8881218	
factor(IS16.Money)7	0.66917729	0.25575240	2.61650	0.0141588	*
GenderMale	-0.66280417	0.20445765	-3.24177	0.0030629	**

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 0.531929 on 28 degrees of freedom

Multiple R-squared: 0.3853189, Adjusted R-squared: 0.2316486
F-statistic: 2.507439 on 7 and 28 DF, p-value: 0.03915023

> summary(bG3)

Call:
lm(formula = Q2.Conf.Perf ~ factor(IS17.Ed) + Gender, data = S)

Residuals:
     Min   1Q   Median   3Q   Max
-0.95801301 -0.41691307 0.04198699 0.33333333 1.04198699

Coefficients:
               Estimate Std. Error t value   Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept)   1.2164400 0.2583969 4.70764 5.7136e-05 ***
factor(IS17.Ed)2 0.5541100 0.4595302 1.20582   0.237634
factor(IS17.Ed)3 1.3246600 0.6132233 2.16016   0.039162 *
factor(IS17.Ed)5 0.4502267 0.4088155 1.10130   0.279825
factor(IS17.Ed)6 0.8246600 0.4748695 1.73660   0.093071 .
factor(IS17.Ed)7 0.7415730 0.2728097 2.71828   0.010960 *
GenderMale   -0.5410999 0.2023651 -2.67388   0.012186 *

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 0.5487108 on 29 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.3225621, Adjusted R-squared: 0.1824026
F-statistic: 2.301392 on 6 and 29 DF, p-value: 0.06129019

> summary(bG4)

Call:
lm(formula = Q2.Conf.Perf ~ factor(IS18.Task) + Gender, data = S)

Residuals:
     Min   1Q   Median   3Q   Max
-1.0223949 -0.2134587 0.0000000 0.3676112 1.0163010

Coefficients:
               Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept)   1.2471054 0.3545857 3.51708 0.0015633 **

factor(IS18.Task)2 0.1235527 0.6534475 0.18908 0.8514456
factor(IS18.Task)3 0.7752895 0.4110658 1.88605 0.0700892 .
factor(IS18.Task)4 0.2873683 0.3966125 0.72456 0.4749564
factor(IS18.Task)5 0.3033647 0.3883210 0.78122 0.4414688
factor(IS18.Task)6 0.7528946 0.4808471 1.56577 0.1290496
factor(IS18.Task)7 0.7365935 0.3757743 1.96020 0.0603669 .
GenderMale   -0.3706581 0.2134437 -1.73656 0.0938633 .

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 0.5625377 on 27 degrees of freedom
  (1 observation deleted due to missingness)
Multiple R-squared: 0.3264774, Adjusted R-squared: 0.1518604
F-statistic: 1.869678 on 7 and 27 DF, p-value: 0.1144396

> summary(bG5)

Call:
lm(formula = Q2.Conf.Perf ~ factor(ES12.Comm) + Gender, data = S)

Residuals:
    Min   1Q   Median   3Q   Max
-0.99821360 -0.45049126 -0.09976181 0.40098252 1.00178640

Coefficients:
              Estimate   Std. Error t value   Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept)   1.599017481 0.305333484 5.23695 1.3129e-05 ***
factor(ES12.Comm)3 0.198034962 0.438366622 0.45176   0.65481
factor(ES12.Comm)4 -0.001637531 0.467762488 -0.00350   0.99723
factor(ES12.Comm)5 0.117838459 0.420104586 0.28050   0.78109
factor(ES12.Comm)6 0.021458041 0.363685849 0.05900   0.95336
factor(ES12.Comm)7 0.399196121 0.353763276 1.12843   0.26839
GenderMale   -0.396069925 0.213695532 -1.85343   0.07402 .

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 0.6012468 on 29 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.1866302, Adjusted R-squared: 0.01834676
F-statistic: 1.109023 on 6 and 29 DF, p-value: 0.381194

> summary(bG6)

Call:
lm(formula = Q2.Conf.Perf ~ factor(ES13.Encourage) + Gender,
   data = S)

Residuals:
    Min   1Q   Median   3Q   Max
-0.8101604 -0.3932709 0.0000000 0.3966132 1.1942959

Coefficients:
                          Estimate   Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept)   1.413547e+00 6.574463e-01 2.15006 0.040333 *
factor(ES13.Encourage)2 -4.908533e-15 8.725433e-01 0.00000 1.000000
factor(ES13.Encourage)3 1.000000e+00 8.725433e-01 1.14607 0.261465
factor(ES13.Encourage)4 1.898396e-01 7.105212e-01 0.26718 0.791286
factor(ES13.Encourage)5 2.932264e-01 7.641278e-01 0.38374 0.704070
factor(ES13.Encourage)6 3.966132e-01 6.568655e-01 0.60380 0.550840
factor(ES13.Encourage)7 3.921569e-01 6.465184e-01 0.60657 0.549025
GenderMale   -4.135472e-01 2.270897e-01 -1.82107 0.079298 .

