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Gender Role Congruence and Self-Efficacy in Emerging Outdoor Leaders

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GENDER ROLE CONGRUENCE AND SELF-EFFICACY IN EMERGING OUTDOOR LEADERS

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GENDER ROLE CONGRUENCE AND SELF-EFFICACY IN EMERGING OUTDOOR LEADERS

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Being a leader in the outdoors requires the competence and confidence to act and make decisions in high-risk situations. However, female leaders may experience an incongruence between the assertive decision-making expected of their leadership role and the passivity expected of their gender role, which can impact their leadership self-efficacy. The purpose of this study was to explore how gender role congruence influences the self-efficacy of male and female emerging outdoor leaders. A convergent mixed-methods design was used by triangulating self-efficacy survey data with in-depth interviews, observations, and reflective drawings from eight student outdoor leaders at a large Midwestern university's outdoor recreation program. Multiple themes emerged from this study, with the primary result being that participants had highest self-efficacy with gender role congruent behaviors. Both engrained perceptions of gender roles in outdoor leadership and prior experiences contributed to these feelings of self-efficacy. Additionally, the results of this study indicated that women experienced low self-efficacy more often than men and faced specific challenges leading in a male-dominated space. No other known study examining gender and self-efficacy in the outdoors has used such a design, so this research brings a novel contribution to the literature and to outdoor leadership development programs.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Being a leader in the outdoors requires the competence and confidence to act and make decisions in high-risk situations. However, female leaders may experience an incongruence between the assertive decision-making expected of their leadership role and the passivity expected of their gender role (Wittmer, 2001). This incongruence impacts confidence and self-efficacy and creates challenges for women in outdoor recreation (Garcia-Retamero & López-Zafra, 2006; Rogers & Rose, 2019, Wittmer, 2001).

The purpose of this research was to explore how gender role congruence influences the self-efficacy of male and female emerging outdoor leaders. A convergent mixed-methods design was used by triangulating quantitative data with in-depth qualitative research. In the quantitative phase, the outdoor recreation self-efficacy scale (ORSE scale) measured the self-efficacy of eight student outdoor leaders at a large Midwestern university's outdoor recreation program. In the qualitative phase, interviews, observations, and reflective drawings were collected before, during, and after a nine-day outdoor leadership development program. Both forms of data were used to explore how gender role congruence influences participants' self-efficacy by triangulating qualitative results with initial ORSE scale scores.

Overview of Literature

Historically, the outdoors has been a male-dominated domain in which women were viewed as inconsequential or invisible (Jordan, 2018; Lugg, 2018; Rogers & Rose, 2019; Warren & Loeffler, 2006). As a result, gender and its impact on leadership can be tied to many of the challenges women face in the industry, and gender is one of the most studied topics in contemporary outdoor research (Wittmer, 2001).

Gender role congruence is defined by Eagly and Karau (2002) as the congruity between gender and other roles, such as leadership roles. This congruence is often heightened in male-dominated fields, such as the outdoors, and results in women being perceived less favorably and evaluated more harshly on their leadership behaviors than men (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Garcia-Retamero & López-Zafra, 2006; Wittmer, 2001). There is a significant body of research on gender role congruence in the business world, including Garcia-Retamero and López-Zafra's 2006 study, which revealed that participants showed more prejudice against female business candidates when the candidates worked in an industry incongruent with ascribed female gender roles. The authors also found that when female leaders were in traditionally masculine ascribed positions, participants had a heightened sense of perceived incongruity between the female gender role and their work (Garcia-Retamero & López-Zafra, 2006).

In the outdoor field, previous research findings have indicated that the communal qualities associated with being a woman contradict the agentic attributes considered necessary to be a successful outdoor leader (Davies et al., 2019; Eagly et al., 2003; Lugg, 2018; Wittmer, 2001). This incongruence manifests as women typically being viewed as the experts in the social and nurturing aspects of outdoor programming, such as setting up camp and cooking, while male co-leaders are expected to teach the "real" outdoor skills, such as rock climbing (Jordan, 2018; Lugg, 2018). As a result of these gender role expectations, female leaders face challenges with feeling confident (Lugg, 2018; Warren & Loeffler, 2006), being valued (Rogers & Rose, 2019), and receiving credit for their contributions (Davies et al., 2019; Gray, 2016).

While there are numerous challenges outdoor leaders face, this current research is specifically focused on how gender role congruence influences feelings of self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is defined by Bandura (1997) as the personal judgment of one's ability to act in new and unpredictable situations. Self-efficacy has been shown to influence whether an individual accepts a leadership position and is considered both a precursor to and an outcome of high performance levels (Bandura, 1997; Murphy & Johnson, 2016). As it has been studied in an outdoor setting, self-efficacy also contributes to continued participation and leadership in the outdoors, making it an important factor when researching emerging outdoor leaders (Mittelstaedt & Jones, 2009; Propst & Koesler, 1998).

One of the most cited studies on self-efficacy in the outdoors was conducted by Propst and Koesler (1998). The authors assessed outdoor leadership programs' short- and long-term effects on self-efficacy. They found that (a) outdoor programs increase self-efficacy scores and (b) participants who completed an outdoor experience with feelings of self-efficacy were more inclined to continue their involvement with the outdoors (Propst & Koesler, 1998). Propst and Koesler (1998) also found that the baseline self-efficacy scores of female participants were significantly lower than those of male participants, which invites future research on the connection between gender and self-efficacy.

Research Relevance

Self-efficacy has been studied in multiple outdoor disciplines, including therapeutic recreation (Ferguson & Jones, 2001), physical education teacher training (Hovey et al., 2020), and freshman wilderness experiences (Jones & Hinton, 2007). However, limited research has been conducted on the self-efficacy of college-age outdoor

leaders, especially in relation to gender role congruence. The current study intends to address this gap in the literature by specifically exploring how gender roles contribute to feelings of self-efficacy in emerging leaders.

While there is a large body of research on women's experiences in the outdoors, there are comparatively few contemporary studies on the experiences of men (Neil, 1997). This lack of research is concerning because in addition to creating challenges for female leaders, gender roles can create toxic hyper-masculinity in outdoor spaces that negatively impact male leaders (Davies et al., 2019). Specifically, men are often not valued for their communal skills, have fewer opportunities to engage with interpersonal experiences, and have more significant challenges breaking gender norms, all of which influence their confidence and leadership (Davies et al., 2019). Gender roles and the gender binary impact the experiences of all outdoor leaders, so this research will intentionally consider the experiences of both men and women in the outdoors.

Reflexivity

As both a female outdoor leader and a qualitative researcher, I must acknowledge my positionally and potential bias when conducting this work. I am currently employed at the same university where this research was conducted and was in a supervisory role to participants. This positionality allowed me to have insider knowledge on and a connection to this research topic but also had the potential to cause power imbalances between my participants and me and therefore impact the results I received. Additionally, as a woman in the outdoor field, I have experienced how gender role congruence has negatively impacted my feelings of self-efficacy. My history may have influenced how I responded to data that aligned or contradicted my own experiences, so in this study, I intentionally accounted for any bias that may have emerged during the research process.

Further elaboration on reflexivity and measures I took to account for possible bias will be outlined in Chapter 3.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

This literature review will examine research conducted on role congruence and self-efficacy and their impacts on outdoor leaders. It will also address what topics have emerged as most relevant in the continued study of this topic. To provide a foundation for outdoor research, this literature review will begin with an overview of the outdoor industry, including a summary of outdoor leadership training programs and research on gender in the outdoors. The following section will examine gender role congruence and its impact on female and male leaders. Most research on gender role congruence has been conducted in business settings, so content from those foundational studies will be presented in addition to research on gender roles in the outdoors. Following that section, this literature review will define self-efficacy and present how it has been tested and studied in the outdoor industry. The final section will give implications for future research and summarize the main factors that have emerged for the study of this topic.

While there is some research on self-efficacy in the outdoors, research has not yet been conducted on college-aged leaders. This study hopes to address this gap in the literature and examine how role congruence influences the self-efficacy of emerging outdoor leaders. Additionally, most research in the outdoor field has centered around the experience of outdoor program participants, not leaders. These participant studies lay a foundation for examining the impact of outdoor programs, but their findings may not directly correspond to the experiences of outdoor leaders.

The Outdoor Industry

The outdoor industry is a broad field encompassing recreation, education, community building, therapy, and leadership development in an outdoor setting (Sibthorp, 2003). Professionals in the field generally agree that outdoor leadership skills

can be broken into three main categories: technical skills, interpersonal skills, and judgment skills (Baker & O'Brien, 2020). Technical skills are skills required to perform an outdoor activity to a standard level of competency, interpersonal skills include the ability to facilitate and build relationships with others, and judgment skills describe the ability to manage risk and make decisions (Baker & O'Brien, 2020). Traditionally, these skills were categorized as "hard" and "soft" skills (which "hard" referring to technical skills and "soft" referring to interpersonal skills), but, as this review will later explore, those labels are dichotomous and carry gendered connotations (Baker & O'Brien, 2020).

Outdoor Leadership Development Programs

While the outdoor industry has many subfields, this research focuses on college students who participated in an outdoor leadership development program. To become an outdoor leader, one must possess leadership and technical skills, which are often developed through outdoor leadership development programs (Propst & Koesler, 1998). These programs usually use activities such as rock climbing or peak ascents to challenge participants and provide them the opportunity to develop outdoor skills, experience, and knowledge (Boettcher & Gansemer-Topf; Hovey et al., 2020; Propst & Koesler, 1998). These development programs have been associated with other benefits, such as increased self-efficacy, which is why they were a valuable space to conduct this research (Breunig et al., 2010).

This research was conducted during an outdoor leadership development program because of their leadership development structure. Many programs employ a "Leader of the Day" (LOD) model, which gives participants a positional title and leadership responsibilities, such as navigation and choosing campsites. In their 2015 study,

Boettcher and Gansemer-Topf found that students saw their LOD roles as more than just a label. Because they involved communication and motivating people to achieve their goals, students found that their roles allowed for intentional practice and the development of leadership skills (Boettcher & Gansemer-Topf, 2015). Part of the LOD model also includes mentorship and facilitated feedback from supervising staff to assist student learning (Breunig et al., 2010; Propst & Koesler, 1998). Mentoring in this context can be defined as establishing a rapport between participant and instructor to offer guidance, encourage goal achievement, and provide feedback (Propst & Koesler, 1998). Multiple studies have shown that when mentorship occurs, participants are more likely to leave an outdoor experience with enhanced learning and greater self-efficacy (Breunig et al., 2010; Propst & Koesler, 1998; Sibthorp et al., 2007).

The literature shows a deep and lasting impact of participating in outdoor programs (Hattie et al., 1997; Sibthorp, 2003; Sibthorp et al., 2007). Some research has also proposed that participants' identities, such as gender, ethnicity, and class, are related to developmental gains during an outdoor leadership development program (Overholt & Ewert, 2015; Sibthorp, 2003; Sibthorp et al., 2007). While the research is inconclusive, it suggests that demographic variables such as gender are important to study when examining participation in outdoor programs and provide context to this research.

Gender in the Outdoors

While there are many ways participants evaluate and stereotype leaders, including their race, sexual orientation, ability, attractiveness, and class, gender is one of the most significant and studied factors in the outdoors (Wittmer, 2001). Outdoor education originated primarily through male-dominated practices, such as military training (Warren

et al., 2018). As a result, women's leadership and outdoor participation have been largely overlooked in historical and academic texts and the public's general awareness (Gray et al., 2017; Warren et al., 2018).

The history and the societal challenges women face impact their presence in the outdoor field. Women in the outdoor industry are much less likely to achieve senior leadership positions and are often paid less than their male counterparts (Gray, 2016). A 2019 study found that only 25% of directors and assistant directors in collegiate outdoor programs identified as women, and women represented only 32% of course leaders for the National Outdoor Leadership School (NOLS; Rogers & Rose, 2019). Additionally, longevity in the profession up to age 50 or 60 is rare for women, as many choose to leave the field due to a lack of recognition for their accomplishments, family pressures, or the fatigue of pushing against gender boundaries (Gray, 2016; Humberstone, 2000). These challenges not only impact women and their careers but also how participants view outdoor leadership, which can further reinforce stereotypes (Davies et al., 2019).

Inclusivity Considerations. It is important to note that most of the research done on gender in the outdoors has focused on white, privileged women with little scholarship on the experiences of women of color and people who identify as lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, intersex, queer, asexual, or other identities (LGBTIQA+). Much of the literature, including this study, uses the terms "man" and "woman" to describe gender because our current social systems enforce those binaries. This current study uses only the words "man" and "women" because all the study participants self-identified as one of those two identities. However, many people do not identify with their biological sex as male or female, including intersex, transgender, and two-spirited people (Davies et al.,

2019). It is essential to acknowledge that confining gender and gendered experiences to the terms “man” and “women” excludes people who identify outside of this binary and the struggles they face in an industry and society that reinforces gender binarity. Additionally, other identities, such as race, class, and ability, intersect with gender, meaning that not everyone experiences gender oppression in the same way (Crenshaw, 2017).

This paper also uses the terms “masculine” and “feminine” to describe leadership styles. While I acknowledge that these traits are stereotypical generalizations, “masculine” leadership traits include being assertive, confident, and dominant, while “feminine” traits include being passive, nurturing, and collaborative (Davies et al., 2019). In outdoor leadership specifically, there is a historical association of “hard” (technical) skills with masculinity and “soft” (interpersonal) skills with femininity (Baker & O’Brien, 2020; Jordan, 2018; Warren & Loeffler, 2006). Due to these stereotypes and the prevalence of traditional gender roles, it is common that women perform feminine styles and men perform masculine styles of leadership in the outdoors (Davies et al., 2019). These assumptions, combined with the traditional privileging of technical skills in the outdoors, disadvantages women leaders by devaluing feminine leadership qualities and strengths (Humberstone, 2000; Warren & Loeffler, 2006)

Role Congruence

Gender role congruence pertains to the congruity between gender and other roles, including leadership roles (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Gender roles are defined as consensual beliefs about the attributes of women and men that are normative for each sex, involving both descriptive (what is) and prescriptive (what ought to be) norms (Eagly, 1987; Ritter & Yoder, 2004). Most of these expectations for men and women can be clustered into

either communal or agentic qualities. Communal qualities are primarily associated with women and a subordinated status and include being affectionate, interpersonal, and nurturing (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Agentic attributes, associated with men and a higher status, include being assertive, ambitious, dominant, and self-confident (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Ritter & Yoder, 2004). When perceptions of a group's characteristics do not align with the requirements of the social role the group occupies, prejudice can occur. Role congruity theory of prejudice proposes that the perceived incongruity between the female gender role and leader roles leads to (a) perceiving women less favorably than men as leaders and (b) evaluating behaviors that fulfill the prescription of a leader role less favorably when they are enacted by a woman (Eagly & Karau, 2002).

Research by Garcia-Retamero and López-Zafra (2006) explored role congruence within a business context by examining the influence participants' gender expectations had on their perceptions of women and men in leadership positions. The authors found that participants showed more prejudice against female candidates, primarily when the candidates worked in an industry incongruent with female gender roles (Garcia-Retamero & López-Zafra, 2006). Garcia-Retamero and López-Zafra (2006) also found that participants had a heightened sense of perceived incongruity between the gender role and position role when female leaders were in traditionally masculine ascribed positions. These perceptions cause women not to view themselves as potential leaders and feel less comfortable and confident in a leadership role (Garcia-Retamero & López-Zafra, 2006). As a result, men are more concentrated in positions of leadership and roles that emphasize power, authority, and competition. At the same time, women have more easily entered roles that align with feminine stereotypes, such as nursing or teaching (Garcia-

Retamero & López-Zafra, 2006). These findings align with Eagly and Karau's (2002) role congruity theory. While Garcia-Retamero and López-Zafra's (2006) research was conducted in a business setting, it has implications for studying traditionally male-dominated fields such as the outdoors.

Role Congruence in the Outdoors

In the outdoor field, female leaders often experience incongruity between the female gender role and their leadership role. This incongruence exists because the communal qualities associated with being a woman contradict the agentic attributes considered necessary to be a successful outdoor leader (Eagly et al., 2003; Davies et al., 2019; Lugg, 2018; Wittmer, 2001). Multiple studies have found that women who take on feminine leadership styles are seen as less competent, but those who challenge gender stereotypes find themselves ostracized and evaluated poorly (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Garcia-Retamero & López-Zafra, 2006; Rogers & Rose, 2019; Warren & Loeffler, 2006). This double standard is due to participants observing competence through the lens of gender role socialization and is mainly present in male-dominated fields such as the outdoors (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Eagly et al., 2003; Garcia-Retamero & López-Zafra, 2006; Jordan, 2018; Warren & Loeffler, 2006).

Recreating in the outdoors often involves being in risky and potentially dangerous situations. Because of this, masculine-attributed actions, such as assertive decision-making, are often necessary, and leaders can often not maintain an exclusively feminine role (Wittmer, 2001). However, research has indicated that if a female outdoor leader assumes a style that is gender incongruent, such as making quick decisions, she may receive negative evaluations from participants (Wittmer, 2001). Jordan (2018) defines

these two challenges women face in the outdoor industry as agentic deficiency and agentic penalty. Agentic deficiency is when women are perceived as not having the skills and traits necessary to be a leader. Agentic penalty occurs when women are viewed less favorably when they express traditionally masculine characteristics (Jordan, 2018). An example of agentic deficiency in the outdoor setting is participants not trusting a female leader to perform technical skills such as teaching a rock-climbing system. If a woman does teach a rock-climbing system, however, she may also experience agentic penalty, resulting in her being perceived as controlling or bossy for directing others.

These perceptions of leadership competence exist even when women behave in ways that overtly contradict gender roles. Rogers and Rose (2019) describe the experience of a female leader who, after receiving gendered feedback after teaching an outdoor program, decided to switch tasks and presentation styles with her male co-leader. For four days, she taught exclusively masculine-ascribed technical skills (such as whitewater kayaking rescues), wore sunglasses, did not smile, and did not make any kind gestures while the man took on communal and nurturing tasks. However, even with these changes, she received almost identical feedback to her initial evaluations, suggesting that regardless of behavior, students' perceptions of outdoor leaders may be culturally ingrained (Rogers & Rose, 2019).

Role congruence has also been studied in fields with similar environments to the outdoors. For example, Burton et al. (2011) explored the unequal representation of men and women in athletic administration positions by exploring whether prejudice against women was based on the incongruity between expectations about women and expectations about athletic directors. The authors found that female leader candidates

were significantly less likely to be offered an athletic director position when compared to male candidates, supporting a perceived incongruity between women and leadership within athletic administration (Burton et al., 2011). These findings align with Eagly and Karau's (2002) work and research on role congruence in the outdoors. Overall, the literature suggests that role congruence impacts women by creating unequal access to leadership positions and, if a woman does become a leader, constraining her actions with gendered expectations (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Garcia-Retamero & López-Zafra, 2006; Ritter & Yoder, 2004).

Impacts of Role Congruence

Gender roles are limiting because they shape the leadership styles people assume in outdoor spaces. These roles and the potential incongruence between them and leadership positions can be tied to many challenges women and men face when leading and feeling competent outdoors (Lugg, 2018). The following section will explore the impacts of role congruence on the experiences of outdoor leaders.

Imposter Syndrome

Society habituates women to have low expectations of their abilities until proven otherwise (Overholt & Ewert, 2015). As a result, previous research has indicated that women in the outdoors often underestimate or devalue their competencies and leadership abilities (Rogers & Rose, 2019). One of the spaces where this happens most often is when performing masculine-ascribed technical skills, defined in the outdoors as manipulating tools, such as climbing ropes, to achieve a particular task (Baker & O'Brien, 2020). Multiple studies have found that female students tend to lack confidence in their performance of physical and technical skills due to their hesitancy to ask for help or put themselves forward in learning situations, which affects their actual competence

(Lugg, 2018; Warren & Loeffler, 2006). This anxiety about performing technical skills and the societal expectation of self-doubt can contribute to imposter syndrome, defined as the internal belief that one is a fraud and not worthy of being in a space (Gray, 2016; Pedler, 2011). One of the impacts of imposter syndrome is that women are less likely to be self-promoting and advance in their careers, which perpetuates gendered expectations in leadership (Gray, 2016).

Devaluing of Feminine Skills

Another impact of the role congruence theory of prejudice is that traditionally ascribed feminine leadership styles are less valued in masculine leadership roles (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Overholt and Ewert (2015) found that the interpersonal skills women tended to possess were not as highly valued in the outdoor industry. Therefore women were sometimes interpreted as being less competent regardless of age or experience because they brought different attitudes and abilities (Lugg, 2018). Rogers and Rose (2019) also found that women's interests and reasons for leading in the outdoors sometimes differed from men's. For example, many Western cultures equate going outside with the desire for adventure and risk-taking, an ideology based on masculine norms. However, women in their study tended to view outdoor education as being a form of self-discovery and saw themselves as facilitators of personal growth instead of leaders who engaged in risky activities (Rogers & Rose, 2019). But when these attitudes conflict with participant expectations and dominant narratives of the outdoor field, women can feel a sense of conflict and incompetence (Rogers & Rose, 2019; Warren & Loeffler, 2006).

Due to the devaluing of feminine leadership styles, women sometimes feel the need to prove themselves to be seen as legitimate in the outdoors (Davies et al., 2019; Rogers & Rose, 2019; Warren & Loeffler, 2006). All of the women in Davies et al. 's 2019 study felt they were under scrutiny and needed to defend their abilities, while none of the men interviewed mentioned this stress. This pressure can make women feel as if they must be 'superwomen' to transcend the feminine leadership associated with them (Davies et al., 2019; Oakley et al., 2018).

Embodying the Female Role

Davies et al. (2019) argue that gender roles shape people's leadership styles in the outdoors. Sometimes, female gender role expectations can create a sense of agency for women to use their strengths. Gray (2016) found that some women may feel more comfortable assuming roles congruent with gender norms, such as administrative or mediating tasks. Women who do this often want to be perceived as good team players and behind-the-scenes "workhorses" (Gray, 2016, p. 34). When women do this, however, they often do not receive full credit for their efforts, and complying with a broad set of social rules about gender roles creates a sense of tension for leadership identity (Lugg, 2018). This makes a double-bind for women because, in order to be accepted as leaders, both men and women need to demonstrate competence, but in roles that women may feel more competent in, they are less likely to get credit or be perceived as such.

Overall, the literature suggests that if a woman in an outdoor setting has a feminine or gender-role congruent leadership style, she would be evaluated positively for interpersonal skills but not for technical or physical skills. But if she displays competence, directness, or authority in a role incongruent style, she is evaluated more

negatively and therefore has less influence than men who display similar behaviors (Wittmer, 2001).

Impacts on Men

There is a large body of research on all-female programs and women's experiences in the outdoors. However, there are comparatively few contemporary studies on male-only programs or the experiences of male outdoor leaders (Neil, 1997). This presents a gap in the literature because role-congruence and gendered expectations also impact men's leadership experiences (Neil, 1997; Wittmer, 2001).

Davies et al. (2019) studied how society's value of masculine leadership styles influenced understandings and experiences in the outdoors. The authors found that in addition to creating challenges for women, gender roles create climates of toxic hyper-masculinity (Davies et al., 2019). This hyper-masculinity was often found in all-male groups, such as all-boys schools or youth-at-risk programs, and enforced macho and homophobic competitiveness among participants (Davies et al., 2019). Davies et al. (2019) also found that men were often not valued for their stereotypical feminine skills. Some of the male leaders who were interviewed described how their participants tended to go to women leaders for first aid and emotional needs instead of them, which both placed a burden on their female co-leaders and meant that they did not get the opportunity to engage with those interpersonal experiences (Davies et al., 2019).

Research has also found it more difficult and more noticeable for men to break gender norms. Davies et al. (2019) found that it is much less common for men to be backseat, emotional leaders than for women to be assertive, directive leaders. One of the reasons for this is that women are required to perform gender incongruency just by being

in an outdoor leadership position, while men are not (Gray, 2016; Wittmer, 2001). But because fewer men act in incongruent ways, when they do, it is much more apparent and can result in backlash from participants and a loss of their legitimacy (Davies et al., 2019; Oakley et al., 2018). While women face many challenges in the outdoors, gender roles and the gender binary impact the experiences and feelings of competence of all outdoor leaders. As a result, this research seeks to study the overarching implications of role congruence on both male and female emerging leaders' sense of self-efficacy, not just the impacts it has on women.

Self-Efficacy

Being an outdoor leader requires self-efficacy with outdoor skills. One must make decisions and respond to new and potentially stressful situations, which requires confidence in one's abilities and judgment. A leader's internal self-confidence can also determine whether they accept and perform well in leadership positions (Murphy & Johnson, 2016), and self-efficacy is both a precursor to and an outcome of high levels of performance (Bandura, 1997). Because of this, Bandura's theory of self-efficacy is functional when considering outdoor leadership development (Mittelstaedt & Jones, 2009; Sibthorp, 2003).

According to Bandura (1977), self-efficacy refers to the personal judgment of one's capabilities to act in specific situations that may be new, unpredictable, and potentially stressful. Self-efficacy has three principal dimensions: level, strength, and generality (Bandura, 1997). Level describes the depth of one's efficacy, strength refers to one's confidence in a specific domain, and generality refers to the breadth of the domain (Bandura, 1997). All three dimensions are essential when considering the self-efficacy of emerging outdoor leaders.

Self-efficacy is not an inherent trait. Instead, it is malleable and can be developed through mastery, vicarious experience, social persuasion, and emotional status (Bandura, 1977). In the outdoor context, mastery experience refers to an extensive practice that directly relates to outdoor skills and vicarious experience refers to watching someone of a similar skill level perform a task (Hovey et al., 2020; Bandura, 1986). Often found in the mentoring components of outdoor programs, social persuasion refers to receiving encouragement or feedback on performance and competence with outdoor skills (Hovey et al., 2020). Lastly, emotional status refers to gaining experience on tasks in a controlled setting, which allows for managed stress in a more risky and volatile outdoor environment (Hovey et al., 2020). All of these factors influence emerging outdoor leaders' knowledge, skills, and confidence, which in turn enhances their self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977).

Self-efficacy influences a person's choice of activities and motivation level and is an important component in acquiring knowledge and skills (Bandura, 1997). Because of this, self-efficacy is used across many disciplines to understand individual success and predict future development. As it's been studied in an outdoor setting, self-efficacy is also connected to continued participation and leadership in the outdoors, which makes it an essential factor to research for emerging outdoor leaders (Mittelstaedt & Jones, 2009; Propst & Koesler, 1998).

There are numerous instruments to measure self-efficacy, but Bandura (2012) strongly encourages using specific self-efficacy scales as they relate to a particular task domain. In response to this suggestion, the current study used the outdoor recreation self-efficacy measure (ORSE scale) as a measurement tool (Mittelstaedt & Jones, 2009).

Many other self-efficacy measures exist, but they are either too broad and general (such as the general self-efficacy scale) or too specific (such as the self-efficacy scale of wilderness skills (Propst & Koesler, 1998) for use in this study. The ORSE scale uses a 17-item scale and is currently the most reliable and specific instrument for measuring self-efficacy in outdoor adventure pursuits (Mittelstaedt & Jones, 2009).

Self-efficacy is an important topic to study in the outdoor field because of the impact gender roles and role congruence have on women's perceived competence and literature showing that women tend to demonstrate less self-efficacy than men (Rogers & Rose, 2019). One of the most cited studies on self-efficacy in the outdoors was by Propst and Koesler (1998). In their study, Propst and Koesler (1998) assessed the short- and long-term effects of outdoor leadership programs on self-efficacy by administering the self-efficacy scale of wilderness skills prior to and following a leadership program with the National Outdoor Leadership School (NOLS). This scale was developed by Propst and Koesler (1998) and measures confidence in 20 specific wilderness skills such as "rappelling off a rock face," "backpack 6 miles with 60 lbs. on your back," and "identifying flora and fauna in a wilderness area." In addition to studying changes in self-efficacy scores before and after the program, the authors also examined whether there were differences between the scores of male and female participants (Propst & Koesler, 1998).

The author's study revealed that structured outdoor programs had a positive short- and long-term effect on self-efficacy scores, with significantly higher posttest than baseline self-efficacy scores (t=12.62; p=.000) (Propst & Koesler, 1998). Additionally, the authors found that participants who completed an outdoor experience with feelings of

self-efficacy were more inclined to continue their participation in the outdoors, suggesting that outdoor programs are important for building and retaining outdoor leaders (Propst & Koesler, 1998).

With regards to gender, Propst and Koesler (1998) found that there was a significant difference between male and female participants in baseline self-efficacy scores but that females caught up to males by the end of the course. A potential reason for this baseline difference is because gender differences exist in coping with novel and stressful situations. Ferrier (1992) argues that women tend to be more intuitive than men about the consequences of their actions, which may lower feelings of competence right before a task occurs. This is especially true if the task is socially defined as male-oriented, such as many outdoor skills (Ferrier, 1992). Based on these results, Propst and Koesler (1998) concluded that gender should be considered an important variable in understanding differences in self-efficacy in outdoor participants.

There were multiple proposed reasons for the increase in self-efficacy scores after an outdoor program, but two of the most relevant were the impact of mentoring and the impact of feedback (Propst & Koesler, 1998). Propst and Koesler (1998) argue that mentoring is one of the most critical factors for developing self-efficacy because it enhances self-confidence and self-identity. Mentoring also forms a close, long-term relationship between instructor and student, which allows for the social persuasion Bandura (1986) argues enhances efficacy. It is important to note that Propst and Koesler (1998) found that mentoring had a more substantial impact than any of the other independent variables on the short-term self-efficacy of females (r=.378; p=.014) (Propst & Koesler, 1998). This high impact on women is likely due to their dependence on close

relationships and support to enhance self-efficacy and confidence (Propst & Koesler, 1998). In addition to mentoring, Propst and Koesler (1998) found that feedback was powerful in strengthening self-efficacy. Feedback especially had an effect when it was given by people who were skilled in the specific activity and had background knowledge and insight into the student and their needs (Propst & Koesler, 1998). These findings are supported by Bandura (1986), who found that social persuasion was most effective in enhancing efficacy when given by someone who is trusted.

Sibthorp (2003) also examined self-efficacy in outdoor leadership development in his empirical examination of Walsh and Golin's Adventure Education Process Model (Walsh & Golin, 1976). In this study, Sibthorp (2003) found that when participants were empowered and felt their learning was relevant, they had higher self-efficacy. However, unlike Propst and Koesler (1998), Sibthorp (2003) did not find a direct link between pre-program antecedent factors, such as age, gender, past experiences, and self-efficacy. There have been multiple studies of self-efficacy in the outdoors in settings other than leadership development programs. These include therapeutic recreation (Ferguson & Jones, 2001), physical education teacher training (Hovey et al., 2020), freshman wilderness experiences (Jones & Hinton, 2007), and participant adventure experiences (Scarf et al., 2018). However, limited research has been done on self-efficacy in emerging college outdoor leaders, indicating a need for this research.

Implications for Research

The current research aimed to study how role congruence influences self-efficacy in emerging outdoor leaders. Propst and Koesler (1998) found that a heightened level of self-efficacy contributes to continued interest and outdoor participation. By exploring factors that contribute to self-efficacy, this study aimed to illuminate ways in which

efficacy can be supported and, as a result, increase participation for people who feel challenged or excluded in outdoor spaces.

In addition to factors contributing to self-efficacy, this study focused on the impacts of gender role congruence by examining the challenges that both women and men face to feel competent outdoors. Overholt and Ewert (2015) found that gender differences may contribute to differences in self-perception and assessment of personal ability in outdoor leaders. There is extensive literature on the challenges women face to feel competent, especially when performing physical or technical skills (Jordan, 2018; Lugg, 2018; Overholt & Ewert, 2015; Warren & Loeffler, 2006). There is less research on men's experiences, but some literature suggests that they may feel less confident with relational tasks, such as facilitated debriefs (Overholt & Ewert, 2015). Propst and Koesler (1998) stressed the importance of instructors being aware of the differences between females and males in developing confident and competent outdoor leaders. This current study examined how role congruence expectations contribute to these differences.

Conclusion

This literature review focused on two main themes: role congruence and the implications it has for women and men in the outdoors, and self-efficacy and the factors contributing to it. Research shows that female leaders in the outdoors often face an incongruence between their gender role and leadership role, which makes it harder for them to achieve respect and success in the field (Wittmer, 2001). In addition to creating professional barriers, gender roles also impact the perceived competence of female leaders. Self-efficacy, defined by Bandura (1977) as one's belief in their abilities, is a specific measure of this perceived competence. Multiple studies have explored self-efficacy in outdoor spaces, the most fundamental of which conclude that gender should

be considered an important variable in understanding differences in self-efficacy in outdoor programs (Propst & Koesler, 1998).

While some research on self-efficacy in the outdoors, little research has been conducted on emerging leaders in higher education. This study aimed to address this gap in the literature and examine how role congruence influences the self-efficacy of emerging outdoor leaders.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this research study was to explore how gender role congruence influences the self-efficacy of male and female emerging outdoor leaders. I used a convergent mixed-methods design to triangulate and compare quantitative data with in-depth qualitative research. In the quantitative phase, I used the Outdoor Recreation Self-Efficacy scale (ORSE scale) to measure the self-efficacy of eight outdoor leaders at a large Midwestern university's outdoor recreation program. I additionally employed a qualitative phase using interviews, observations, and reflective drawings collected from the same eight participants before, during, and after a nine-day outdoor leadership development program. By using both forms of data, I explored how gender role congruence influences the participants' self-efficacy by triangulating qualitative results with initial ORSE scale scores.

Approach Rationale

A mixed-methods approach involves the collection, analysis, and interpretation of both quantitative and qualitative data (Creswell & Creswell, 2017). These two forms of data are then integrated into the convergent design by triangulating and comparing qualitative and quantitative results (Creswell & Creswell, 2017). Quantitative data collection involves using closed-ended questions, which for this research was through the ORSE scale. Qualitative data is then collected using open-ended and freeform questions, which for this research was through interviews, reflective drawings, and observations.

I employed a convergent mixed methods approach because it allowed for a more complete understanding of factors that contribute to self-efficacy in emerging outdoor leaders. By collecting both quantitative and qualitative data, I could obtain different but

complementary data on the same topic, which allowed me to examine relationships between variables that would not have existed with just one form of data (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). For this research, solely using the quantitative ORSE scale would have provided a measure of self-efficacy with no explanation for participant differences. Exclusively collecting qualitative data would have provided extensive context but lacked a specific and objective measure of self-efficacy. Therefore, I chose to collect and analyze both forms of data to support my understanding of each. A convergent mixed methods design additionally allows for corroboration and validation between data and brings together the strengths and weaknesses of each methodology (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). Specifically, I could provide more explanation and context for quantitative results and triangulate the qualitative responses with a validated measure of self-efficacy (Creswell & Creswell, 2017).

This study defined role congruence as the congruity between one's gender and leadership roles (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Gender roles were defined as consensual beliefs about the attributes of women and men that are normative for each sex, involving both descriptive and prescriptive norms (Eagly, 1987; Ritter & Yoder, 2004). Leadership roles are the positions of power that one holds in a group, and in the outdoor field require the knowledge and skills to teach and make decisions in potentially risky environments (Baker & O'Brien, 2020). For operationalizing self-efficacy, I used Bandura's (1997) definition as the personal judgment of one's capabilities to act in specific situations that may be new, unpredictable, and potentially stressful.

Participants

The participants for this study were eight college students who were training to be outdoor leaders at a large Midwestern university's outdoor recreation program.

Participants were asked during an interview to describe their gender identity, and four of the eight participants (50%) identified as cisgender males. The other four (50%) identified as cisgender females (with ‘cisgender’ referring to relating one’s sense of personal identity and gender to birth sex). While I acknowledge that gender exists outside of the male-female binary, because of the participants' self-identification, male and female will be used to describe them and the research results.

While this research did not directly examine the influence of race on self-efficacy, the intersection of gender and race is important to consider, so I am acknowledging that the participants were predominantly white. All participants were currently enrolled as undergraduate students at the same Midwestern University, and all were between the ages of 19 and 22. Three of the eight (37%) were sophomores in college, four (50%) were juniors, and one (13%) was a senior. Participants who were relatively homogenous regarding age and outdoor leadership roles were intentionally selected, as both factors may influence outdoor recreation self-efficacy.

In addition to being undergraduate students, all participants were employed at the same outdoor recreation program, with five months to three years of experience. Participants had to apply for this position and were hired based on their demonstration of interpersonal skills and interest in the outdoors. Employees did not have to possess any outdoor technical skills when they began working, but all potential participants have shown interest and motivation in being outdoor leaders. The participants varied in their outdoor leadership experience, from some who had never been on an overnight outdoor trip to others who had prior experience going on and leading multi-day outdoor trips.

Out of all the employees at this outdoor recreation program, the population for this study was a convenience sample of students who participated in a nine-day outdoor leadership development program called the Outdoor Leadership Seminar (OLS). OLS involved the practice and development of technical skills (specifically canoeing and backpacking) and leadership skills and included many of the activities described in the "Outdoor Leadership Development Programs" section of Chapter 2. Specifically, OLS employed a Leader of the Day (LOD) model, where participants had the opportunity to make all leadership decisions for two days. Participants also engaged in conversations and feedback sessions facilitated by supervisors each night to debrief their learning and development. Besides being an employee at the outdoor recreation program, there was no baseline requirement for attending OLS. However, since OLS is required training for students interested in leading multi-day outdoor trips, many participants had some leadership experience and a motivation to grow as outdoor leaders.

Two months before the start of OLS, all potential participants were sent a recruitment message (found in Appendix A) asking for consent to participate in the research study by my research advisor. Participants who chose to participate completed an Informed Consent Form (found in Appendix B) and remained the same for both the quantitative and qualitative phases.

It is important to note that while conducting this research, I was employed by the outdoor recreation program where this study was conducted and was in a supervisory position to participants. My position afforded me insider knowledge into the outdoor program and OLS and allowed me to access and build rapport with participants. However, conducting research had the potential to create a power imbalance between my

participants and me, which may have influenced the responses I received. As a result, my positionality and how to ensure validity in my results are considered in my data analysis.

In accordance with the Institutional Review Board (IRB), as an additional precaution to minimize the potential for undue influence, my research advisor contacted potential participants about the opportunity to participate. In this recruitment message, a statement was included stating that their decision to or not to participate is entirely voluntary and will have no impact on their standing as an employee or their relationship with me or the outdoor recreation program. Additionally, it was ensured that any data collected would not be used in performance evaluations.

Quantitative Research Phase

The quantitative research component of this mixed-methods study used the Outdoor Recreation Self-Efficacy scale (ORSE scale) to determine an objective measure of participants' self-efficacy. These quantitative results were then used to benchmark and triangulate with qualitative results to provide holistic data analysis. A description of the ORSE scale is listed in the data collection sub-section.

Quantitative Data Collection

For the quantitative phase, I employed the Outdoor Recreation Self-Efficacy scale (ORSE scale) (found in Appendix C). The ORSE scale was developed by Mittelstaedt and Jones in 2009. It was designed using multiple other measures, including the perceived competence of functioning inventory (PCFI), the general self-efficacy scale (GSE), and the self-efficacy scale of wilderness skills (Mittelstaedt & Jones, 2009). The scale initially included 35 items but was cut down to the 17 items believed to be truly salient to outdoor recreation activities. The items are organized into two categories, Enjoyment/Accomplishment and Skills/Competence. Each item can be scaled from 0-10,

where 0= “not at all true” and 10= “very true” (Mittelstaedt & Jones, 2009). I chose to use the ORSE scale because it was the most specific scale to date for measuring self-efficacy in outdoor adventure pursuits, as other scales were either too broad (such as the general self-efficacy scale) or too specific (such as the self-efficacy scale of wilderness skills).