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 0.6169813 on 28 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.1730361, Adjusted R-squared: -0.03370482
F-statistic: 0.8369708 on 7 and 28 DF, p-value: 0.5661815

> summary(bG7)

Call:
lm(formula = Q2.Conf.Perf ~ factor(ES14.Affection) + Gender,
   data = S)

Residuals:
    Min   1Q   Median   3Q   Max
-0.84103020 -0.34724689 -0.00310835 0.29875666 1.15896980

Coefficients:
                  Estimate   Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept)   1.493783304 0.620877416 2.40592 0.02298 *

factor(ES14.Affection)2 0.333333333 0.670847711 0.49688 0.62315
factor(ES14.Affection)3 0.753108348 0.719917740 1.04610 0.30446
factor(ES14.Affection)4 0.701243339 0.637927455 1.09925 0.28102
factor(ES14.Affection)5 0.003108348 0.658710620 0.00472 0.99627
factor(ES14.Affection)6 0.004973357 0.660097117 0.00753 0.99404
factor(ES14.Affection)7 0.347246892 0.611390387 0.56796 0.57459
GenderMale   -0.493783304 0.219000633 -2.25471 0.03216 *

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 0.5809712 on 28 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.2667506, Adjusted R-squared: 0.08343828
F-statistic: 1.45517 on 7 and 28 DF, p-value: 0.2236251