Exploratory factor analysis conducted by Mittelstaedt and Jones (2009) using Varimax rotation and Kaiser Normalization indicated that the unidimensional ORSE scale consisted of two factors, or subscales, labeled Enjoyment/Accomplishment and Skills/Competence. The two subscales accounted for 74.54% of the explained variance in outdoor recreation self-efficacy, with Enjoyment/Accomplishment accounting for 61.84% and Skills/Competence accounting for 12.71% (Mittelstaedt & Jones, 2009). Reliability using Cronbach’s alpha also indicated that the overall internal consistency for the 17-item scale was relatively high (α=.96, p<.001) (Mittelstaedt & Jones, 2009). Reliability was also increased for each of the subscales; Enjoyment/Accomplishment (α=.95, p<.001) and Skills/Competence (α=.94, p<.001) (Mittelstaedt & Jones, 2009). It is important to note that this scale was created and tested on a convenience sample of women who participated in Becoming Outdoor Women (BOW) events. Little other research has been done generalizing the results. Because of this, the reliability and validity results must be interpreted with some caution when generalizing them beyond the parameters of the initial study (Mittelstaedt & Jones, 2009). However, the ORSE scale is still the most specific measure of self-efficacy in outdoor recreation to date, which is why I chose to use it in this research.

The ORSE scale was administered through a paper form to participants during the week before they departed on OLS. Forms included a set of instructions and were given to participants to complete during a pre-trip meeting.

Quantitative Data Analysis

Because the quantitative results showed a validated measure of perceived self-efficacy, they are an essential data source. However, the primary purpose of collecting ORSE scale data was to organize and triangulate with the qualitative results. To analyze data from the quantitative phase, I scored the ORSE scale for each of the participants to find their individual perceived self-efficacy levels. The scoring process entailed summing the ranks for each item for Factor 1 (Enjoyment/Accomplishment) and Factor 2 (Skills/Competence) and then combining those two values to get a total score (Mittelstaedt & Jones, 2009). Once total scores were determined, they were sorted into four categories reflecting low, low-mid, mid-high, and high perceived self-efficacy based on the distribution of scores. The highest possible score was 170 points, and each bracket's score ranges were: 0-124= low, 125-134= low-mid, 135-144= mid-high, 144-170= high.

These brackets were then used to organize data and look for patterns or distinctions in the interviews, observations, and reflective drawings of participants who fell into each bracket. The use of score brackets was not an established scoring interpretation; however, I believed it would allow me to best compare ORSE scale results with the qualitative data because it created distinctions between participants based on their perceived self-efficacy where other trends could emerge. The total scores were used for bracketing participants, but if there were particularly salient statements or

observations from the qualitative phase, I also considered the score for each individual ORSE scale item as an additional data point and source of triangulation.

Qualitative Research Phase

In addition to collecting quantitative data, I conducted a qualitative research phase. In a summary, qualitative research involves multiple sources of open-ended data collection (Creswell & Creswell, 2017). These methods allow participants to share their ideas freely and not be constrained by predetermined scales or instruments (Creswell & Creswell, 2017). It also allows participants to make and experience their own meanings of phenomena and creates a holistic account of the data in question.

For the qualitative research phase, I employed a phenomenological strategy of inquiry. Phenomenological research involves exploring the common meaning of a lived experience, in this case, the influence of gender roles on self-efficacy of several individuals (Creswell & Poth, 2018). Through the research process, the individual experiences of this phenomenon are analyzed to understand its universal essence (Lichtman, 2013; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016).

I specifically used Moustakas's (1994) transcendental approach to phenomenology. Instead of focusing on the researcher's interpretations, transcendental phenomenology focuses on descriptions of participants' experiences (Moustakas, 1994). To achieve this, I first engaged in the process of epoche, where I set aside my own experiences as much as possible to view the data unclouded. I then followed Moustakas's methodological structure of collecting data from several participants who have experienced the phenomenon, analyzing the data by reducing it to significant statements and themes, and developing textual and structural descriptions of the participants' experiences (1994). These descriptions were then combined to present an overall essence

of the experience. This methodology is further elaborated in the Qualitative Data Analysis section of Chapter 3.

A phenomenological approach was best suited for this research because I aimed to understand the overall essence of how gender role congruency influences self-efficacy from multiple participants' perspectives. A defining feature of phenomenological research is the assumption before research begins that there is an essence or essences to shared experiences that can be explored (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). I operated within this assumption to guide the purpose and methodology of this research, to depict the basic structure of participants' experiences with gender role congruence and self-efficacy in the outdoors. I specifically chose to use the transcendental phenomenological approach because I believed the process of epoche to set aside my own bias and interpretations was important when analyzing a topic I had a prior connection with. Additionally, transcendental phenomenology has a systematic and rigorous methodology, which benefited a novice researcher (Creswell & Poth, 2018; Moustakas, 1994).

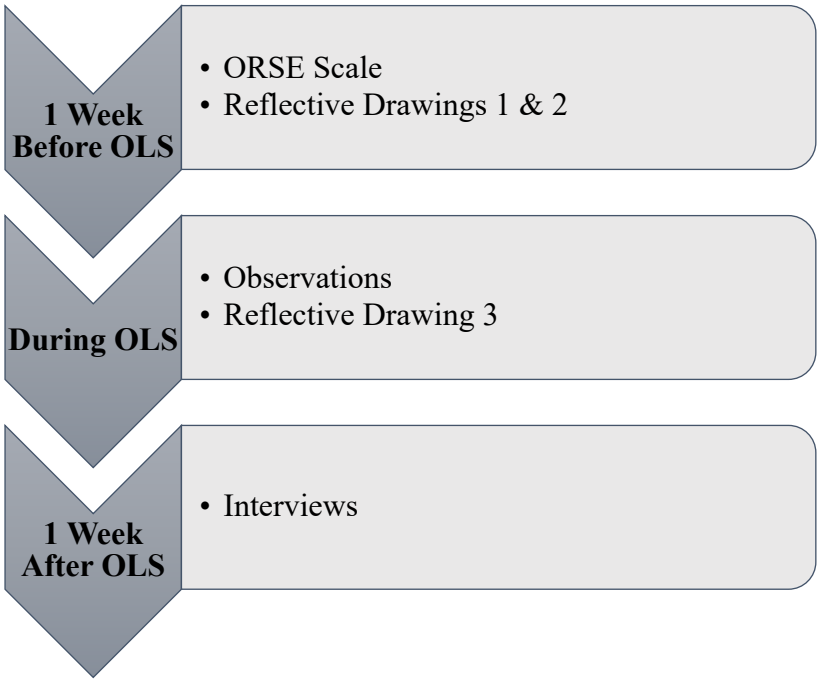
Qualitative Data Collection

The current study utilized an emergent design approach, meaning that while I had initial interview questions and observation criteria, my specific methods of data collection had the potential to shift as I continued to explore role congruence and self-efficacy (Creswell & Creswell, 2017). For this emergent design, data collection was in the form of reflective drawings created by participants, in-depth, semi-structured interviews, and observations conducted during OLS. Figure 1 below shows a timeline of when each form of data was collected, including the previously discussed ORSE scale.

Elaboration on this timeline, and what each qualitative data collection process entailed will be found in the following sections.

Figure 1

Methodological Timeline



Reflective Drawings. One of the ways I evaluated the impact of role congruence on self-efficacy was by having participants create reflective drawings. One month before going on the OLS trip, participants were asked to draw two images with the following prompts (the full pages given to participants can also be found in Appendix D):

> *"On the following pages, you will be asked to complete two drawings. How you interpret the prompts, and the level of detail you include is up to you. You will have the opportunity to explain your drawings during an interview.*
>
> - *Reflective Drawing #1: Please draw a "typical" outdoor leader.*

- *Reflective Drawing #2: Please draw a self-portrait of yourself leading outside."*

These drawings were then collected from participants and held by the researcher. I proposed collecting only these two reflective drawings in the original research proposal. However, with the emergent design of this research, the opportunity for a third reflective drawing appeared. This drawing was assigned on the last night of the OLS trip when participants were given their two original drawings back and asked:

"Please review your self-portrait and make any changes to it based on your leadership experience on OLS."

All three drawings were then collected from participants and held by the researcher for analysis. During their interview, participants were given the opportunity to review their three drawings and explain any reasoning behind them or differences between them. This method was based on the narrative inquiry research done by Rogers and Rose (2019), who conducted a critical exploration of women's gendered experience in outdoor leadership using interviews and photographs. Creating these drawings allowed participants to conceptualize their leadership in more ways than the spoken word, and it provided the opportunity for a more nuanced insight into how leadership is visualized and portrayed by emerging leaders.

Interviews. Interviews were used as the primary form of qualitative data collection because they allowed for a deep and holistic exploration into the thoughts and experiences of participants as it relates to the lived experience of self-efficacy and gender role congruence. When conducting phenomenological research, the interview questions also allowed direct inquiry toward understanding how participants individually

experience the process of gender roles influencing self-efficacy in relation to the overall phenomenon (Creswell & Poth, 2018).

In the original research proposal, I proposed conducting two rounds of interviews, the first occurring during the week prior to leaving on OLS and the second occurring during the week after OLS training. However, based on time constraints, only one round of interviews was conducted. This interview occurred during the week after OLS training and included a combination of questions from both proposed interview rounds. I asked a series of questions about participants' confidence as outdoor leaders and the impact that gender has on their experience. I also asked them to reflect on the OLS training experience and elaborate on their reflective drawings. The interview questions are listed below (also found in Appendix E):

1. How would you describe your outdoor experience before OLS?
2. What aspects of outdoor leadership do you feel most confident in? What aspects do you feel least confident in? *(Prompting follow-up: think about tasks that need to happen on a trip, such as teaching, logistical planning, facilitating conversation, driving the trailer, demonstrating technical skills, etc.)*
3. How would you describe your gender identity? For example, would you describe yourself as male, female, non-binary, etc.?
4. Do you believe your gender identity influences your overall experience as an outdoor leader? If so, how? If not, why not?
5. Do you believe your gender identity influences your confidence as an outdoor leader? If so, how? If not, why not?
6. Did you make any observations about the relationship between gender and confidence on OLS? If so, what were they? *(Prompting follow-up: What was the impact of that relationship?)*
7. What did you see as the role of feedback on OLS?
8. I asked you to complete three drawings, two before and one during the trip. Can you explain what you drew? *(Prompting follow-up: What, if any,*

differences are there between the two drawings? Why are they different? Why did your second drawing change?)

9. Is there anything else you would like to add?

This interview was conducted at the outdoor recreation program in a private classroom. Interviews ranged from 10 minutes to 35 minutes, and the audio was recorded using a voice recorder app on the researcher's phone. Handwritten notes were also taken to record salient points. All eight participants participated in an interview.

Observations. The final aspect of qualitative data collection was observations conducted during the nine-day OLS training. Observations were a critical component of the research because they afforded the opportunity to record and analyze the actual behaviors and interactions of participants (Creswell & Poth, 2018). Since I was fully immersed in OLS as a trip supervisor, I conducted observations as a complete participant. As previously indicated, my dual roles of supervisor and researcher had the potential to influence researcher objectivity. However, my positionally as a complete participant allowed me to fully engage with the people I was observing, which helped establish rapport and provided me with insider knowledge and perspective (Creswell & Poth, 2018).

The primary form of observation data was feedback given to participants by themselves and their peers at the end of each of their Leader of the Day (LOD) days. This emergent methodology occurred partly because I faced challenges recording detailed observations throughout the day while canoeing and backpacking. But the primary reason for this shift from the originally proposed methodology was the richness and relevance of self-reflective and group feedback when considering participants' self-efficacy and gender role congruence.

Each night of the OLS trip, the two or three students who were that day's Leader of the Day (LODs) gave and received self, co-leader, and peer feedback on their leadership. These feedback pieces were commentary on events that happened during the day and observations about how the participant could improve or act differently. And because they included both internal perceptions (from self-feedback) and external perceptions (from co-leader and group feedback), they provided a holistic account of what occurred and was observed each day. Additionally, they allowed for more observation perspectives than mine as the researcher, which helped minimize bias in recording and recollecting events. Direct quotes of the feedback statements were recorded, as well as reflective notes on the context or emotions I perceived. An example of how the field notes were organized can be found in Figure 2:

Figure 2

Observation Field Note Template

Observation Date & Time: Location/Activity:	
Descriptive Notes	Reflective Notes
Self Feedback: Co-Leader Feedback: Peer/Group Feedback:	

As previously discussed, in addition to conducting research on OLS, I also filled the dual role of being a supervisor and I provided feedback to participants each night to help them grow as leaders. In accordance with the IRB, I did not include any feedback I gave participants in the research data. I addressed this obstacle of recording self, co-leader, and group feedback while keeping my own feedback separate by keeping two field journals. The first journal was for research notes and observations and followed the observation protocol stated above in Figure 1. The second field journal was not used for data collection but was a space for me to plan and write the supervisor feedback I needed to provide the student LODs.

While the primary form of observational data was feedback, I also took memo notes on reconstructions of dialogue, accounts of specific events or behaviors, or descriptions of the physical setting during the OLS trip. These notes were not analyzed as research data, but were used to provide context to feedback statements when drawing conclusions. In the original research proposal, I also proposed recording observations that aligned with themes identified in the literature, such as the need to prove oneself and personal motivation (Bandura, 1997). While some of these themes organically appeared in the observations, they were not prevalent enough to warrant separate recording and consideration outside the overall analysis.

Qualitative Data Analysis

For the qualitative data analysis, I followed Moustakas's (1994) approach to transcendental phenomenology by reducing the data to significant statements and themes to develop textual and structural descriptions of participants' experiences. Throughout this process, I used both inductive and deductive approaches to first inductively identify

significant statements and organize the data into increasingly more abstract themes (Creswell & Creswell, 2017). I then worked deductively by referring back to the data to determine if there were adequate statements to support each theme. To support the deductive approach, I employed memoing throughout the research process, which involved recording ideas and insights about the evolving themes to discover patterns (Creswell & Poth, 2018).

Throughout the qualitative data analysis, I continuously triangulated between the three data collection forms to see if there were any similarities or differences between data types. For example, participants were asked in their interview if they believe gender influences their experience and confidence as outdoor leaders. By comparing observations of self-efficacy to interview responses to this question, I could draw conclusions on how the internalized perception of gender may impact actual self-efficacy. Triangulating the qualitative data also allowed me to cross-check the reliability of interview responses and observations and see how actions and perceptions changed over the nine-day OLS trip.

I started the analysis process by first transcribing all interviews and cataloging the field notes and drawings. Interviews were transcribed using the AI transcription service Temi and then proof checked by the researcher. Observation field notes were typed and then organized by participant name and type of observation (self, co-leader, or group feedback). Drawings were scanned into digital copies for inclusion in the research presentation but were kept in their original form for analysis. Once the raw data were transcribed and typed, they were read and reviewed as a whole to understand the broad themes and ideas present that related to the study's purpose statement.

After reviewing all the data, a detailed analysis was conducted for each data type. For the interviews, this was done by reading each transcript and highlighting all significant statements (phrases relevant to the research question). Significant statements were categorized as relating to high self-efficacy (HSE), low self-efficacy (LSE), role congruent behaviors (RCB), role incongruent behaviors (RICB), or general statements that did not fall into a specific category. Tables 1 and 2 below show examples of specific behaviors illustrating these categories, based on the literature and my previous experience in outdoor leadership. It is important to note that these lists were not exhaustive, and the categories were sometimes blurred; however, they provided a framework for the specific behaviors germane to exploring gender role congruence and self-efficacy.

Table 1

Role Congruence Behavior Examples from Literature

Role congruent behaviors (RCB)	
Male leaders	Female leaders
Agentic qualities of being assertive, ambitious, dominant, and self-confident (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Ritter & Yoder, 2004)	Communal qualities of being affectionate, interpersonal, and nurturing (Eagly & Karau, 2002)
Assertive decision making (Wittmer, 2001)	Being encouraging and supportive to group members (Rogers & Rose, 2019)
Decision making without the input of others (Wittmer, 2001)	Mediating the group when there is conflict (Gray, 2016)
	Taking on planning/logistical tasks (Being behind the scene "work horse) (Gray, 2016, p. 34)
	Giving credit to the group for accomplishments (Lugg, 2018)
Role incongruent behaviors (RIB)	
Male leaders	Female leaders
Democratic/facilitated decision making, first aid, emotional labor tasks (Davies et al., 2019)	Quickly making decisions (Wittmer, 2001)
Relational tasks (Overholt & Ewert, 2015)	Teaching technical skills (Jordan, 2018)
Taking the backseat in decision making (Davies et al., 2019)	Being directive with the group (Wittmer, 2001)

Table 2

Self-Efficacy Behavior Examples from Literature

Self-Efficacy Behaviors	
High Self-Efficacy (HSE)	Low Self-Efficacy (LSE)
Making self-affirming and confident statements (Bandura, 1977; Sherer et al. 1982)	Making self-deprecating statements (Bandura, 1977)
Seeking out, being receptive to feedback (Sherer et al. 1982)	Being defensive to/rejecting feedback, not accepting compliments or praise (Momsen & Carlson, 2013)
Being active during decision making (Momsen & Carlson, 2013)	Being hesitant to try something new (Bandura, 1977; Sherer et al. 1982)
Accepting compliments and praise (Bandura, 1977)	Avoidance of challenge/difficult tasks (Sherer et al. 1982)
Willingness to try new things (Sherer et al. 1982)	Comparing self negatively to others, Indecisive with decisions/judgment calls (Sherer et al. 1982)
Asking for help to solve problems (Momsen & Carlson, 2013)	Having an inaccurate self-evaluation (individual feedback does not align with peer/supervisor feedback) (Bandura, 1977)
Taking on responsibility and leadership with the group (Momsen & Carlson, 2013)	Being passive during decision making (Momsen & Carlson, 2013)
Having an accurate self-evaluation (individual feedback aligns with peer/supervisor feedback) (Bandura, 1977)	Removal/isolation from the group (Sherer et al. 1982)

After identifying a significant statement, I recorded meaning unit notes as to why it was relevant. I also used memoing to note when my own bias emerged or when I had questions.

For the observational data, I engaged in a similar process of reading and highlighting feedback observations that were germane to the study purpose.Using the behaviors outlined in Table 1, I categorized feedback data (from self, co-leader, and peer feedback) that aligned with female role congruence behaviors as “Female RCB” and that aligned with male role congruence behaviors as “Male RCB,” regardless of the gender of the participant. I also categorized feedback that aligned with high and low self-efficacy (HSE and LSE, respectively). For particularly salient pieces of feedback, I included notes with meaning units, but for most feedback, I simply categorized it without additional notes, with the intent of counting its prevalence during analysis.

Review of the drawing data followed a two-step process. I started by reviewing only the physical drawings and recording my initial observations and notes on the details. These notes recorded and counted what specific features were included (such as the gender of the person or the clothes they were wearing) and any differences or changes between the drawings. I then reviewed the interview transcripts where participants were asked to describe their drawing and followed a similar process to the previously discussed interview review by highlighting and noting relevant significant statements.

The review of the interview, observation, and drawing data were all conducted by hand on physical printouts of transcripts, field notes, and drawings. This review process happened at least twice for each piece of data, as I repeated the procedures after an initial review to find any additional statements or edit the original interpretations. Once this

review was completed, all significant statements, meaning units, memos, and notes, were typed to be further analyzed.

After this holistic review, the data were then reviewed and organized into broader units of information, referred to as themes, to provide a foundation for my interpretation (Creswell & Creswell, 2017). These themes focused on and simplified ideas to generate a description of the structure of this lived experience (Creswell & Poth, 2018; Moustakas, 1994). When generating themes, I developed textual descriptions, showing what participants experienced, and structural descriptions, reflecting how they experienced this phenomenon (Creswell & Poth, 2018; Moustakas, 1994). These textual and structural descriptions were then combined to convey the phenomenon's overall essence. The themes were developed separately for interview, observation, and drawing data and then reviewed to determine overarching themes.