>

Normal Q-Q Plots of residuals from 2-way ANOVA Models for Conf.Qual

Normal Q-Q Plot of residuals from the IS model
Conf.Qual~Service+Gender
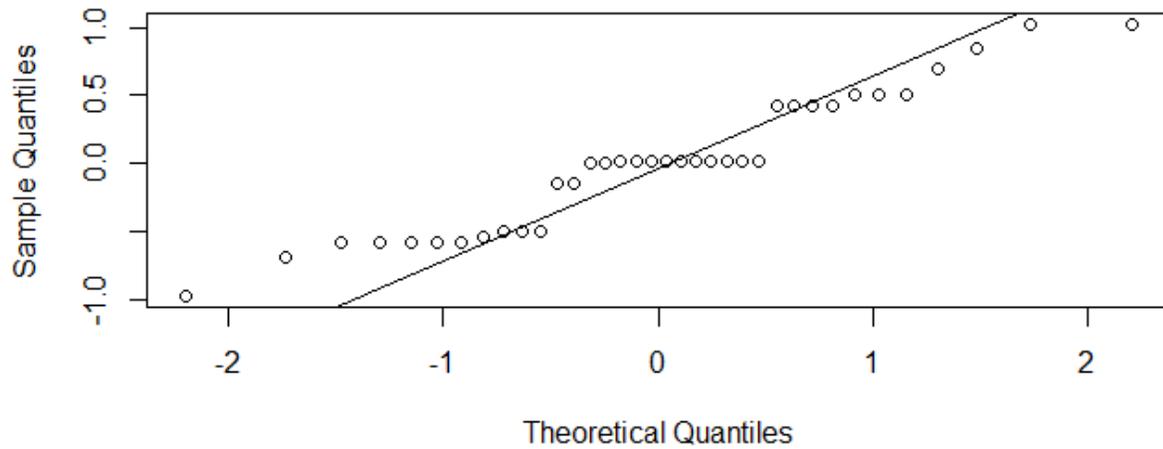
Normal Q-Q Plot of residuals from the IS model
Conf.Qual~Money+Gender
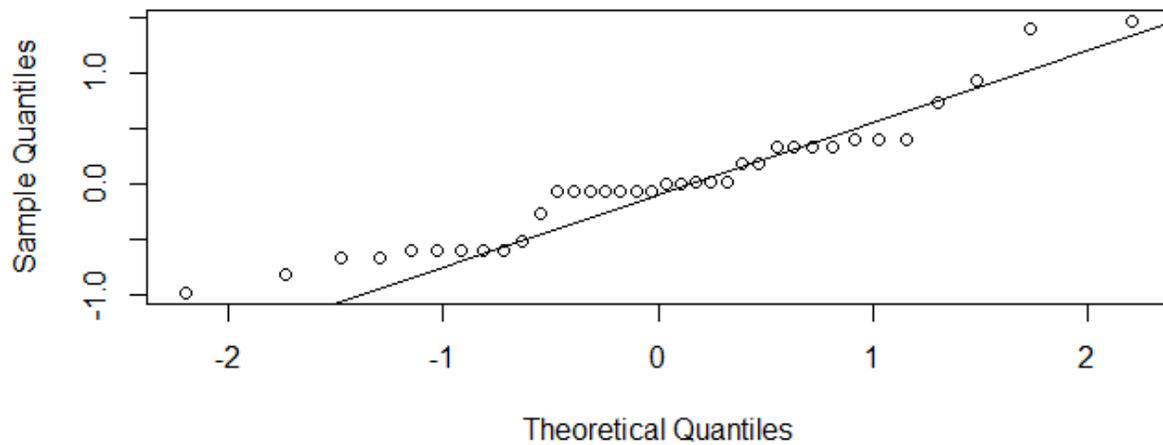
Normal Q-Q Plot of residuals from the IS model
Conf.Qual~Education+Gender
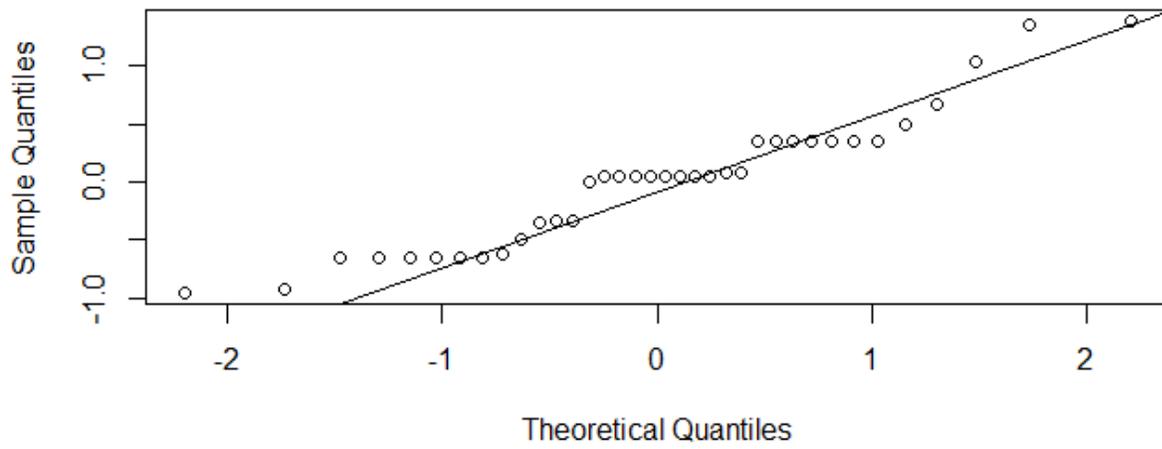
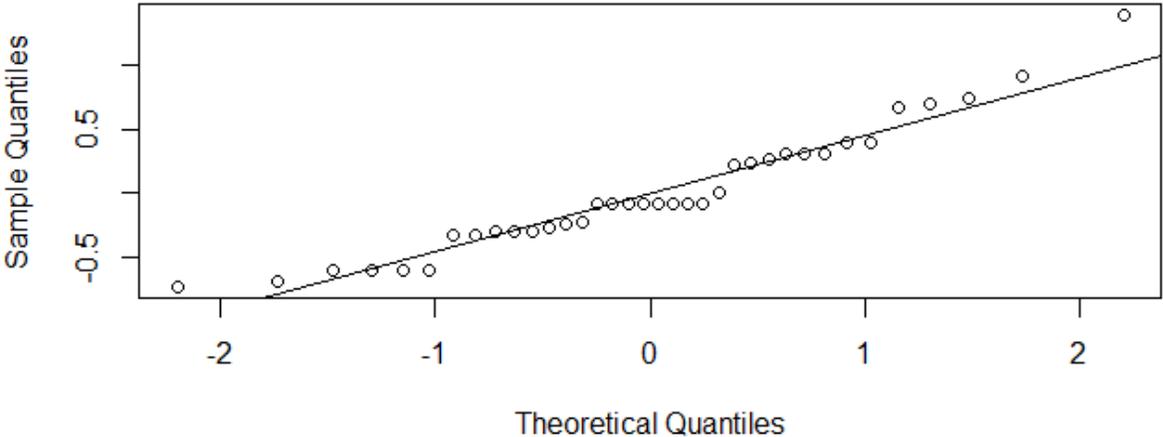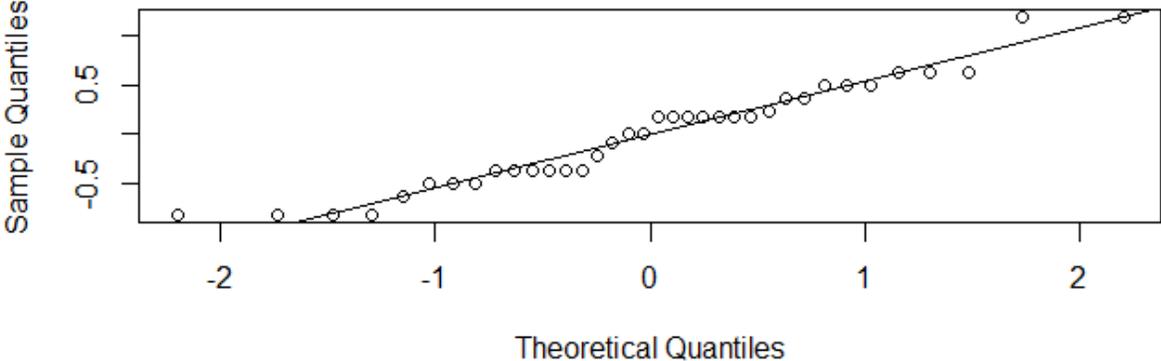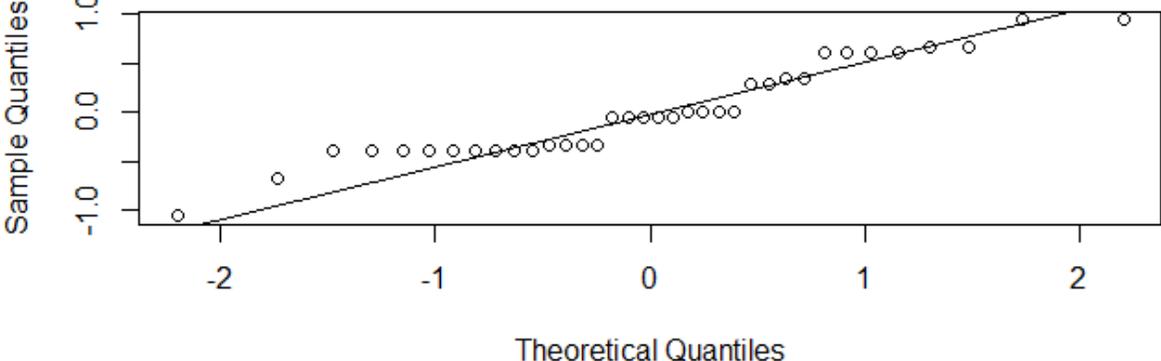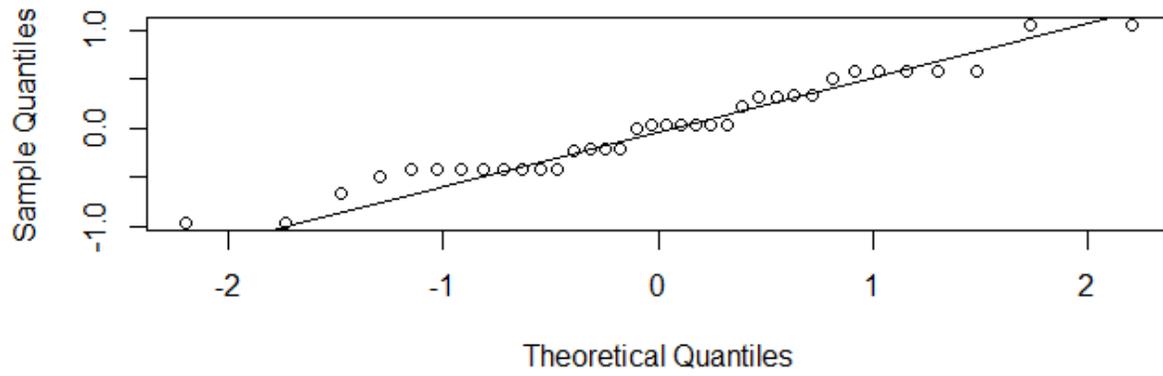## Normal Q-Q Plot of residuals from the IS model
Conf.Qual~Task+Gender
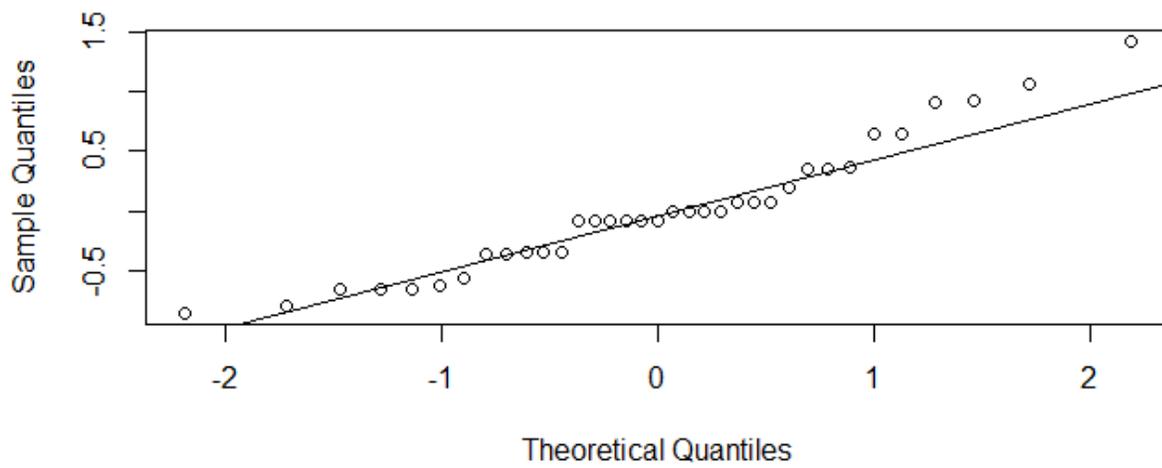