To validate the emergent themes, I also organized and counted significant statements that fell into categories related to my purpose statement. This allowed me to ensure that each theme had adequate supporting significant statements from various participants and provided an additional way to present data. For observational feedback data, I counted all statements for each participant in the Female RCB, Male RCB, HSE, and LSE categories. I also organized these statements by the type of feedback, including self, co-leader, or group feedback. When a significant statement overlapped or connected between two categories, it was sorted into both and then reviewed to determine if it represented one more category more than the other or if it should be counted twice. A table representing the organization of observational data can be found in Appendix F.

After counting the pieces of feedback in each category, I then organized the broader Female RCB, Male RCB, HSE, and LSE categories into subcategories.

For the drawing data, I counted the number of features included in each drawing (such as the gender of the person or what clothes they were wearing) to get an overall summary of features included and to determine if there were any differences between drawings and between participants. This data analysis and organization approach varied slightly from my original research proposal but maintained the same essence of generating themes and then organizing data based on thematic categories.

Mixed-Methods Approach and Analysis

While I employed different methods to analyze the raw data, as a convergent mixed-methods research project, quantitative and qualitative data analysis also happened simultaneously and congruently. The intent of conducting a convergent mixed-methods study was to allow for a richer analysis of perspective and determine to what extent the different forms of data converge or diverge (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). Additionally, a mixed-methods approach allowed me to triangulate between a valid measure of self-efficacy and participants' interviews, observations, and reflections to illuminate a deeper understanding of scores and lived experiences.

For the mixed-methods analysis, I used the high, high-mid, mid-low, and low perceived self-efficacy score brackets determined in the quantitative phase to compare qualitative results and look for convergence or divergence between brackets. For this comparison, I counted the number of significant statements in each observation category (high self-efficacy, low self-efficacy, female role congruent behaviors, and male role congruent behaviors). I then determined if any trends emerged based on the number of

occurrences of a particular type of feedback for participants who had either higher or lower perceived self-efficacy scores. I then used the textual and structural descriptions generated in the qualitative analysis to support my understanding of emerging trends. For example, I anticipated that participants with higher ORSE scale scores would have a larger amount of high self-efficacy feedback. Additionally, I anticipated that participants who scored lower on the ORSE scale would demonstrate lower self-efficacy and would be less likely to act in role incongruent ways. I organized the data using a similar table to the qualitative observation analysis, which can be found in Appendix G.

In my original proposal, I also proposed including examples of themes present, salient significant statements (in addition to just counts), and measures of secondary categories, such as personal motivation and proving legitimacy, in this mixed-methods analysis. However, with the emergent design of this research, it became apparent that those thematic comparisons were more suited for triangulation between only qualitative forms of data, as opposed to sorting them into strict quantitative categories.

Representing Findings

I presented the mixed methods findings of category counts within each ORSE scale score bracket, as shown in Table 5. This presentation gives a side-by-side comparison of the quantitative and qualitative results and allows the reader to visualize the data and see any possible comparisons (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). As recommended by Creswell and Poth (2018), I then reported the "essence" of the phenomenon using a composite description. This description highlighted how ORSE scale scores, interviews, observations, and reflective drawings converge to represent the phenomenon. To provide context, the written explanation included salient examples of

quotes, observations, and drawings from the table to provide examples and support for the essence.

Validity and Reliability

When conducting mixed methods research, it is essential to ensure validity and reliability in all forms of data collection and interpretations. To ensure the accuracy of the findings, I employed multiple validity procedures, which will be discussed in the following sections.

Quantitative

As previously discussed, the ORSE scale instrument used for the quantitative phase has been shown to have appropriate reliability and validity (Mittelstaedt & Jones, 2009). Exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis conducted revealed that the two subscales, Enjoyment/Accomplishment (61.84%) and Skills/Competence (12.71%) ,accounted for 74.54% of the explained variance in outdoor recreation self-efficacy (Mittelstaedt & Jones, 2009).

Tests of reliability using Cronbach's alpha also indicated that the overall internal consistency for the 17-item scale was high (α=.96, p<.001) (Mittelstaedt & Jones, 2009). Reliability was also high for each of the subscales; Enjoyment/Accomplishment (α=.95, p<.001) and Skills/Competence (α=.94, p<.001) (Mittelstaedt & Jones, 2009).

Qualitative

To ensure the accuracy of the qualitative findings, I employed multiple validity procedures. First, I triangulated the qualitative data by comparing interviews, drawings, and observations results to determine if themes were being established in several sources. When presenting the findings, I intentionally shared results that may run counter to the identified themes or preconceived notions based on the literature and my past experiences

to ensure an honest and complete account. I also clarified my bias as a researcher and acknowledged and addressed how it may have impacted my work at different stages, such as by writing memos as I developed codes and themes. To assist with this process, this research also underwent a peer audit. This peer audit involved a graduate student in my department who did not have a prior connection to this research, reviewing the findings to provide feedback on where my personal bias may have emerged in the results and discussion sections. In addition to general feedback, this audit revealed two instances where data was reported more favorably or in an editorializing way for female participants than male participants. These sections were then revised to report the findings more accurately and objectively.

Lastly, I engaged in member checking with participants at the end of the data analysis to ensure that the findings accurately represented their experiences. For this member checking process, all eight participants were contacted with the opportunity to review the study's results and analysis. Six of the eight participants responded, and each met with me to review the results section. During this time, participants were asked to review the significant statements from their interviews to confirm the meaning units associated with them and the context in which they were shared. Participants also provided feedback on the accuracy of the emergent themes.

To ensure the reliability of the research work, I carefully documented procedures so that this research can be repeatable and consistent across different projects. In the data analysis phase, I also checked transcripts for accuracy and defined and checked the codes to ensure there was no drift in their definitions.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

This chapter begins by reporting results from the quantitative phase and then reporting results from the qualitative phase. It concludes with a mixed-methods analysis and a representation of the converged quantitative and qualitative data.

Participant Information

There were eight participants in this research study, all of whom participated in both the quantitative and qualitative phases. A complete description of the participants can be found in Chapter 3, but Table 3 identifies key characteristics of each of the participants (labeled with a pseudonym).

Table 3

Participant Information

Participant Pseudonym	Gender
Becky	Female
Diane	Female
Mary	Female
Susanna	Female
Seth	Male
Ken	Male
Trevor	Male
Jason	Male

Quantitative Phase Results

The quantitative phase of this research was used to measure participants' perceived self-efficacy as a comparison tool to triangulate with data obtained in the

qualitative phase. The Outdoor Recreation Self-Efficacy (ORSE) scale was used to collect quantitative data. This scale was previously discussed in Chapter 3, but, in summary, it asks the respondent to score their perceived self-efficacy for 17 items on a scale of 0-10, where 0 = "not at all true" and 10 = "very true" (Mittelstaedt & Jones, 2009). Scores were then summed from all 17 items for a total score, with the highest possible score being 170. The results of this scale can be found in Table 4.

Table 4

ORSE Scale Scores

Participant Gender	Participant	Factor 1	Factor 2	Total Score
Female	Mary	74	49	123
	Diane	90	40	130
	Becky	86	46	132
	Susanna	94	62	156
Male	Jason	73	50	123
	Ken	81	54	135
	Seth	82	55	137
	Trevor	100	60	160

Scores ranged from 123 points to 160 points, with an average overall score of 137. Descriptive statistics for female and male participants were also calculated separately and can be found in Table 5.

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics of ORSE Scale Scores

Factor	Female Participants		Male Participants	
	M	SD	*M*	*SD*
Factor 1	86	8.64	84	11.4
Factor 2	49.25	9.287	54.75	4.11
Total Score	135.25	14.36	138.75	15.45

Note. n=4 for each condition.

Table 5 shows that the Factor 1 scores (Enjoyment/Accomplishment in the outdoors) of male and female participants were similar, with female participants scoring two points higher on average. The greater difference was between the Factor 2 scores (Skills/Competence in the outdoors), where male participants scored on average 5.5 points higher. However, a Between Groups *t*-test (summarized in Table 6) found no significant differences in the mean scores between male and female participants in any category (Factor 1, Factor 2, or Total Score).

Table 6

t-Test for Equality of Means of Male and Female ORSE Scale Scores

Scores	*t*	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Factor 1	0.2	3	0.85
Factor 2	-0.93	3	0.421
Total	-0.24	3	0.82

Bracketing Scores

While the ORSE scale did not reveal any significant differences between the scored self-efficacy of male and female participants, it can still be used as a bracketing tool to help triangulate and organize the qualitative data. The intent of the original data

analysis was to sort ORSE scale scores into three categories, representing low, middle, and high perceived self-efficacy ranges. However, based on the distributions of scores, four categories emerged. Using the Interquartile Ranges of the data, with Q1= 128.25, Median= 133.5, and Q3= 141.75, scores were grouped into four categories of perceived self-efficacy: low, low-mid, mid-high, and high, found in Table 7.

Table 7

Bracketed ORSE Scale Scores

Category	Participant	Score
Low	*Mary*	123
	Jason	123
Low-Mid	*Diane*	130
	Becky	132
Mid-High	Ken	135
	Seth	137
High	*Susanna*	156
	Trevor	160

Note: *Italicized* names indicate female participants

Limitations for Analysis

While the ORSE scale provides a quantitative measure of perceived self-efficacy, a limitation to its utility emerged after collecting the qualitative data. One of the themes that emerged from the qualitative data is that experience with outdoor leadership is important in determining one's outdoor recreation self-efficacy. Because the ORSE scale was administered early in the data collection process before participants went on the

Outdoor Leadership Seminar (OLS) training trip, scores were likely tied to their prior outdoor experience, not their potential for and demonstration of self-efficacy.

This became apparent during the qualitative phase, when some participants who demonstrated high self-efficacy on the OLS trip through observations and interviews had very low ORSE scale scores, and participants who showed low self-efficacy on the trip had high ORSE scale scores. Table 9 below shows the prior outdoor experience of participants (before the OLS trip) in addition to their ORSE scale score to demonstrate this trend. Prior outdoor experience was categorized as none, limited, moderate, or high and was determined during the interview by participants describing their outdoor experience and the number of trips they had been on. Definitions for each category can be found below in Table 8, with a "backcountry overnight trip" being defined as an outdoor trip without access to a vehicle.

Table 8

Definitions of Prior Outdoor Experience Categories

Prior Outdoor Experience	Definition
None	Never been on a backcountry overnight trip
Limited	Been on, but never led a backcountry overnight trip
Moderate	Been on/led 1-3 backcountry overnight trips
High	Been on/led 4+ backcountry overnight trips

Table 9

Bracketed ORSE Scale Scores with Prior Outdoor Experience

Perceived Self-Efficacy	Participant	Score	Prior Outdoor Experience
Low	*Mary*	123	Limited
	Jason	123	None
Low-Mid	*Diane*	130	None
	Becky	132	High
Mid-High	Ken	135	Moderate
	Seth	137	Moderate
High	*Susanna*	156	Moderate
	Trevor	160	High

Note: *Italicized* names indicate female participants

As Table 9 shows, there is a strong correlation between prior outdoor experience and perceived self-efficacy category, with almost all the participants with low and low-mid perceived self-efficacy having none or limited prior outdoor experience, and all the participants with mid-high or high perceived self-efficacy having moderate or high prior outdoor experience. The only outlier to this trend is Becky, who had high prior outdoor experience, but low-mid perceived self-efficacy.

Qualitative Phase Results

The second phase of this research study used a combination of interview, observation, and reflective drawing data to answer the research question, *how does gender role congruence influence the self-efficacy of emerging outdoor leaders?* The participants for this research phase were the same eight participants who completed the ORSE scale in the quantitative phase. Qualitative data were collected before, during, and

after their nine-day Outdoor Leadership Seminar (OLS) training trip. After data collection, each participant was assigned a pseudonym.

Several themes emerged from the data that described *what* the participants experienced regarding gender role congruence and self-efficacy and *how* they experienced gender role congruence and self-efficacy in an outdoor leadership setting. Following a phenomenological research approach, the themes presented in the following sections are divided into textual themes (*what* they experienced regarding gender role congruence and self-efficacy) and structural themes (*how* they experienced gender role congruence and self-efficacy in the context of an outdoor leadership setting).

For textual themes, the data revealed that participants held different gender roles and leadership expectations for men than they did for women. The data also indicated that self-efficacy was related to the role congruence of one's behaviors and that self-efficacy appeared in different amounts and different ways for male and female participants. The structural themes sections will present data on how participants viewed a "typical outdoor leader" and the association participants held between masculinity and leadership. Findings on self-efficacy, specifically regarding outdoor technical skills, will also be reported, as well as an alternative perspective that experience may matter more than gender in determining one's self-efficacy. These sections will conclude with a summary textual description, summary structural description, and a description of the "essence" of the participants' experience with gender role congruence and self-efficacy in an outdoor leadership setting.

Epoche

To avoid significant bias in the collection, review, and analysis of data when conducting phenomenological research, the researcher is encouraged to engage in epoche. This process involves acknowledging the researcher's experience with the phenomenon being studied to bracket these experiences to reduce confounding influences (Moustakas, 1994). Since I was deeply involved in the OLS training (where qualitative data was collected) as a supervisor to participants, and because I had personal experiences regarding gender and self-efficacy, epoche was critical when conducting this research.

This personal and professional experience allowed me to have insider knowledge on and a deep connection to the research topic, but also certainly impacted the overall qualitative data interpretation. First, since I was present during OLS when examples from that training were shared in the interviews, I did not probe for greater detail because I was already familiar with those instances. This lack of follow-up could bias interpretations because I may have drawn conclusions from my assumptions and memory of the events instead of what the participants experienced themselves.

Similarly, the personal and professional connection I had with participants may have also impacted the interpretation of data. For example, some of the stories and examples shared during the interviews referred to conversations I had previously had with participants. This familiarity meant that I did not always ask for more detail or explanation during the interviews and that I may have brought the context of past interactions into interpreting this data.

Lastly, some qualitative observational data were collected as feedback given to participants after each day of the OLS training. Since I was also in a supervisory position

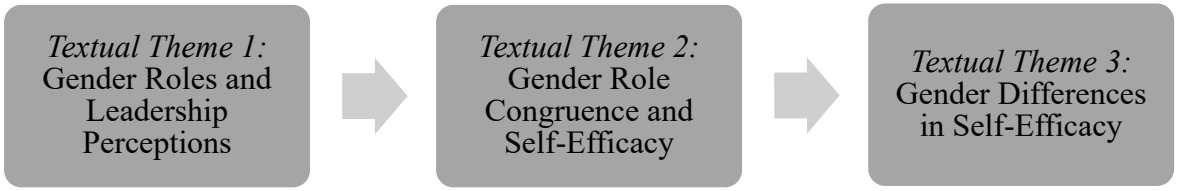
during the training, I filled dual roles of recording observational feedback for data while still providing training-related feedback to participants. While two separate journals were maintained (one to record research observations and feedback and one to record notes as a supervisor), there was potential bias and overlap between what data was recorded and what I remember from my notes and perception of events.

Textual Themes

As previously mentioned, several themes emerged from the data describing *what* participants experienced about gender role congruence and self-efficacy and *how* they experienced this relationship in an outdoor leadership setting. Textual themes presented in the following section capture *what* the participants experienced regarding gender role congruence and its influence on self-efficacy. Three textual themes emerged, as summarized in the following flow chart (Figure 3).

Figure 3

Textual Theme Flow Chart



The first textual theme, Gender Roles and Leadership Perceptions, reports the gender role and leadership expectations participants held for men and women. Textual Theme 2: Gender Role Congruence and Self-Efficacy reports interview and observational data revealing that participants' self-efficacy was related to the role congruence of their behaviors. Lastly, Textual Theme 3: Gender Differences in Self-Efficacy, reports the high

and low self-efficacy behaviors that emerged from the data and how these behaviors were demonstrated in different amounts and different ways for male and female participants.

Textual Theme 1: Gender Roles and Leadership Perception. The first textual theme that emerged from the data was that participants had gendered role expectations for men and women and an association between leadership and masculinity. This section will first report on the gender role perceptions participants held. For this research, gender roles were operationalized using Eagly's (1987) definition of "consensual beliefs about the attributes of women and men that are normative for each sex, involving both descriptive and prescriptive norms." Significant statements were identified from the interviews using this definition to reveal what participants described as gender role expectations in general and outdoor leadership settings. Since this research was centered around outdoor leadership, some interview statements connected explicitly to the outdoor context. These statements will be reported in the structural themes section, while overarching perceptions on gender role expectations will be shared below in the textual themes section.

Table 10 shows examples of interview significant statements that reflect gender role expectations of men and women. The significant statements are categorized by Male-Associated Expectations, which include behaviors such as "to be super confident" and "in check with your emotions," and Female-Associated Expectations, which include behaviors such as "graceful and quiet and not that opinionated" and "avoiding conflict." These categories were determined based on prior literature outlining male and female gender roles, which were previously discussed in Chapter 3 (refer to Table 1). During

member checking, it was clarified that some participants did not hold these perceptions as personal biases but shared them because they reflect societal stereotypes.

Table 10

Gender Role Expectations in the Outdoors Theme

Significant Statement	Meaning Unit
Male-Associated Expectations	
If no one's really taking charge, I'm very comfortable stepping in and doing that.	Men are comfortable stepping in and taking charge
You're not going to be over overly emotional. You're going to be in check with your emotions	Men are expected to not show emotions and to not let emotions influence leadership or decision making
Not using your head to decide things…I feel like society aligns [this] more with men than women stereotypically, like being more professional	Men are expected to not let emotions influence decisions making, which is also related to professionalism
I always get some man who's like 'let me help you with that, sweetheart'	Men assume incompetence in others (especially women), and use demeaning language such as "sweetheart"
I think whenever males and females were kind of paired up…you would notice that they sometimes would meet and it felt like the males would talk over	Men talk over co-leaders and do not use joint decision making
I might not be thinking of my presence as getting in the way of someone else's presence	Men have a larger presence, which might diminish the presence of others (though this may be unintentional)

Significant Statement	Meaning Unit
Female-Associated Expectations	
As a woman, I should be more suppressed, more quiet, more go with the flow	Women are expected to be quiet, non-confrontational, and go along with the decision making of others
As a woman, you're generally…just the pretty princess…you know, graceful and quiet and not that opinionated	Women are not expected to share their thoughts, be opinionated, or be loud
Probably facilitating conversations… That's just what I naturally do	Women naturally engaged in communal qualities, such as facilitating conversations
I'm always trying to be quiet, graceful, avoidant of conflict, avoidant of decisions, referring decisions to other people.	Women are conflict avoidant and refer decisions to other people
I felt like a lot of the girls on OLS were the people who were more likely to give those time announcements or make the schedule	Women are assumed to take on the logistical and planning tasks, such as making the schedule
…it felt like a lot more females were supports rather than that one person who was like, I'm speaking, this is what's happening.	Women fill the 'support' role and are not often in front of the group telling people what to do
…it felt like the females had the plan, but the males were the ones who were speaking	Women are expected to come up with the plan, but not have the spotlight to share it.

As Table 10 shows, participants described several gender role expectations for men and for women. The main gender role expectations that emerged from the interviews can be summarized in Table 11.

Table 11

Gender Role Expectations in the Outdoors

Male-Associated Expectations	Female-Associated Expectations
Demonstrating confidence	Lacking confidence
Assuming leadership position	Being quiet and nonconfrontational
Taking charge in situations	Demonstrating communal qualities
Not showing emotions	Not sharing thoughts or being opinionated
Not letting emotions influence decisions	Taking on logistical/planning tasks
Acting independently	Filling a support role
Confidence with decision making	Not directing/being in front of the group

In addition to distinct gender role expectations for men and women, male participants were more likely to be perceived as leaders than female participants. This difference in leadership perception was primarily found in the observational data, where each of the four male participants received one or more pieces of feedback that they were seen as a leader, but only two of the four female participants received similar feedback. Table 12 shows this feedback, presented as quotes from the observational data. All pieces of feedback data that specifically mentioned leadership were included.