Normal Q-Q Plot of residuals from the ES model
Conf.Qual~Communication+Gender
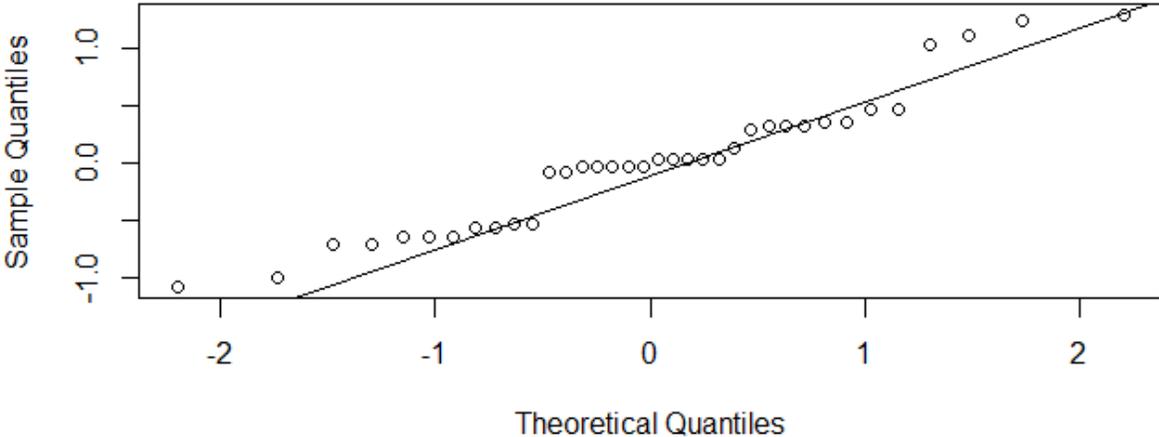
Normal Q-Q Plot of residuals from the ES model
Conf.Qual~Encouragement+Gender
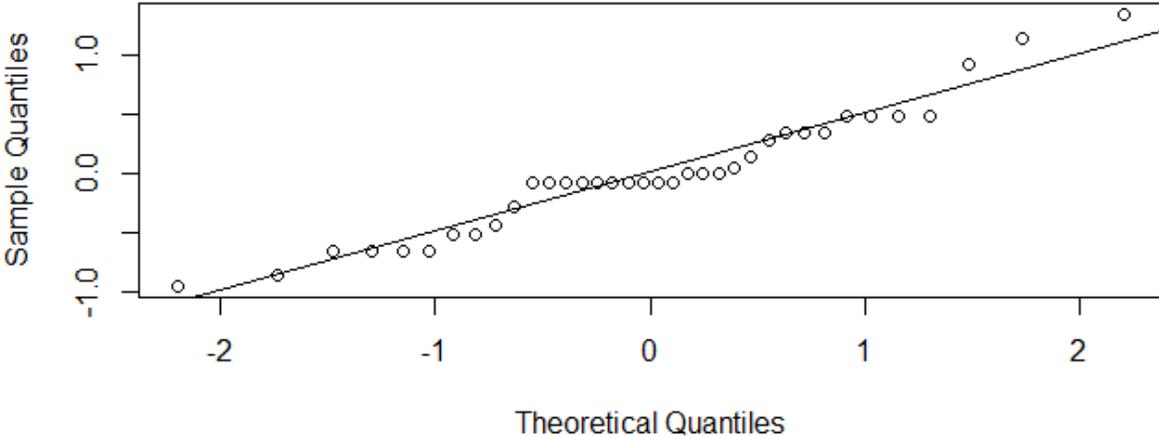
Normal Q-Q Plot of residuals from the ES model
Conf.Qual~Affection+Gender

Normal Q-Q Plots of residuals from 2-way ANOVA Models for Conf.Perf

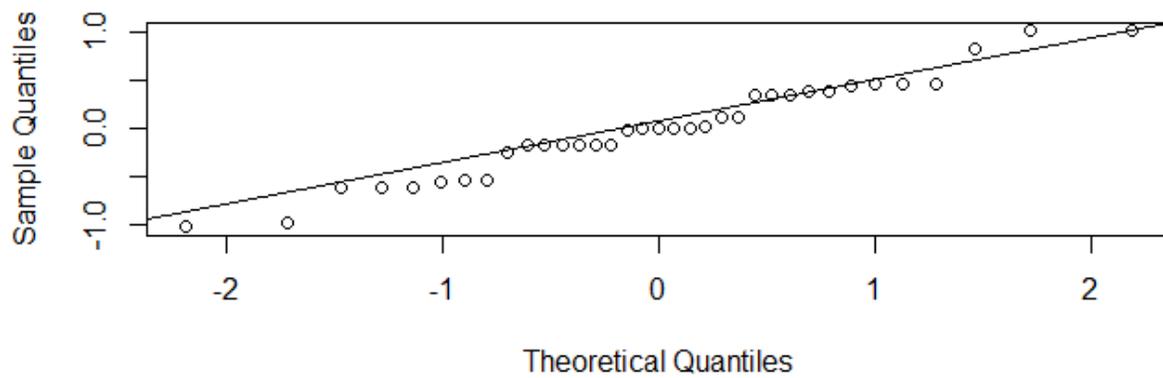Normal Q-Q Plot of residuals from the IS model
Conf.Perf~Service+Gender

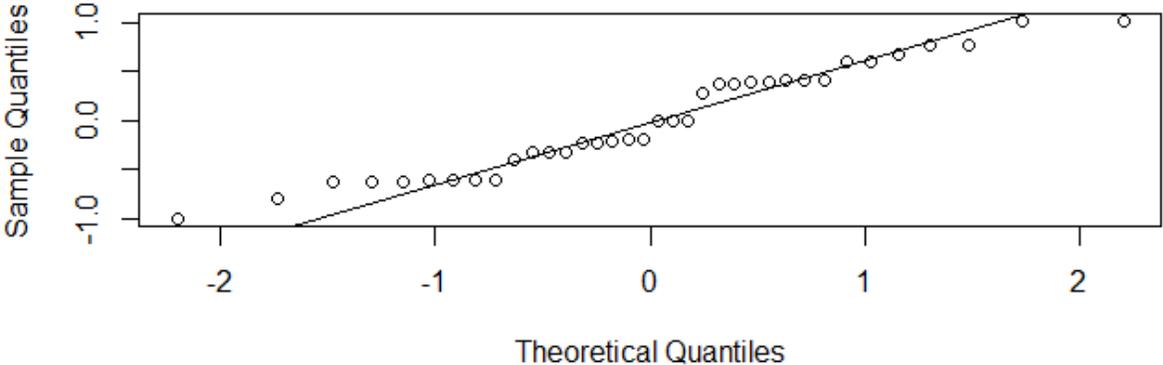Normal Q-Q Plot of residuals from the IS model
Conf.Perf~Money+Gender