Table 12

Leadership Feedback

Feedback for Male Participants	Feedback for Female Participants
Would trust him to lead	Saw a good leader
Easy to trust you as a leader	Leadership was on display
Wanted him to be a leader	
Very experience, good leader	
Has a good leadership presence	

This first textual theme, Gender Roles and Leadership Perceptions, sets a context for the remaining textual and structural themes because it reveals that behaviors are expected of men and women and that participants associated leadership with masculinity.

Textual Theme 2: Gender Role Congruence and Self-Efficacy. In addition to holding gender role and leadership perceptions, another theme that emerged from the data was that male and female participants reported or demonstrated the most self-efficacy when performing gender role congruent behaviors. Specifically, female participants described more self-efficacy in performing communal behaviors and less self-efficacy with agentic behaviors. In contrast, male participants described more self-efficacy with agentic behaviors and less with communal behaviors. In the following section, I will first report the connection female participants had between gender role congruence and self-efficacy and then explore the connection for male participants.

Textual Theme 2 is another theme inherently situated within an outdoor context, as participants were asked in the interview to describe what aspects of outdoor leadership they were the most and least confident in. In the following textual theme section, answers

may allude to this outdoor context but support an overall report of the connection between gender role congruence and self-efficacy. The structural themes section below will elaborate on how the outdoor context specifically influences self-efficacy.

Interview question 2 asked participants to describe what aspects of outdoor leadership they were the most confident in. All the answers from female participants included tasks such as facilitating conversations, logistical planning, and human skills. For example, Mary shared, “I feel like I’m good in my human skill side of things. Whenever I was receiving feedback, a lot of it was how I was very caring of the participants and made sure to check in.” Susanna shared a similar sentiment, saying “I feel like I’m really personable and that creates a welcoming environment to come ask me things.” When asked the second part of question 2, to describe what they were least confident in, most answers from female participants included agentic qualities, such as “making decisions quickly and confidently” and the use of technical skills. A summary of these responses can be found in Table 13. Responses from all four female participants were included for each question.

Table 13

Gender Role Congruence and Self-Efficacy Theme: Female Participants

Significant Statements	Meaning Units
Most Confident In	
I feel the most confident in planning the stuff that happens before a trip. I'm really good at sitting down and writing out what we need and figuring out the logistics. I'm really good at that.	Confidence with logistical and planning tasks
Probably facilitating conversations… That's just what I naturally do. So it kind of comes more naturally to me, as opposed to all the other things I have to train myself more for.	Confidence in communal behaviors like facilitating conversations (believe they come more naturally)
I feel like I'm good in my human skill side of things. Whenever I was receiving feedback, a lot of it was how I was like very caring of the participants and made sure to check in	Confidence with human skills, especially being caring to participants
I feel like I'm really personable and that creates a welcoming environment to come ask me things. I think that I'm really enthusiastic and I like to encourage others to get outside their comfort zone	Confident with being personable and creating a welcoming environment by being able to read the group. Also expressed confidence encouraging people to get out of their comfort zones
Least Confident In	
When things don't go to plan, like when we're outside and just something goes completely wrong and I have to figure out alternative solutions. That's the hardest part, I think.	Least confident with decision making and figuring out solutions to problems.
Where to start? Probably making decisions quickly and confidently might be that side of leadership. Like having to be 'I choose this and this is why, and we're going to go with it'. And just being able to quickly make that decision.	Least confident with decision making and presenting that decision to the group. Also included a self-deprecating statement of "where to start?"

Significant Statements	Meaning Units
I didn't feel confident when I didn't know the technical side of things and then I was getting in my head like, 'oh, I don't know this, the people that aren't the leaders are taking charge. I wish I knew how to do that.'	Least confident with technical skills and taking charge in situations
I feel less confident because I'm not going to be a good example in terms of being able to do it. But I like kayaking. And I feel like I'm pretty good at that and I can go pretty fast and I'm technically, but I feel less confident in things that I feel like I can't physically perform well in.	Least confident in activities where she is not as physically capable as other people, because she derives confidence from physical ability.
Yeah. Is that a question? I feel, especially with leading trips…it's very different than how I would lead a trip on my own. Like with canoeing- I'm not a good stern. I'm not as good as I would like to be. Maybe that's just me being hard on myself, but again, like leading a trip, I would want to really nail that down… It would really solidify their confidence in me as well as my own confidence in myself.	Least confident with technical skills, because of how she believes participants will have a negative perception of her if she is not technically competent. Also included a self-deprecating statement of "Is that a question?"

Table 13 shows that female participants reported the highest self-efficacy for logistical tasks and communal behaviors and the lowest for assertive decision making, taking charge, and technical skills. Low self-efficacy with outdoor technical skills will be further explored and reported in the structural themes section. Contrasting results were present for male participants. When asked the same question of what they were most confident in, answers included agentic qualities, such as decision making and general confidence in teaching and being in front of the group. For example, Trevor shared, "my biggest confidence is when stuff isn't going well or tough decisions need to be made,"

reflecting his self-efficacy with decision making. Jason shared “I feel more confident in my teaching abilities and my abilities to be the leader and have people pay attention to me.”

When male participants were asked what they were the least confident in, communal behaviors were shared by two participants, including “breaking that ice and sometimes connecting with people” and “the human side, especially when someone’s struggling.” Technical skills also emerged as an area where male participants lacked confidence. The responses from each of the four male participants can be found in Table 14.

Table 14

Gender Role Congruence and Self-Efficacy Theme: Male Participants

Significant Statements	Meaning Units
Most Confident In	
I feel the most confident in the lecture component and the more education side, because I've been doing that side of outdoor leadership for a lot longer than the other, more technical components.	Confidence with educational skills, which is credited to his past experiences
I'd say in general, I think technical and then probably educational are the ones that I feel most confident in. I don't really think I'm bad at the human side, but I think that's probably the one I can struggle with the most. I can know how to do stuff, but socially I think if I'm talking, I'm fine, but I'm not super strong in the back and forth side or when someone's struggling with something, maybe not a technical skill, but if they're struggling with something else, I don't always know how to step in and help with that. But I think when I learn something technical then I have it down pretty well.	Confidence with technical and educational skills. Also expressed he is less comfortable with communal qualities
My biggest confidence is when stuff isn't going well or tough decisions need to be made….I feel like that's where I could be the biggest asset. Or if stuff is stressful, decisions need to be made…I feel confident getting people on a trail and going the right way as well. But I feel like my biggest confidence or I feel like I'm the biggest asset in those tough times, whether it's a medical thing or, 'Hey, we don't know where the trail is, we're lost' making the decisions of where we need to go. That type of thing. I feel like that's my, my brain is the biggest asset or I'm the most confident.	Confidence with assertive decision making, especially when there is adversity

Significant Statements	Meaning Units
I feel confident teaching people the information that I know. I don't know everything yet, but I feel more confident in the stuff that I do know and relaying that information to participants.	Confidence teaching and presenting information, especially for skills he is comfortable with
Least Confident In	
I think really just technical skills… I understand the very broad strokes of a lot of different types of outdoor stuff, but when you get into the really technical information, that's kind of where the limit of my knowledge is.	Least confident with technical skills, especially with the more detailed and specific ones
I think the human side, especially when someone's struggling. Like if I have a participant that's maybe going through a hard time with something, I don't always feel like I'm the best at being able to maybe comfort someone or help them through that. A lot of times I don't really know what to say	Least confident in human skills/communal qualities, especially supporting people
Breaking the ice and sometimes connecting with other people? I feel like I try to find a balance of showing that I know what I'm doing so that people can trust me. And I know I can trust [myself] in these tough situations, but I don't want to be intimidating. I'm not the best with coming up with games on the trail or, I guess like I said, breaking the ice	Least confident connecting with people and other communal skills such as trail games and breaking the ice
The map reading is kind of difficult. I guess I feel like if I was a alone…I would get lost, so I guess navigating would be the thing I'm least comfortable with.	Least confident with technical skills

Table 14 shows that male participants had the highest self-efficacy with presenting in front of the group, teaching, and assertive decision making, and the lowest

self-efficacy with technical skills and communal qualities, such as supporting and connecting with people. The behaviors that both male and female participants described the most and least self-efficacy in almost directly aligned with the gender role expectations participants described in the interviews (presented in Table 11 above). The structural themes section will further report the association between outdoor technical skills and self-efficacy.

Connection to Observations. The observational data supported these interview results by revealing that participants' self-efficacy related to the role congruence of their behaviors. Table 17 below summarizes each participant's total number of self and group feedback remarks for gender role congruent behaviors. Female Role Congruent behaviors aligned with the previously explored female gender role expectations (Table 13) and included statements such as "so enthusiastic" and "helped lift morale." In contrast, Male Role Congruent behaviors, which align with the previously explored male gender role expectations in Table 14, were reflected by statements such as "was more decisive" and "called shots to make sure things happened." Before presenting the total feedback remark counts in Table 17, Table 15 and Table 16 below summarize what observations were included in the counts of Female Role Congruent behaviors and Male Role Congruent behaviors.

The observation categories (previously shared in Table 1 in Chapter 3) were initially based on prior literature that described gender role expectations in the outdoors (Jordan, 2018; Lugg, 2018; Rogers & Rose, 2019; Warren & Loeffler, 2006). After data were collected, the categories were revisited and triangulated with the previously presented interview data on what participants described as outdoor gender role

expectations. Each observation category was paired with salient examples of observations that demonstrated the category, presented as the quotes recorded during feedback sessions. It is important to note that participants of either gender can, and did, perform behaviors that fell into both Female Role Congruent and Male Role Congruent observation categories.

Table 15

Observation Categories of Female Role Congruent Behaviors

Observation Category	Observation Examples
Giving credit for group accomplishments	Started by giving the whole group a compliment
Taking time with decision making	She really thinks things through
Logistical/Planning work	Making sure stuff got done, handling logistics Detail oriented She laid out plan Set out good plan for the morning Strategically planned out day and goals Helped orchestrate plan and lesson in morning Good at clock management
Workhorse Mentality	Easy to be a “workhorse” Exhibiting “work horse” behavior (doing tasks in morning herself instead of delegating) Helped out a lot during morning Killed it at lunch getting things done

Observation Category	Observation Examples
Workhorse Mentality	Needs to ask for help with tasks instead of getting frustrated
	She was carrying weight of the team at camp
Monitoring Group Needs	Made sure everyone stayed together
	Good check-ins with group on the pace
	Had genuine care for people
	Can read a group and its needs (empathetic)
	Cares about each individual person (wants to get to know them and take care of them)
	Deliberate intention of getting to know participants
	Knows how to read a group and did better at motivating others (growth from before)
	Good at bringing group together
Eagerness to help/filling support role	Always eager to help
	Supported group, helped make sure things got done
	Always looking to help out
	She was a great support
	Was the first (and only) person to offer to help us set up camp when no one else did
Positive energy/excited/enthusiastic	Always excited
	Kept moral up (could read the group and their needs)

Observation Category	Observation Examples
Positive energy/excited/enthusiastic	Was energetic and had good moral Raised spirits on the river He was very encouraging to co-leaders when giving feedback Really fun and makes everything fun Positive presence
Lack of leadership presences	Didn't feel her presence as much today as on the backpacking day Need to make conscious effort to make presence known Lack of leadership on river- didn't even take charge Felt out of place telling his peers to move on Thought he was too complacent
Engaging in conversations	Good conversations with people Great with group, friendly, easy to talk to Very approachable Creates welcoming environment, inviting Made connections Loved trail conversations

Table 16

Observation Categories of Male Role Congruent Behaviors

Observation Category	Observation Examples
Giving clear demands/calling shots	Gave clear demands in morning Called shots to make sure things happened Gave clear instructions at stream crossing Good sense of command and motion when it was needed loading trailer Talking over co-leaders (has a lot of ideas, but sometimes takes over too much) Good at taking charge and making sure things happened
Decisive and active in decision making	She was NOT passive with decision making Was more decisive than last LOD day Had good decision making
Showing leadership skills and confidence	Showed more leadership skills today (directed group more) Seemed confident and calm Took a lot of charge Very goal oriented (at the expense of adaptability) Didn't show fear even if he was nervous
Acting independently	Needs to allow leadership team to make a decisions before she shares it with the group Announcing decisions to group without consulting co-leaders

Observation Category	Observation Examples
Acting independently	Would talk over co-leaders (or share other people's ideas when they were given)..would push other people down. Wished she took step back to let other leaders lead (or communicated better with them) Missed opportunities with joint decision making
Lack of communal qualities	Need to work with co-leaders to help him out Found it difficult to connect with people Needed to make sure they were on the same page during breaks Doesn't have the best trail games/conversations to engage people Didn't check in with people on trail Needed to do a better job motivating others
Lack of time management skills	Did not have good time management Time management was difficult at camp Need to make more plans for the day

The observation categories and supporting feedback statements included in Table 15 and Table 16 show examples of what observations were included in the total feedback counts in Table 17. Self, co-leader, and group feedback were all included in the total counts.

Table 17

Total Feedback Statements for Each Participant

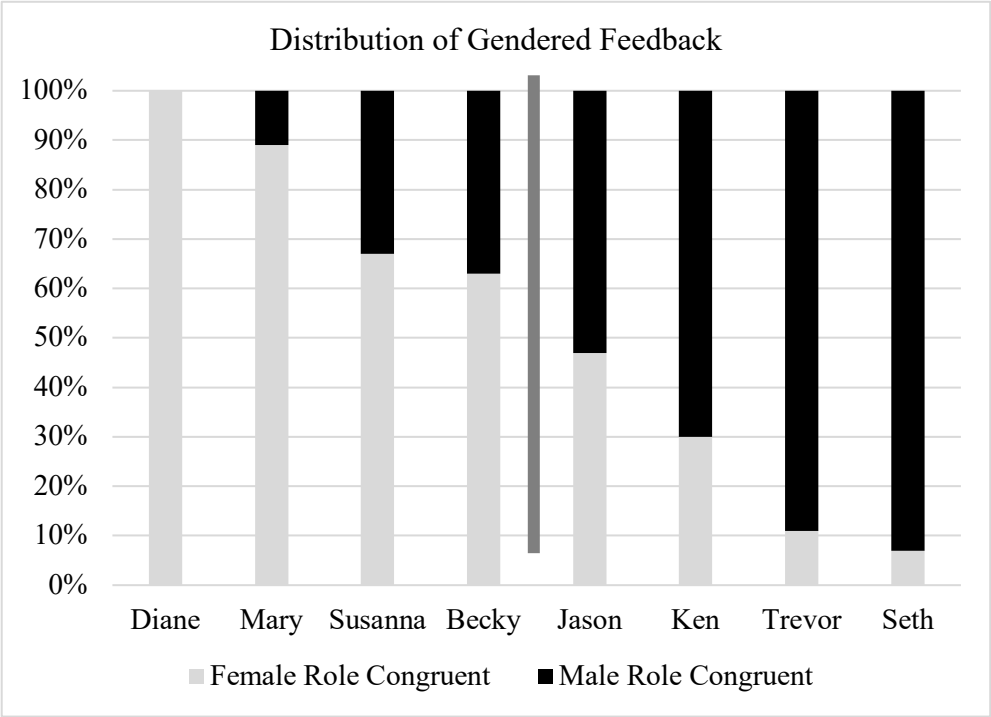
Participant	Gendered Behavior	FRCB	% Total	MRCB	% Total
Female Participants					
Becky	19	12	63%	7	37%
Diane	18	18	100%	0	0%
Mary	18	16	89%	2	11%
Susanna	18	12	67%	6	33%
Male Participants					
Seth	14	1	7%	13	93%
Ken	13	4	30%	9	70%
Trevor	9	1	11%	8	89%
Jason	17	8	47%	9	53%

Note. Abbreviations: Female role congruent behaviors (FRCB) and male role congruent behaviors (MRCB).

As Table 17 shows, female participants tended to receive more feedback on gendered behaviors (an average of 18.25 pieces of feedback versus 13.25 for male participants). Within these counts, all four female participants received the majority of their feedback on female role congruent behaviors and all four male participants received the majority of their feedback on male role congruent behaviors. Some participants, such as Diane and Seth, received all or almost all their feedback on behaviors associated with their respective gender (100% and 93%, respectively). Figure 4 below shows a visual representation of this data.

Figure 4

Distribution of Gendered Feedback



In summary, Textual Theme 2: Gender Role Congruence and Self-Efficacy reports that participants described the most self-efficacy when referring to gender role congruent behaviors. Specifically, female participants had the highest self-efficacy with communal and logistical planning tasks and the lowest self-efficacy with decision-making and technical skills. In contrast, male participants had the highest self-efficacy with teaching and decision making and the lowest self-efficacy with communal and technical skills. This interview data aligned with observational data showing that female participants received most of their feedback on female role congruent behaviors, and male participants received most of their feedback on male role congruent behaviors.

Textual Theme 3: Gender Differences in Self-Efficacy. The last textual theme section of *what* participants experienced regarding gender role congruence and self-efficacy reports how presentations of self-efficacy appeared in different amounts and different ways for male and female participants. This theme primarily reports observational data that female participants received fewer high self-efficacy feedback statements and more low self-efficacy feedback statements than male participants and that this self-efficacy was demonstrated in different ways.

The observational data revealed five categories of high self-efficacy behaviors and nine categories of low self-efficacy behaviors. The categories from the observation protocol (previously shared in Table 2 in Chapter 3) were used as a starting point to organize feedback. Data was then triangulated with interview responses to form the categories found below. Using these categories, some examples of high self-efficacy feedback statements were "innate confidence, seemed cool and collected," "showed a lot of initiative," and "wants to learn and succeed." Low self-efficacy feedback included statements such as "apologized too much for having good ideas," "needs to lean into confidence more," and "dropped the leader role when we got to camp." The high self-efficacy and low self-efficacy behavior categories and a selection of observation examples demonstrating them are summarized below in Tables 18 and 19.

Table 18

High Self-Efficacy Observation Categories

Observation Category	Observation Examples
Demonstrated confidence	Had confidence to correct him during his lesson Innate confidence, seemed cool and collected Didn't show fear even if he was nervous
Taking on responsibility	Was the first (and only) person to offer to help set up camp when no one else did Good sense of what needs to happen and often took initiative Showed a lot of initiative
Growth mindset	Has a growth mindset Wants to succeed and learn Seemed more receptive to feedback
Being self-affirming	Felt that he created a day filled with good moments Only sharing positives about self
Not seeking to prove oneself	Very humble, outward teaching Makes leadership a team process (includes co-leaders)

Table 19

Low Self-Efficacy Observation Categories

Observation Category	Observation Examples
Use of self-deprecating statements	Felt that she didn't have much knowledge (and therefore wasn't that helpful) Had only given herself criticism
Not accepting compliments or praise	She apologized too much for having good ideas During her self feedback she apologized to both co-leaders for something that happened during the day
Showing visible overwhelm/stress	Participants could tell when she was getting stressed and overwhelmed Showed frustration and stress when things got hard Let little things get to her
Not appearing confident	Needs to talk loud enough that everyone can hear Didn't have confidence to lead and be in front Some points where she "lost my confidence"
Hesitant to try new tasks	Tried, but was much more hesitant (backing up car)
Avoidance of challenge/difficult tasks	Needs to step up more when you have ideas She shied away from leadership roles Didn't push herself to challenge herself as a leader Didn't push self enough

Observation Category	Observation Examples
Removal/isolation from group	Seem that he checked out a bit of role in the afternoon Needs to have engagement and "be all there" Doing his own thing on the river instead of helping group Dropped leader role when we got to camp Had a big lack of leadership (stayed in sweep all day and almost checked out)
Indecisive with decisions/judgment calls	She didn't say anything when she felt something needed to be done Should have voiced opinion on drive home Thought she could do better at decision making Sometimes lacked confidence with decision making
Defensive during feedback	Got very defensive with feedback during lesson

These examples of high and low self-efficacy statements provide context for Table 20, which shows a summary of the number of high self-efficacy (HSE) and low self-efficacy (LSE) feedback statements made by and given to participants during the observation phases.