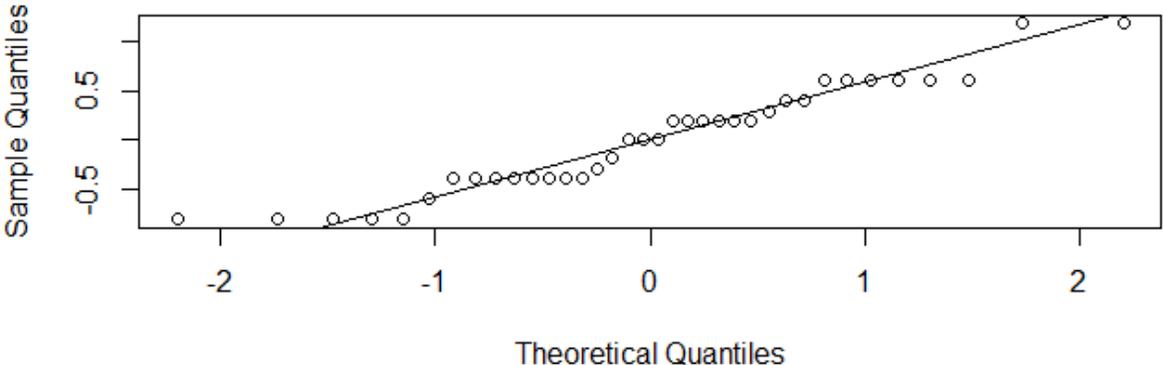## Normal Q-Q Plot of residuals from the IS model
Conf.Perf~Education+Gender

Normal Q-Q Plot of residuals from the IS model
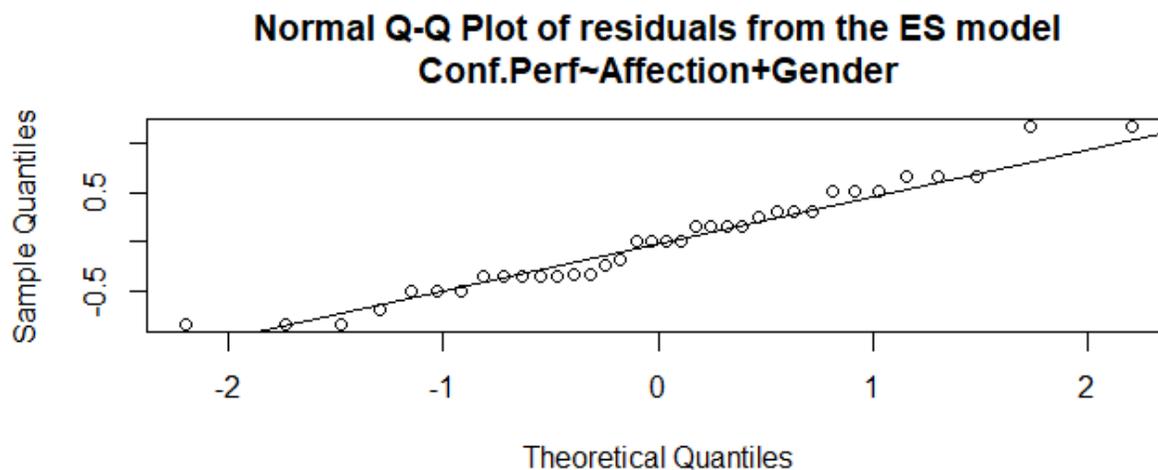## Conf.Perf~Task+Gender

Normal Q-Q Plot of residuals from the ES model
Conf.Perf~Communication+Gender

Normal Q-Q Plot of residuals from the ES model
Conf.Perf~Encouragement+Gender

Normal Q-Q Plot of residuals from the ES model
Conf.Perf~Affection+Gender

> shapiro.test(bG7$residuals)

	Shapiro-Wilk normality test

data: bG7$residuals
W = 0.96188494, p-value = 0.2456096 (Residuals pass normality test)

> shapiro.test(aG1$residuals)

	Shapiro-Wilk normality test

data: aG1$residuals
W = 0.94216035, p-value = 0.05932466 (Residuals pass normality test)

> shapiro.test(aG2$residuals)

Shapiro-Wilk normality test

data: aG2$residuals
W = 0.9334514, p-value = 0.03188731 (Residuals fail normality test)

> shapiro.test(aG3$residuals)

Shapiro-Wilk normality test

data: aG3$residuals
W = 0.93379242, p-value = 0.03266382 (Residuals fail normality test)

> shapiro.test(aG4$residuals)

Shapiro-Wilk normality test

data: aG4$residuals
W = 0.94459044, p-value = 0.07729573 (Residuals pass normality test)