Table 20

Participant	HSE Self-Feedback	HSE Group Feedback	**HSE Feedback Total**	LSE Self-Feedback	LSE Group Feedback	**LSE Feedback Total**	Total Self-Efficacy Feedback
Female Participants							
Becky	0	5	**5**	3	8	**11**	16
Diane	0	1	**1**	9	6	**15**	16
Mary	3	0	**3**	5	1	**6**	9
Susanna	0	5	**5**	4	2	**6**	11
Male Participants							
Seth	5	5	**10**	1	2	**3**	13
Ken	1	4	**5**	2	2	**4**	9
Trevor	1	8	**9**	1	0	**1**	10
Jason	3	6	**9**	0	0	**0**	9

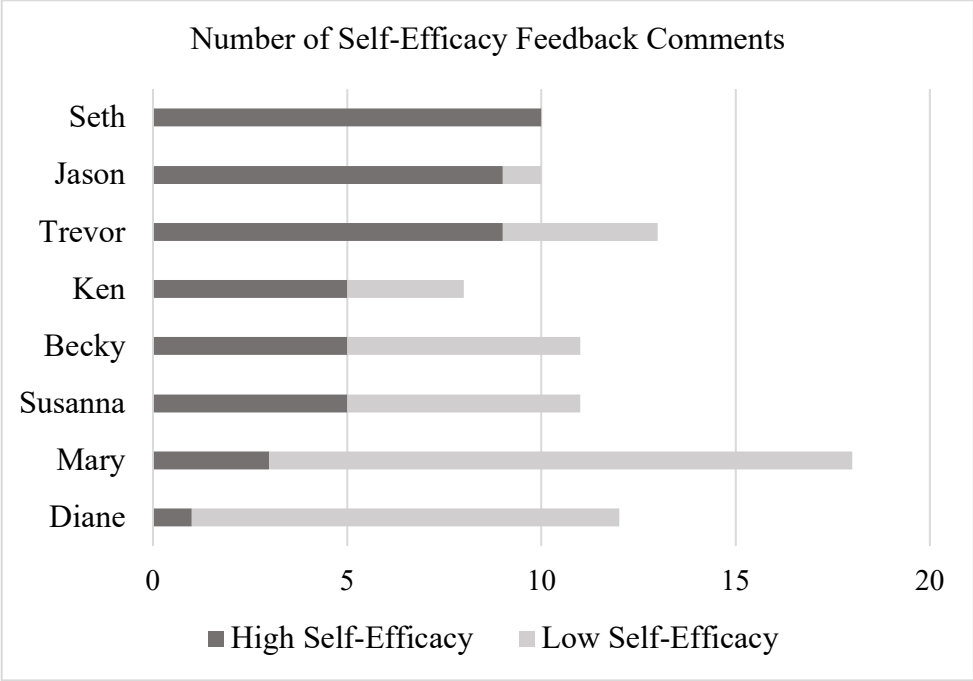
Total Counts of High and Low Self-Efficacy Statements

Note: Totals include self-feedback statement counts, as well as co-leader and group feedback

As Table 20 shows, high self-efficacy feedback was more often given to male participants than to female participants, and the inverse was true for low self-efficacy feedback. The same trend appears both in the self-feedback and overall totals. Figure 5 below shows a visual representation of this data.

Figure 5

Number of Self-Efficacy Feedback Comments



Subtheme: Different Amounts of Self-Efficacy. As shown in Table 20, presentations of self-efficacy, particularly low self-efficacy, appeared differently for male than female participants. The first difference in how self-efficacy was presented was the number of feedback comments given to male and female participants. Female participants received over four times as many low self-efficacy feedback statements and over two times fewer high-self efficacy feedback statements as male participants. Table 21 below shows the number of low self-efficacy (LSE) feedback statements each participant

received (this table presents a subset of the same data previously reported above in Table 20)

Table 21

Low Self-Efficacy Feedback Statements

Participant	LSE Self-Feedback	LSE Group Feedback	LSE Feedback Total
		Female Participants	
Becky	3	8	11
Diane	9	6	15
Mary	5	1	6
Susanna	4	2	6
Total	21	17	38
		Male Participants	
Seth	1	2	3
Ken	2	2	4
Trevor	1	0	1
Jason	0	0	0
Total	4	4	8

Note: LSE Feedback Totals include self-feedback statement counts, as well as co-leader and group feedback

As Table 21 shows, female participants gave themselves over five times as many low self-efficacy feedback statements and received over four times as many low self-efficacy statements from the group than male participants. An alternative trend appeared in the high self-efficacy (HSE) data, where male participants gave themselves over three times as many high self-efficacy self-feedback statements and received over two times as many from the group. Results of the HSE feedback statements are shown in Table 22 below (this table presents a subset of the same data previously reported above in Table 20).

Table 22

High Self-Efficacy Feedback Statements

Participant	HSE Self-Feedback	HSE Group Feedback	HSE Feedback Total
Female Participants			
Becky	0	5	5
Diane	0	1	1
Mary	3	0	3
Susanna	0	5	5
Total	3	11	14
Male Participants			
Seth	5	5	10
Ken	1	4	5
Trevor	1	8	9
Jason	3	6	9
Total	10	23	33

Note: HSE Feedback Totals include self-feedback statement counts, as well as co-leader and group feedback

In addition to this observational data, comments made in the interviews also revealed that participants noticed differences in how often men and women demonstrated high self-efficacy. Seth spoke of this point, saying, “It was more notable when [two women] were super confident because that was something that is not really expected a whole lot.” This claim was supported by additional observational data, which showed that out of all the feedback comments given, female participants were the only ones who were told they needed to be more confident. Susanna made this observation in her interview, stating, “I noticed that there was a trend whenever the girls were receiving feedback, a lot of them were just like, ‘be more confident, have more confidence.’” It is important to note that while one of the male participants received multiple pieces of feedback that he “seemed confident,” the other three did not receive feedback that either affirmed their confidence or suggested that they needed more of it.

However, while the observational data reveals that female participants were told that they needed to have more confidence, they sometimes faced backlash when they did behave confidently. Mary explains this situation by saying, “confident women are sometimes labeled as weird or unfeminine. Or just distasteful.” She continued by sharing that women “might be seen as annoying or headstrong or just too judgmental and no fun.” These negative perceptions of confident women also appeared in the observational data. Susanna, one of the female participants, was given the feedback of “not overdoing it” when she behaved confidently. She reflected on this experience in the interview by saying, “a lot of [my feedback] was don’t get carried away.”

Subtheme: Presentations of Self-Efficacy. In addition to receiving different amounts of high and low self-efficacy feedback, female participants presented self-efficacy differently than male participants. Table 19 above outlined the nine categories of how low self-efficacy was demonstrated. Table 23 below shows the number of feedback comments given to female participants and the number of feedback comments given to male participants in each low self-efficacy (LSE) category. Figure 6 below also shows a visual representation of this data.

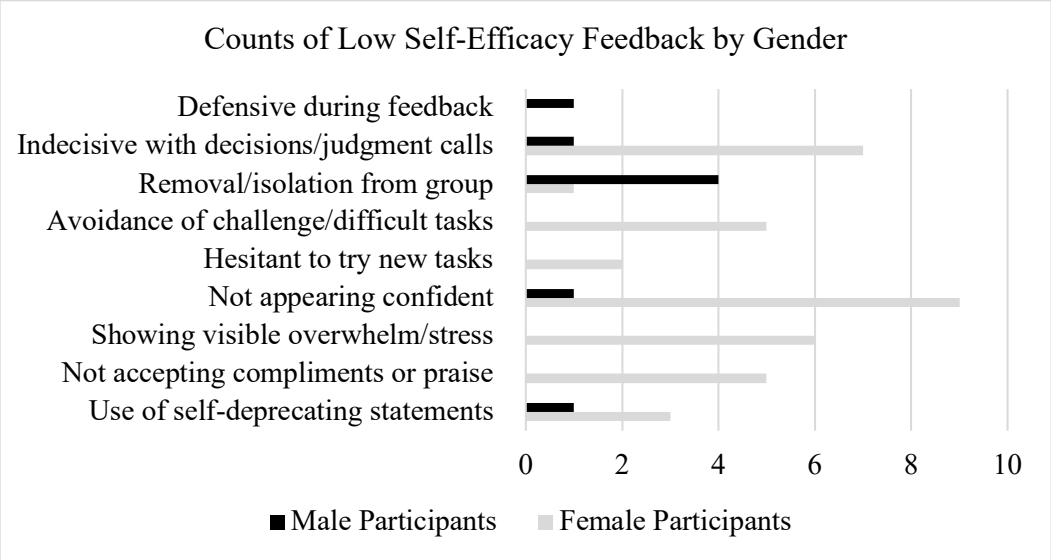
Table 23

Low Self-Efficacy Comment Counts for Female and Male Participants

LSE Category	# Feedback Comments for Female Participants	# Feedback Comments for Male Participants
Use of self-deprecating statements	3	1
Not accepting compliments or praise	5	0
Showing visible overwhelm/stress	6	0
Not appearing confident	9	1
Hesitant to try new tasks	2	0
Avoidance of challenge/difficult tasks	5	0
Removal/isolation from group	1	4
Indecisive with decisions/judgment calls	7	1
Defensive during feedback	0	1

Figure 6

Counts of Low Self-Efficacy Feedback by Gender



As Table 23 and Figure 6 show, four of the LSE categories only contained feedback given to female participants. Three more categories (Use of self-deprecating statements, Not appearing confident, and Indecisive with decisions/judgment calls) had only one piece of feedback given to male participants, while the rest were given to female participants. The only categories where male participants received more feedback than female participants were Removal/isolation from group and Defensive during feedback (though the latter only contained a single piece of feedback). These differences reveal that female participants not only demonstrated more low self-efficacy behaviors, but their behaviors appeared in many more forms than male participants.

There were also differences in how high self-efficacy (HSE) was presented by male and female participants, as shown below in Table 24 and Figure 7.

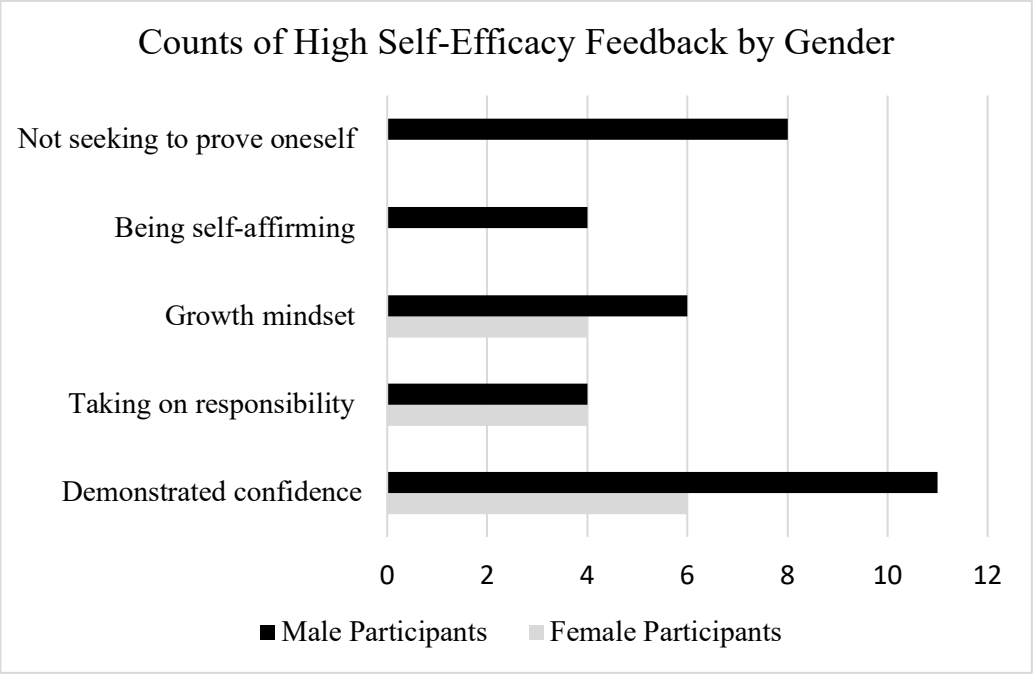
Table 24

High Self-Efficacy Comment Counts for Female and Male Participants

HSE Category	# Feedback Comments for Female Participants	# Feedback Comments for Male Participants
Demonstrating confidence	6	11
Taking on responsibilities	4	4
Growth mindset	4	6
Being self-affirming	0	4
Not seeking to prove oneself	0	8

Figure 7

Counts of High Self-Efficacy Feedback by Gender



Some of the high self-efficacy categories, such as Taking on responsibilities and Having a growth mindset, were represented similarly by both genders. However, two of the categories, Being self-affirming and Not seeking to prove oneself, were only expressed by male participants. The final category, Demonstrating confidence, had the most feedback comments for both male and female participants. Still, there were nearly two times as many comments for male participants (11 comments for men and 6 for women). Overall, Textual Theme 3: Gender Differences in Self-Efficacy, reports how high and low self-efficacy were presented in different amounts and different ways for male and female participants.

These three textural themes, 1. Gender Roles and Leadership Perceptions, 2. Gender Role Congruence and Self-Efficacy, and 3. Gender Differences in Self-Efficacy comprise the textual themes describing *what* participants experience regarding gender

role congruency and self-efficacy in the outdoors. The following section will explore the structural themes related to this topic.

Structural Themes

As previously discussed, structural themes capture *how* participants experience gender role congruence and its connection to self-efficacy in an outdoor leadership context. Three structural themes emerged from the data: 1. The Typical Outdoor Leader, 2. Self-Efficacy of Outdoor Leadership, and 3. Experience More Than Gender. The first structural theme, The Typical Outdoor Leader, reports how all three forms of data show an association between masculinity and leadership. This theme also reports how participants described women as less competent and needing to work harder than men in the outdoors. Structural Theme 2: Self-Efficacy of Outdoor Leadership will elaborate on themes previously discussed in the textual theme section on how self-efficacy regarding technical skills is related to outdoor leadership. Lastly, an alternative perspective will be presented in Structural Theme 3: Experience More Than Gender, reporting how experience with outdoor skills may matter more than gender in determining what participants had the most and least self-efficacy.

Structural Theme 1: The Typical Outdoor Leader. One of the themes that transcended all three forms of data was that men were assumed to be leaders in the outdoors. In the textual theme section, it was reported that male participants received more feedback on being a leader than female participants. Regarding structural themes, the data also suggests that these leadership perceptions are especially true in an outdoor leadership setting. Participants were asked to describe how their gender identity influences their overall experience as an outdoor leader in the interview. In response to

this question, Seth stated that men "might fit the idea of an outdoor leader more," which he followed up by saying, "almost an assumption of leadership that's kind of drawn from that more masculine side." The converse of this sentiment- that because men are assumed to be outdoor leaders, women are not- was also shared. Table 25 below shows interview comments that directly, or by context, connect gender to outdoor leadership perceptions.

Table 25

Outdoor Leadership Perceptions

Significant Statement	Meaning Unit
Male-Associated Expectations	
I think when it comes to that, it's a very masculine thing to be super confident in the outdoors and you see that a lot	Association of masculinity with being very confident in the outdoors
Almost an assumption of leadership that's drawn from that more masculine side	Association between leadership and masculinity
A lot of the men could seem to have more confidence because they have just more knowledge just because the fact that they are men and they got that opportunity beforehand	Men seem to have more confidence and more knowledge in outdoor settings
He was like, 'I was very confident in where we were, and I really pushed for that. And it took a lot more convincing for you to tell me where we were'.	Men are confident in decision making and do not rely on the input of others
Female-Associated Expectations	
…it was more notable when [two female leaders] were super confident because that was something that is not really expected a whole lot	Women are not expected to be super confident, and it was notable when women challenged gender role expectations
I feel like it's just a stereotype of women that they don't know how to do things for themselves	Women are not knowledgeable or know how to do things for themselves in the outdoors

As Table 25 shows, sometimes descriptions of gender and outdoor leadership happened directly, such as Susanna sharing, “I feel like women aren’t innately seen as outdoor people or outdoor leaders,” but it also appeared in more subtle forms in the data, such as in the reflective drawings.

Connection to Reflective Drawings. While the interviews and observations indicated that participants associated masculinity with leadership, the reflective drawings cemented this idea. For their first drawing, participants were asked to draw a “Typical outdoor leader.” In response, not only did every participant draw a man, but the details they included allude to a specific version of masculinity deemed necessary in the outdoors. This vision of a “typical outdoor leader” was always alone, often had a beard, wore outdoor specific clothing and gear, and was doing an outdoor activity. It was clarified during member checking that this image was often a stereotypical portrayal of a “typical” outdoor leader, which was drawn to answer the prompt, instead of what participants idealized a typical outdoor leader should look like (which, when described, was much more heterogeneous). However, there is still value in understanding what stereotypes participants held. A summary of features included in these leader drawings can be found in Table 26. There were no notable differences in which elements were drawn by male and which were drawn by female participants.

Table 26

Counts of Drawing 1 Features

Drawing 1 Features	Number of drawings (out of 8 total)
Man	8
Man with beard	6
Standing alone	8
Wearing outdoor specific clothing/gear	7
Using outdoor gear/doing outdoor activity	5
In an outdoor setting	5

Participants echoed these observations when asked to elaborate on their drawings in the interview phase. Some of these explanations were “he’s got a big ‘ole beard, maybe some long hair,” and a “nice long mountain man beard with a trucker hat, because those seem to be in,” Examples of some “Typical Outdoor Leader” drawings can be found in Figure 8.

Figure 8

Drawing 1"Typical Outdoor Leader" Examples

Interview explanations also indicated what this leader might be like as a person. Statements such as, “you can tell that they’re confident in their decision making,” and “typical outdoor leaders are just there for safety and not much else” suggest that a typical outdoor leader not only embodies masculinity in looks but also abides by traditional male role congruent behaviors. A summary of significant statements about the “Typical Outdoor Leader” drawings can be found in Table 27.

Table 27

Typical Outdoor Leader Descriptions from Interviews

Significant Statement	Meaning Unit
So like obviously masculine	It is not questioned that a typical outdoor leader is masculine
A man’s man	Certain version of a “man”
Nice long mountain man beard with trucker hat because those seem to be in	Specific gear/clothes, based on what is “in style”
He’s got a big ‘ole beard, maybe some long hair	Specific description of physical appearance
Tall, strong, and fit	Specific description of physical appearance, needs to be physically fit
Really expensive gear	Specific gear/clothes, cost is a factor
He’s got fancy outdoor clothes on	Specific gear/clothes, cost is a factor
Hat and some traditional outdoor gear	Specific gear/clothes
Extraverted	Association of confidence/ability to talk in front of a group with leadership
You can tell that they’re confident in their decision making	Association of confidence with leadership
Typical outdoor leaders are just there for safety and not much else	Specific role that an outdoor leader fill

These physical and behavioral descriptions of a "typical outdoor leader" reveal the image participants hold of what is necessary to lead outdoors and create a backdrop for all other data in the outdoor context. From the interview and observational data, that participants associated leadership with masculinity, to the reflective drawings, which presented an image of the "typical outdoor leader," an overarching impression of outdoor leadership emerged. And this impression, of associating a strong, confident man with outdoor leadership, gives context for how participants operate and view themselves in outdoor spaces.

Challenges Women Face. As previously reported with perceptions of the "typical outdoor leader," the data indicated that women are not always seen as leaders in the outdoors. Susanna stated this bluntly with, "the outdoors is a man's place," and Becky also shared, "I think that people perceive you differently depending on how you present yourself. So I think I might have different experiences if I was a different gender identity." Mary elaborated on these statements with, "I think just being in an outdoors context, I feel like if you're a man, then you naturally feel like you belong in that space just because that space has been held by men for so long before." Mary continued, saying ,"I feel there are a lot more internal struggles that women will have to deal with…to be leaders in the outdoors." These main struggles Mary alluded to emerged in the data was women being perceived as less competent than men and female participants describing the need to work harder than men.

First, perceptions of competence were shared by both male and female participants as observations of experiences. However, they were only shared by female participants as descriptions of their internal dialogues related to self-efficacy, such as

Mary sharing, “whenever I’m like teaching something, I automatically assume they might not want to listen to what I have to say because I am a woman. And so then that affects my confidence.” A summary of these significant statements related to competence can be found in Table 28.

Table 28

Perceptions of Competence Statements

Significant Statement	Meaning Unit
He can do that better. He’s stronger. He’s more into this. But I have to correct myself	Men are believed to be more competent than women
Whenever I’m teaching something, I automatically assume they might not want to listen to what I have to say because I am a women. And so then that affects my confidence.	People may want to listen to women less when they are teaching, which can impact confidence
I always get some man who’s like ‘let me help you with that, sweetheart’	Men assuming incompetence in women
People may think that men ‘look experienced a little bit quicker’	Assumption that men look more experienced than women do
With your co-leaders you could have done it all and still ended up in the same spot	Belief that men carried the weight of leadership (and that female co-leaders were not as competent)
It’s harder for people to trust women and take women seriously	Perception that women are less trustworthy and not taken as seriously
It might be a little bit easier for someone masculine in the outdoors to gain that trust	Men can gain trust more easily in the outdoors
People will probably have more trust in you	People will trust you more if you are a man
Things that you would say, and some of the boys wouldn’t take it as seriously, but then [male] would just reiterate it	Women aren’t listened to are much, or are undermined by men

Table 28 shows that participants held perceptions that female leaders were not as competent or trustworthy as male leaders. Additionally, the data showed that female participants described the need to work harder to prove themselves in outdoor leadership roles. This need to work harder was explained as "I think that being a female, you really have to advocate for yourself in the outdoors. And you have to voice more than you would if you were a man." Susanna gave an example of this need to work harder:

> It felt like the males would say to their co-leaders, 'I felt like you weren't very confident,' but the female leaders responded with, 'you weren't really giving me a space to be confident. You weren't allowing me to fill into my leadership role because you were taking up so much space of it.

She continues with, "I feel like in some ways, it forces me to not be overconfident, but just to be louder or more forceful." Statements summarizing this need to prove oneself can be found in Table 29.

Table 29

Need to Prove Oneself Statements

Significant Statements	Meaning Units
I definitely do see my experience as a woman, how that differs in my leadership	Women have different experiences with leadership than men
I think that being a female, you really have to advocate for yourself in the outdoors. And you have to voice more than you would if you were a man	Women have to work harder and advocate for themselves more in the outdoors
It felt like the males would say to their co-leaders, I felt like you weren't very confident, but the female leaders were like, you weren't really giving me a space to be confident. Like you weren't allowing me to fill into my leadership role because you were taking up so much space of it	Women face the double standard of not being perceived as confident, but also not given the space to be confident (because men are taking up so much of that space)
I feel like in some ways, it forces me to not be overconfidence, but just to be louder or like be more like forceful	Women must work harder and be louder to be heard and listened to
You have to work harder than most and take more time than most just so…you can surprise people	Women must work harder to "surprise" people with their leadership
Not just being a white woman, but so many different minority groups have understood for hundreds of years that you have to work harder than most people, just for people to recognize and respect you	The need to work harder to be recognized and respected is also experienced by minority groups (not just white women)
I guess it makes me feel like I have to prove myself	Women have a need to prove themselves

These findings describe how the engrained image of a "Typical Outdoor Leader" may influence women's experience in outdoor leadership by creating a space where they are perceived as less competent and needing to work harder.

Structural Theme 2: Self-Efficacy of Outdoor Leadership. The textual themes section presented above reported the connection between gender and self-efficacy. Specifically, male and female participants reported or demonstrated the most self-efficacy when performing gender role congruent behaviors, and self-efficacy presented differently in men than in women. This structural theme section will discuss self-efficacy relating to a specific outdoor leadership context.

Interview question 2 asked participants to describe what areas of outdoor leadership they were the most and least confident in. Most answers could be applied beyond outdoor leadership, but some answers related directly to an outdoor context, specifically regarding what participants were least confident in. Tables 30 and 31 below show these answers (these tables report a subset of data reported previously in the textual themes section).

Table 30

Gender Role Congruence and Self-Efficacy Theme: Female Participants

Significant Statements	Meaning Units
I didn't feel confident when I didn't know the technical side of things and then I was getting in my head like, 'oh, I don't know this, the people that aren't the leaders are taking charge. I wish I knew how to do that.'	Least confident with technical skills and taking charge in situations
I feel less confident because I'm not going to be a good example in terms of being able to do it. But I like kayaking. And I feel like I'm pretty good at that and I can go pretty fast and I'm technically, but I feel less confident in things that I feel like I can't physically perform well in.	Least confident in activities where she is not as physically capable as other people, because she derives confidence from physical ability.
Yeah. Is that a question? I feel, especially with leading trips…it's very different than how I would lead a trip on my own. Like with canoeing- I'm not a good stern. I'm not as good as I would like to be. Maybe that's just me being hard on myself, but again, like leading a trip, I would want to really nail that down… It would really solidify their confidence in me as well as my own confidence in myself.	Least confident with technical skills, because of how she believes participants will have a negative perception of her if she is not technically competent. Also included a self-deprecating statement of "Is that a question?"

Table 31

Gender Role Congruence and Self-Efficacy Theme: Male Participants

Significant Statements	Meaning Units
I think really just technical skills… I understand the very broad strokes of a lot of different types of outdoor stuff, but when you get into the really technical information, that's kind of where the limit of my knowledge is.	Least confident with technical skills, especially with the more detailed and specific ones
The map reading is kind of difficult. I guess I feel like if I was a alone…I would get lost, so I guess navigating would be the thing I'm least comfortable with.	Least confident with technical skills
When I'm not really meeting that technical side as much, it kind of hurts my confidence a little bit in that department."	Struggling with technical skills hurts his confidence because that is expected of men

While there were overarching differences between what male and female participants said they were most and least confident in, it is important to acknowledge that across all data, a common theme from both male and female participants was having low self-efficacy with technical skills. These skills ranged from reading maps to paddling a canoe, but as shown with perceptions of the "typical outdoor leader," all are assumed to be necessary for outdoor leadership.

Multiple participants mentioned this lack of confidence in technical skills during their interviews (see Tables 30 and 31 above), and the observational data reinforced this point. Something to note from the observational data is that almost all the feedback

comments regarding a lack of technical skills happened during self-feedback. A summary of self-feedback on technical skills can be found in Table 32.

Table 32

Technical Skills Statements

Significant Statement	Meaning Unit
Brought up use of technical skills	She didn't have the skills to be a leader based on lack of tech skills
Felt that she didn't have much knowledge (and therefore wasn't that helpful)	Technical skills were necessary to be helpful as an outdoor leader
Lacks confidence (especially in canoe skills)	Connection between technical skills and confidence
Was worried about competence today (referring to map reading)	Need to have competence with map reading (technical skill), and that created worry
Felt that she couldn't keep pace as well as she would have liked	Low self-efficacy with hiking speed (example of technical skills)
Hesitant about making a navigation mistake	Less comfortable and therefore hesitant with navigation

These described technical skills were not directly related to the gender role congruence of behaviors but more to an overall aspect of outdoor leadership. And as supported by this interview and observational data, Structural Theme 2: Self-Efficacy of Outdoor Leadership, reveals that both male and female participants described and demonstrated feelings of low self-efficacy regarding outdoor technical skills.

Structural Theme 3: Experience More Than Gender. While much of the data in the current study suggested a connection between gender and self-efficacy, an alternative perspective and theme which appeared across all forms of data was that

experience matters more than gender in determining what participants feel confident in. As Ken described it:

> I think the biggest thing that influences me is just experience. If I've had a lot of experience in something, I'm going to feel a lot more confident, but if I don't have experience, I generally tend to be very under confident.

Seth also shared, "I feel the most confident in…the more educational side, because I've been doing that side of outdoor leadership for a lot longer than the other, like more technical component." And Ken further articulated, "I'm not super confident because I haven't done all of this stuff before. So, I think to me it comes off as more of just a person-to-person type of deal."

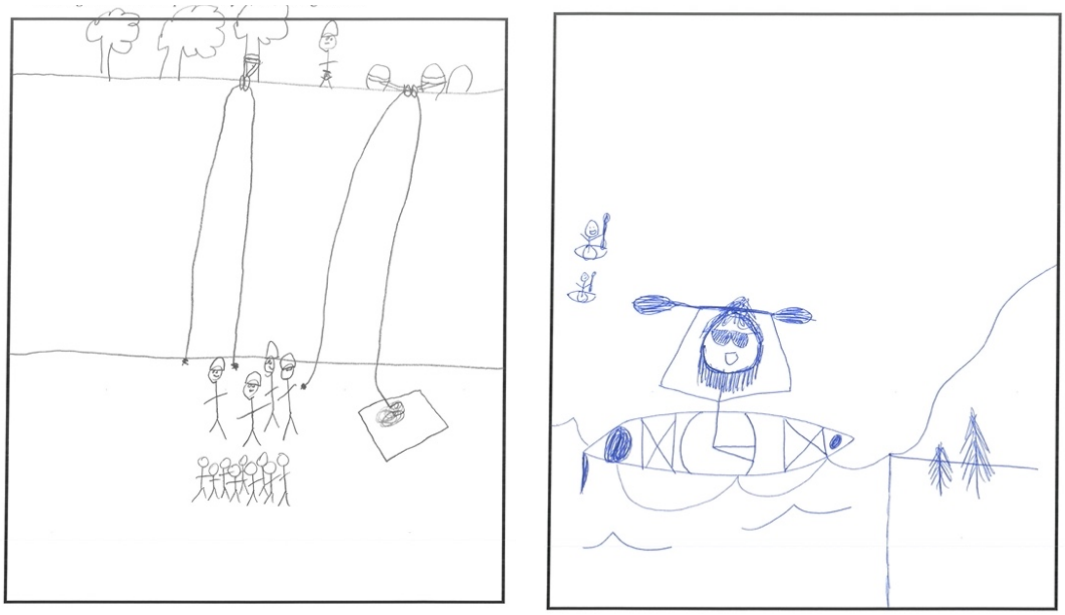
When asked in interview question 4 about the connection between gender and confidence, some participants directly shared that they did not see a connection. For example, Ken said, "more people are going to be more confident compared to other people." Others directly brought in gender, saying, "I don't think it's because they're male or female" and "I think being a woman or a man, I'm not sure that really matters." Trevor shared the example, "I don't think it matters on the gender…I could be confident, and I know where we are on a map, but then someone pulls the group together and comes up with a three-minute trail game and I'm just so impressed." These statements indicate that self-efficacy with outdoor leadership skills and behaviors are not inherently related to one's gender. Instead, how much you've done something influences your confidence. Diane shared this sentiment by saying ,"I've never done this before. I don't want to like jump in because I don't know what I'm doing," when describing an activity that made her

nervous. However it is notable that male participants tended to ascribe to this notion more than female participants.

The reflective drawings also revealed that participants only pictured themselves doing an activity they had experience with. For their second reflective drawing, participants were given the prompt to draw "A self-portrait of yourself leading outside." This drawing was done before the OLS training, and it was notable that each participant chose to draw themselves doing the outdoor activity they had the most experience in. These activities included kayaking, canoeing, rock climbing, and backpacking and were all described as something the participant either had the most experience in or was the most comfortable with (examples can be found in Figure 9). It is important to note that the only participant who drew themselves not doing an outdoor activity in their second drawing had limited outdoor experience, which may explain why they did not see themselves doing an activity.

Figure 9

Drawing 2 "Self Portrait" Examples

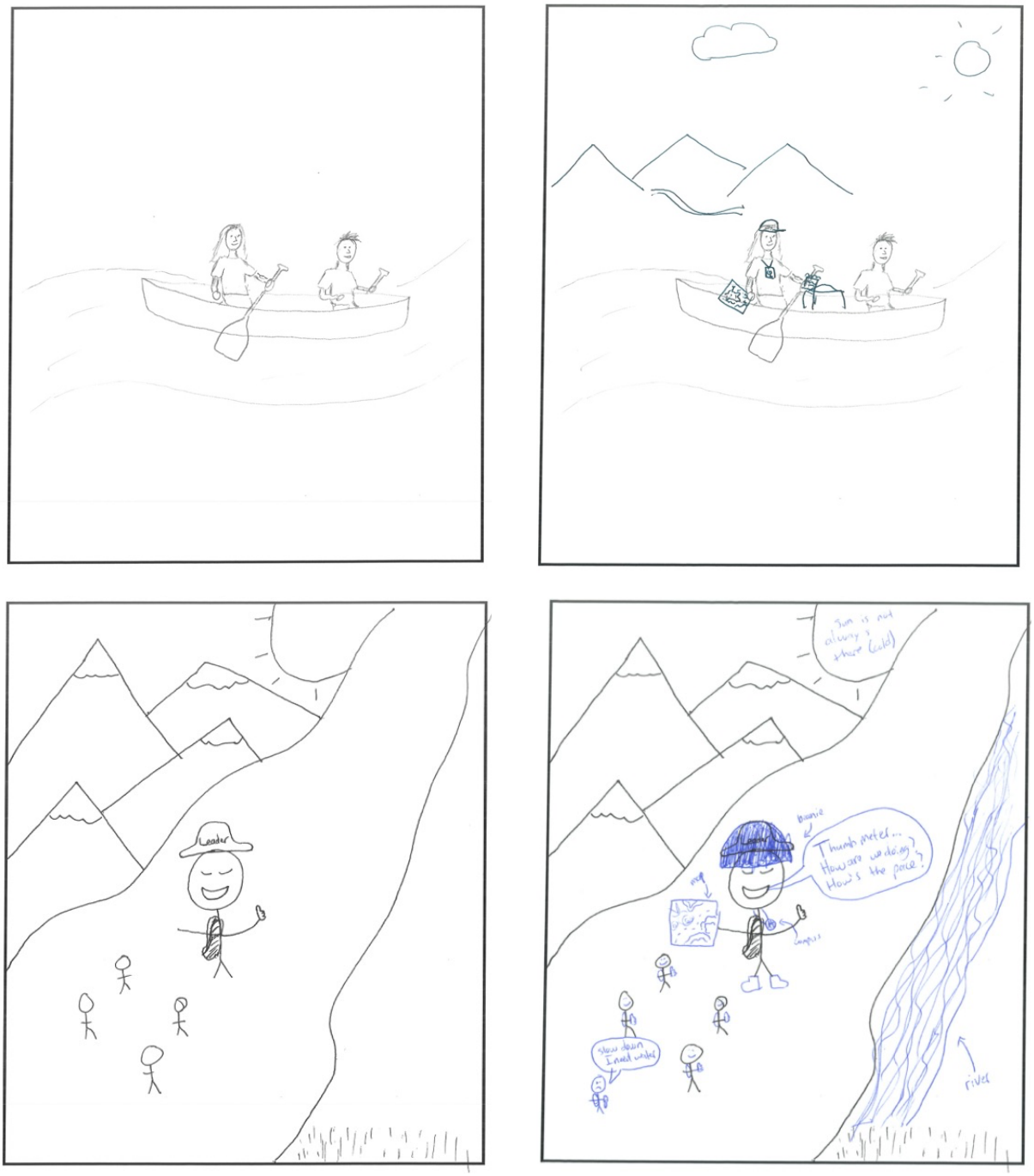


In his interview, one of the participants described the reason behind his second drawing as coming "directly from that climbing experience" and, after describing the rock-climbing features in the drawing, said, "I was kind of envisioning myself [on top of the cliff], but honestly anywhere in here is where I would see myself leading." The changes participants made after OLS in their third drawing also relates to this theme. The third reflective drawing was assigned on the last night of the OLS training trip, and participants were asked to make any changes to their self-portrait (drawing #2) to show what they had learned about leadership. Many participants added artistic details based on their trip experience (such as maps, rapids in the river, and a co-leader), but the most notable result from this last set of drawings was that participants drew and saw themselves more confidently in the outdoor leader roles.

For example, in a participant's second drawing, she only drew herself canoeing. But after OLS, she added mountains in the background of her third drawing, explaining, "after OLS, I feel like I could learn how to get more into leading, like backpacking and hiking, and stuff like that." Susanna also expanded on the areas she saw herself leading, including a wider array of outdoor gear and "a river with some rapids." Other participants described themselves in the third drawing as checking in more with participants, being more "involved with the activities," and "being one with the group," which were all behaviors that came up as necessary during the OLS trip. Examples of these changes can be found in Figure 10.

Figure 10

Drawing 3 "Leadership Changes" Examples



In addition to expanding their self-efficacy in a wider array of outdoor roles, participants also made their self-portraits more personal. For example, two of the

participants added hats to their self-portraits, saying, “I gave myself a beanie because I wore this thing, like the entire trip” and “I added a hat just because I wore a hat a lot on the trip” (see Figure 10 above). While an article of clothing does not directly indicate self-efficacy, it connotes a greater identification with the leader they initially drew, which suggests that experience being in a leadership role relates to seeing oneself more as an outdoor leader.

When considering that experience contributes more to self-efficacy than gender, it is crucial to acknowledge how people get this experience and who gets this experience. When describing the origin of their self-efficacy, Becky said, “I think it’s more about what you were taught and the opportunities and other things you’re exposed to.” Jason also said, “I’m super confident in who I am. And that’s just from my past and stuff.” However, as explored in the literature review, and as Mary articulated, “in the outdoor industry, women haven’t been given the same chances as men.” The data indicates a connection between this historical lack of opportunity and experience and self-efficacy. Ken said, “a lot of the men could seem to have more confidence because they have more knowledge just because of the fact that they are men and got that opportunity beforehand.” Mary also shared, “if you weren’t given those opportunities beforehand that could influence your confidence, which could then influence how someone thinks of you as a leader.”

The data reveal two main reasons for this lack of opportunity. The first is that people can self-select into opportunities to practice skills based on what they believe they would be good at. One of the participants who shared he was most confident with decision making said, “I always thought that’s one of my decisions when I went in the

military. I feel like man, I'd be good in those tough situations," supporting this argument. The second reason for a lack of opportunity that emerged from the data is that men are given more space to lead. Seth shared, "it also seems that sometimes [men] are given more of a stage role," and Susanna shared, "[a man] wasn't allowing me to fill into my leadership role because you were taking up so much space of it," to support this argument.

The three structural theme sections describe how participants experienced gender role congruence and its connection to self-efficacy in an outdoor leadership context. Structural Theme 1: The Typical Outdoor Leader reported the association participants had been masculinity and outdoor leadership and how this created challenges for female participants. Structural Theme 2: Self-Efficacy of Outdoor Leadership reported how outdoor leadership skills, specifically technical skills, were related to self-efficacy. And Structural Theme 3: Experience More Than Gender described how experience might impact self-efficacy more than one's gender. Composite textual and structural descriptions will be shared in the following sections.

Textual Description

A composite textural description captures *what* study participants experienced (Creswell & Poth, 2018). For the current study, this section summarizes *what* the participants experienced regarding gender role congruence and its influence on self-efficacy. First, the data suggest that participants had gender role expectations for men and women and an association between leadership and masculinity. These gender role expectations aligned with previously discussed literature and emerged as men being assumed to be confident, take leadership positions, and not rely on input from others. In

contrast, women were described as quiet and nonconfrontational, demonstrating communal qualities, and taking on logistical/planning tasks. The data also showed that male participants were more likely to be perceived as leaders than female participants, which may be interconnected with gender role expectations and an association between leadership and masculine qualities.