> shapiro.test(aG5$residuals)

Shapiro-Wilk normality test

data: aG5$residuals
W = 0.9450169, p-value = 0.07289554 (Residuals pass normality test)

> shapiro.test(aG6$residuals)

Shapiro-Wilk normality test

data: aG6$residuals
W = 0.94906035, p-value = 0.09768807 (Residuals pass normality test)

> shapiro.test(aG7$residuals)

Shapiro-Wilk normality test

data: aG7$residuals
W = 0.94415425, p-value = 0.06849259 (Residuals pass normality test)

> # ------------------------
> shapiro.test(bG1$residuals)

        Shapiro-Wilk normality test

data: bG1$residuals
W = 0.95237325, p-value = 0.1242046 (Residuals pass normality test)

> shapiro.test(bG2$residuals)

        Shapiro-Wilk normality test

data: bG2$residuals
W = 0.92818929, p-value = 0.02206351

> shapiro.test(bG3$residuals)

        Shapiro-Wilk normality test

data: bG3$residuals
W = 0.95976071, p-value = 0.211341 (Residuals pass normality test)

> shapiro.test(bG4$residuals)

        Shapiro-Wilk normality test

data: bG4$residuals
W = 0.96933331, p-value = 0.4251948 (Residuals pass normality test)

> shapiro.test(bG5$residuals)

        Shapiro-Wilk normality test

data: bG5$residuals
W = 0.94771174, p-value = 0.08859186 (Residuals pass normality test)

> shapiro.test(bG6$residuals)

        Shapiro-Wilk normality test

data: bG6$residuals
W = 0.94071426, p-value = 0.05346959 (Residuals pass normality test)

> shapiro.test(bG7$residuals)

     Shapiro-Wilk normality test

data: bG7$residuals
W = 0.96188494, p-value = 0.2456096 (Residuals pass normality test)

APPENDIX C

IRB APPROVAL EMAIL

UNLV

UNLV Social/Behavioral IRB - Exempt Review
Exempt Notice

DATE:	March 22, 2017
TO:	Bo Bernhard
FROM:	Office of Research Integrity - Human Subjects
PROTOCOL TITLE:	[968538-1] The Impact of Supportive Parenting in Career Confidence of Young Adults.
ACTION:	DETERMINATION OF EXEMPT STATUS
EXEMPT DATE:	March 22, 2017
REVIEW CATEGORY:	Exemption category # 2

Thank you for your submission of New Project materials for this protocol. This memorandum is notification that the protocol referenced above has been reviewed as indicated in Federal regulatory statutes 45CFR46.101(b) and deemed exempt.

We will retain a copy of this correspondence with our records.

PLEASE NOTE:
Upon final determination of exempt status, the research team is responsible for conducting the research as stated in the exempt application reviewed by the ORI - HS and/or the IRB which shall include using the most recently submitted Informed Consent/Assent Forms (Information Sheet) and recruitment materials. If your project involves paying research participants, it is recommended to contact Carisa Shaffer, ORI Program Coordinator at (702) 895-2794 to ensure compliance with subject payment policy.

Any changes to the application may cause this protocol to require a different level of IRB review. Should any changes need to be made, please submit a **Modification Form**. When the above-referenced protocol has been completed, please submit a **Continuing Review/Progress Completion report** to notify ORI - HS of its closure.

If you have questions, please contact the Office of Research Integrity - Human Subjects at IRB@unlv.edu or call 702-895-2794. Please include your protocol title and IRBNet ID in all correspondence.

Office of Research Integrity - Human Subjects
4505 Maryland Parkway . Box 451047 . Las Vegas. Nevada 89154-1047
(702) 895-2794 . FAX: (702) 895-0805 . IRB@unlv.edu

- 1 -   Generated on IRBNet

APPENDIX D

EMAIL TO THE STUDENTS

Email Subject: UNLV Research Survey

Dear Student,

You have been invited to take part in a research survey on your future career upon graduation from the UNLV Hospitality Degree program. This survey is for a project as part of the Master's program. Your participation will require approximately 10-15 minutes and is completed online at your computer or your mobile device. Any responses will be kept anonymous, and if this data will be used for any future publication, subjected to an IRB review.

Please follow the following link to participate in the survey:

https://unlvhospitality.az1.qualtrics.com//SE/?SID=SV_3lB1WatP0CtauZ7

Thank you for your time.

Sincerely,

(Professor's Name)

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American ethnic groups. *New Directions for Child and Adolescent Development*,

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Curriculum Vitae

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Education

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