In addition to participants simply holding gender role and leadership perceptions, these gender role behaviors were connected to feelings of self-efficacy. Interviews revealed that female participants had the highest self-efficacy for logistical and communal tasks and the lowest self-efficacy for assertive decision making, taking charge, and technical skills. In contrast, male participants had the highest self-efficacy in decision-making and teaching and the lowest self-efficacy in technical skills and communal qualities. This second textual theme, Gender Role Congruence and Self-Efficacy, is related to the first because the behaviors that both male and female participants described feeling most and least self-efficacy in almost directly align with the gender role expectations participants described in the interviews. Observational data also supported this connection, as female participants received most of their feedback on female role congruent behaviors, and male participants received most of their feedback on male role congruent behaviors, indicating that participants tended to practice and receive feedback on tasks that aligned with their gender role expectations.

The third textual theme, Gender Differences in Self-Efficacy, indicated that in addition to participants connecting self-efficacy with the role congruence of their behaviors, presentations of self-efficacy appeared in different amounts and different ways for male and female participants. Specifically, female participants received over four

times as many low self-efficacy feedback statements and over two times fewer high-self efficacy feedback statements than male participants. These trends were noted by participants in the interviews, such as Susanna sharing, “I noticed that there was a trend whenever the girls were receiving feedback, a lot of them were just like, ‘be more confident, like have more confidence.’” Female participants also presented self-efficacy in different ways than male participants. For example, female participants demonstrated many forms of low self-efficacy, with the most common being not appearing confident, being indecisive with decisions, and showing stress.

In contrast, there were far fewer ways male participants demonstrated low-self efficacy, with the most common being removal or isolation from the group. Presentations of high self-efficacy were more similar for male and female participants, especially with taking on responsibilities and showing a growth mindset. However, only male participants demonstrated high self-efficacy by being self-affirming and not seeking to prove themselves. Overall, the textual themes demonstrated that participants did experience a connection between gender role congruence and self-efficacy.

Structural Description

The structural description captures *how* the study participants experienced a phenomenon (Creswell & Poth, 2018). For the current study, this section summarizes *how* the participants experienced gender role congruence and its influence on self-efficacy given the context of outdoor leadership. First, the data revealed that participants had engrained perceptions of gender roles in outdoor leadership. From the interview and observational data that showed participants associated leadership with masculinity to the reflective drawings, which presented an image of the “typical outdoor leader,” an

overarching impression of outdoor leadership emerged. And this impression, of associating a strong, confident man with outdoor leadership gives context to how participants operate and view themselves in outdoor spaces.

These perceptions were also connected to the textural themes of gender role expectations by aligning male gender role behaviors, such as being confident and taking charge in situations, more to leadership than female-associated expectations, such as taking on logistical tasks and being communal. The data suggested that female participants found it more challenging for women to be leaders in a male-dominated space because their behaviors and gender resulted in them being perceived as less competent and trustworthy. As one participant shared, "I think that being a female, you really have to advocate for yourself in the outdoors. And you have to voice more than you would if you were a man."

In addition to perceptions of gender roles and leadership in the outdoors, self-efficacy was also related to an outdoor context. While there were overarching differences between what male and female participants said they were most and least confident in, across all data, a common theme emerged of low self-efficacy with technical skills. This specific facet of outdoor leadership is not directly related to gender role congruence or behaviors but was described as necessary for a "typical outdoor leader," meaning that low self-efficacy with technical skills is related to the overall low self-efficacy of outdoor leadership.

Additionally, while data supported that gender role congruence influences self-efficacy, an alternative perspective emerged from this study that self-efficacy with outdoor leadership skills and behaviors might not be inherently related to one's gender.

Instead, how much you've done something influences your confidence. This theme of Experience More Than Gender appeared in all three forms of data but was mainly present in the reflective drawings, where participants only pictured themselves doing an activity they had experience with in their first self-portrait. Changes to their self-portrait after OLS also illuminated a greater identification with outdoor leadership, and perceptions of themselves in multiple leadership spaces. However, as explored in the literature review, and as Mary articulated, "in the outdoor industry, women haven't been given the same chances as men." The data indicated that there is a tendency for men to self-select into leadership opportunities and are given more space to lead, which creates a self-fulfilling prophecy of leadership experience and confidence. Regarding outdoor leadership, this would imply that men would practice, and therefore would be better at, the male role congruent behaviors deemed necessary to lead. Overall, the structural themes suggest that an outdoor context is interrelated with perceptions of gender and leadership and contributes to self-efficacy.

Essence

The essence section of a phenomenological study is designed to capture a composite viewpoint of both the textural and structural descriptions (Creswell & Poth, 2018). This section describes the "essence" of participants' experience with gender role congruence and self-efficacy in an outdoor leadership setting for the current study. This section will provide a comprehensive picture of the textural and structural descriptions that contributed to participants' experiences.

In essence, participants reported the most self-efficacy with gender role congruent behaviors. This self-efficacy was influenced by prior experience and engrained

perceptions of gender roles in outdoor leadership. And the self-efficacy participants presented was responded to differently based on the gender role congruence of their behaviors. Additionally, because of engrained gender role perceptions, specific challenges emerged for female participants to lead in a male-dominated space.

Mixed-Methods Phase Results

For the mixed-methods analysis, I used the high, high-mid, mid-low, and low ORSE scale score brackets determined in the quantitative phase to compare qualitative results and look for convergence or divergence between brackets. Specifically, I counted the number of significant statements in each observation category (high self-efficacy, low self-efficacy, female role congruent behaviors, and male role congruent behaviors) and determined if any trends emerged based on the amount of feedback in each self-efficacy score bracket.

During this mixed-methods analysis and interpretation, it is important to acknowledge the limitations of the ORSE scale scores. As previously discussed in the quantitative phase section of Chapter 4, one of the themes that emerged from the qualitative data is that experience with outdoor leadership was an important factor in determining one's outdoor recreation self-efficacy. And because the ORSE scale was administered early in the data collection process before participants went on the Outdoor Leadership Seminar (OLS) training trip, scores are likely tied to their prior outdoor experience, not their potential for and demonstration of self-efficacy.

These limitations may impact the conclusions that can be drawn from this analysis; however, there is still utility in the triangulation between quantitative and qualitative results. Table 33 below organizes the qualitative feedback by bracketed ORSE scale scores.

Table 33

Mixed Methods Comparison

Participant	ORSE Scale Score	HSE Self-Feedback	HSE Feedback Total	LSE Self-Feedback	LSE Feedback Total	FRCB Feedback	MRCB Feedback
Low ORSE Scale Score Bracket							
Mary	123	3	3	5	6	16	2
Jason	123	3	9	0	0	8	9
Low-Mid ORSE Scale Score Bracket							
Diane	130	0	1	9	15	18	0
Becky	132	0	5	3	11	12	7
Mid- High ORSE Scale Score Bracket							
Ken	135	1	5	2	4	4	9
Seth	137	5	10	1	3	1	13
High ORSE Scale Score Bracket							
Susanna	156	0	5	4	6	12	6
Trevor	160	1	9	1	1	1	8

Note. Abbreviations: High self-efficacy (HSE), low self-efficacy (LSE), female role congruent behaviors (FRCB), male role congruent behaviors (MRCB).

As Table 33 shows, there is no strong pattern between ORSE scale scores and the number of high self-efficacy (HSE) feedback statements participants received. The two participants with the lowest ORSE scale scores had the second highest number of HSE self-feedback statements (each having 3). Additionally, the top four highest HSE feedback counts were spread between the four ORSE scale categories. The only trend is that male participants tended to have more HSE feedback statements than female participants. This trend also emerged in the qualitative data analysis, suggesting that the ORSE scale was not indicative of perceived and demonstrated high self-efficacy on the OLS trip. Additionally, because this scale only measured perceived self-efficacy, a lack of trend between scores and the number of HSE feedback supports the notation that other factors, such as experience or gender role congruence, influenced one's demonstrated self-efficacy.

There was a slightly stronger pattern between ORSE scale scores and the number of low self-efficacy (LSE) feedback statements participants received; however, it was still not a strong trend. The most apparent relationship appeared between LSE self-feedback and ORSE scale scores, as participants with lower scores tended to give themselves more LSE self-feedback. However, this pattern becomes more apparent when one considers the gender of the participants. As previously discussed, female participants had over four times as many LSE feedback statements as male participants. This was especially true for female participants with low and low-mid ORSE scale scores (who received 6, 15, and 11 pieces of LSE feedback), but it was also true for the one female participant who had a high ORSE Scale score (who received 6 pieces of LSE feedback). Additionally, the only male participant with a low ORSE scale score, Jason, had one of the lowest LSE

feedback counts (receiving 0 pieces of LSE feedback). While it is not surprising that low perceived self-efficacy from the ORSE scale tended to correlate to more LSE feedback, the strong relationship to the gender of the participants suggests that gender was a more important factor in determining the amount of LSE feedback.

The counts of female role congruent behaviors (FRCB) and male role congruent behaviors (MRCB) follow similar trends of aligning more with the participant's gender than with their ORSE scale score. However, it is important to note that Jason (the only male participant who had a low ORSE scale score) had a higher percentage of his feedback for FRCB (47%) and a lower percentage for MRCB (53%) than all other male participants (who had 30%, 7%, and 11% of their feedback in FRCB). Additionally, Ken, who had the next highest percentage of his feedback in FRCB (30%), had the next lowest ORSE scale score for male participants (in the mid-high bracket). These data suggest that one's perceived self-efficacy, as tested by the ORSE scale, may be related to performing in gender incongruent ways for male participants.

Overall, there were few noteworthy findings from triangulating ORSE scale scores with qualitative data. This lack of results may be due to the limitations of the ORSE scale. when the scale was distributed, or that self-perceptions of self-efficacy perhaps do not correlate to presentations of gender role congruence or self-efficacy. The most revealing findings from the current study remain that the gender of participants related to their levels of self-efficacy and the role congruence of their behaviors.

The following chapter will discuss the current study's implications and how its findings will fill existing literature gaps. Limitations, implications for practitioners, and future research areas are also examined.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

This convergent mixed-methods study aimed to explore how gender role congruence influences the self-efficacy of male and female emerging outdoor leaders. Chapter 5 is dedicated to exploring the implications of this current study's findings, both in how they advance the field of outdoor leadership research and how practitioners can use them. Limitations of this study will also be discussed, as well as future research studies.

Overview

Participants for this study were male and female college students employed as outdoor trip leaders at a large Midwestern university's outdoor recreation program. During the quantitative phase of this research, participants completed the Outdoor Recreation Self-Efficacy (ORSE) scale to measure their perceived self-efficacy regarding outdoor skills. The primary qualitative phase then used a combination of interviews, observations, and reflective drawings collected before, during, and after a nine-day-long outdoor training trip, called the Outdoor Leadership Seminar (OLS). For the mixed methods analysis, the quantitative ORSE scale scores were bracketed into four categories of low, low-mid, mid-high, and high perceived self-efficacy and used to compare the convergence and divergence of qualitative results across different levels of perceived self-efficacy.

Multiple themes emerged from this study, with the primary result being that participants had the highest self-efficacy with gender role congruent behaviors. Both engrained perceptions of gender roles in outdoor leadership and prior experiences contributed to these feelings of self-efficacy. Additionally, the results of this study indicated that women experience low self-efficacy more frequently than men and face

specific challenges leading in a male-dominated industry. No other known study examining gender and self-efficacy in the outdoors has used such a design, where multiple robust forms of qualitative data have been combined with quantitative data to answer a research question in a comprehensive way. Therefore, this study brings a novel contribution to the current literature.

Implications of Results

This section will discuss the implications of the current study and how it advances the outdoor leadership research field. Few studies have been conducted on the connection between gender role congruence and self-efficacy; thus, much of the findings from this current study explore an area of scholarship where there is limited previous research. Additionally, no other known studies focusing on gender and self-efficacy have used the same in-depth qualitative triangulation as this study employed. Specifically, the use of reflective drawings is a relatively unique methodology and has the potential to make significant contributions to understanding how outdoor leaders visualize themselves. This section of Chapter 5 will be organized by discussing how the six theme sections that emerged from the data support or advance the current literature.

Limitations

While this study has the potential to contribute to the field of outdoor leadership scholarship, it is essential to acknowledge its limitations. The primary limitation of this current study is its limited generalizability. This study was conducted using a small, convenience sample of eight participants, all of whom were college student outdoor trip leaders. Additionally, some confounding variable(s) may have been introduced because the participants in this study might have been similar in some way(s) (i.e., all students of the same University, a majority were white, they were all trained in similar ways).

Because this sample only represents a specific subset of outdoor leaders, the results of this study must be interpreted with some caution and any conclusions drawn may not generalize to a larger population.

In addition to limited generalizability, limitations emerged for using the ORSE scale, which was employed during the quantitative phase. As previously discussed, one of the themes that emerged from the qualitative data is that experience with outdoor leadership is important in determining one's outdoor recreation self-efficacy. And because the ORSE scale was administered early in the data collection process before participants went on the OLS training trip, scores are likely tied to their prior outdoor experience, not their potential for and demonstration of self-efficacy. Because of these limitations, conclusions from the quantitative phase and the mixed-methods analysis will not be discussed in their contribution to the literature.

Lastly, a potential limitation of this study is that more female participants chose to engage in member checking the results than male participants. As previously discussed, all eight participants were contacted with the opportunity to engage in member checking, but only six participants responded. These six participants included all four female participants and two male participants. While all themes were discussed and confirmed during member checking, this imbalance in gender may have resulted in the female perspective being heard more often. Additionally, it may have resulted in biases from a female perspective not being questioned as rigorously as they may have been if more male participants chose to review the results. While it is important to consider these limitations when drawing conclusions from this research, there are still areas where it can contribute to the field of outdoor leadership studies.

Textual Themes Discussion

In the following sections, the textual themes will be discussed in further detail, including their connection to prior literature and possible explanations for the results.

Textural Theme 1: Gender Roles and Leadership Perceptions

The first theme that emerged from the data highlighted the gender role and leadership perceptions participants either held themselves or described as stereotypes. Though this current study did so, it is important to acknowledge that it is broadly generalizing to categorize the behaviors of an entire gender into a few stereotypical characteristics. People of all genders, including those who identify outside the male-female binary, can present any combination of behaviors and personalities. However, while this may be true in theory, significant prior research has shown that Western society holds specific gender role expectations that are socially enforced (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Ritter & Yoder, 2004). Using this social understanding, the current study operationalized Eagly's (1987) definition of "consensual beliefs about the attributes of women and men that are normative for each sex, involving both descriptive (what actually is) and prescriptive (what ought to be) norms" to identify and describe the gender role expectations participants held. The results of this study primarily support previous research on gender roles, both in a larger social context and in an outdoor leadership setting (Baker & O'Brien, 2020; Davies et al., 2019; Jordan, 2018; Warren & Loeffler, 2006)

For example, Davies et al. (2019) described masculine leadership traits in the outdoors as assertive and over-confident, while feminine traits include being passive, nurturing, and collaborative. The male role congruent behaviors that emerged from this current study were similar to those definitions and included taking charge in situations, being confident in decision making, and assuming leadership positions. Likewise, female

role congruent behaviors included being communal and filling a support role. The language used to describe gender role expectations was also notable since it often played into gross overgeneralizations and stereotypes of gender roles. While some statements participants shared, such as "I felt like a lot of the girls on OLS were the people who were more likely to give those time announcements or make the schedule," cite specific examples and experiences, most were broader.

For example, phrases such as "Not using your head to decide things…I feel like society aligns [this] more with men than women stereotypically" directly connects an individual perception to consensual societal beliefs. Other statements, such as "you're not going to be overly emotional. You're going to be in check with your emotions" to describe men and "just the pretty princess…you know, graceful and quiet and not that opinionated" to describe women, also align with broad generalizations instead of specific examples. While these findings are not novel, this current study provides another example of research confirming our binary societal characteristics of gender roles and how these expectations influence how people view themselves and others.

In addition to descriptions of gender roles, the other notable finding from this theme was the leadership perceptions of men and women. This current study found that in addition to male participants receiving more pieces of feedback on their leadership than female participants, the language used in the feedback statements differed. Most of the feedback given to male participants suggested that the group already wanted the person to be a leader and that they saw and trusted him as such. These statements sometimes stated it directly, such as we "wanted him to be a leader" and included phrases such as "easy to trust" and "has a good leadership presence." In contrast, the feedback of

"leadership was on display" for a female participant connotes that leadership was an action that a person did on that day, not part of who they are innately as a person.

This difference in how leadership feedback was given alludes to how men and women are viewed as leaders and suggests that even when women are in leadership positions, they are not perceived as having the same inherent belonging or power. While not explicitly explored in this research, these findings relate to the concept of implicit bias, defined as when one's behaviors or actions reflect subconscious beliefs. Research by Dolder et al. argues that leadership development takes place in environments suffused with ideologies about leadership and gender (2019). These ideologies impact how leaders behave and the feedback they are given, and Dolder et al. found that the feedback male and female leaders received reflected gender biases (2019). Their research also found that women political leaders were less likely to receive feedback recognizing their leadership potential or encouraging them to develop leadership ambition (Dodler et al. 2019). The current research aligns with Dodler et al.'s findings, because feedback assuming leadership for male participants and not assuming leadership for female participants aligns with societal implicit bias.

Additionally, while prior research has found that men are viewed more as outdoor leaders than women are (Gray et al., 2017; Rogers & Rose, 2019; Warren et al., 2018), the results of this current study provide a new perspective to these findings. Specifically, multiple prior studies have examined how participants view their leaders, but by examining peer feedback, the current study suggests that emerging outdoor leaders tend to hold these gendered beliefs about their peers in similar leadership positions to themselves. This finding that even without the inherent power dynamic of leader-to-

follow relationship, men are assumed to be leaders more than women extends the current literature.

Textural Theme 2: Gender Role Congruence and Self-Efficacy

There is prior research on the behaviors that male and female leaders tend to have, or are perceived as needing to have, in the outdoors (Rogers & Rose, 2019). However, I could not find prior literature connecting levels of self-efficacy with gender role congruent behaviors. As a result, the finding of this current study, that women and men had the most self-efficacy with gendered behavior and tasks, contribute to outdoor leadership studies. This research indicated that female participants had the highest self-efficacy for logistical and communal tasks and the lowest for assertive decision-making, taking charge, and technical skills. Additionally, the current study revealed that male participants had the highest self-efficacy in teaching and decision making and the lowest self-efficacy in technical skills and communal qualities. These behaviors that male and female participants had the most (and least) self-efficacy with closely aligned with the previously discussed Western gender role expectations. These findings are notable because if self-efficacy is related to gender role congruent behaviors, it may explain why these behaviors and roles continue to be upheld.

Results from the observational data are also notable. First, the categories used to organize the observational data aligned with prior literature on gender role expectations in the outdoors. Specifically, the observational data revealed that female participants often demonstrated role congruent behaviors, including taking on logistical and planning work, giving credit for group accomplishments, and taking time with decision making. Some of these behaviors align directly with Gray's (2016) research on the tasks women

may feel most comfortable taking on in leadership and other research on female role congruent leadership behaviors (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Lugg, 2018; Rogers & Rose, 2019). Likewise, the observational data for male role congruent behaviors included examples of giving clear demands, decisive and active decision making, and lacking communal qualities. These behaviors align with Wittmer's (2001) and Davies et al.'s (2019) research on male behaviors in outdoor leadership.

The observational results that all four female participants received most of their feedback on female role congruent behaviors and all four male participants received most of their feedback on male role congruent behaviors are also notable. These findings suggest that participants tended to behave in ways that aligned with gender role expectations and that others tended to give feedback that affirmed these behaviors. These trends suggest that perceptions of self-efficacy in relation to gender role congruence are both internal and external, and m.

Overall, this theme advances the literature in multiple ways. First, because there is limited prior research connecting levels of self-efficacy with gender role congruence, the finding that male and female participants tended to have the most and least self-efficacy with gender role congruent behaviors is notable. Additionally, the observational data suggesting gender role behaviors are practiced and upheld in part because people receive feedback affirming them is a novel explanation to prior literature on why gender role behaviors may appear in leadership.

Textual Theme 3: Gender Differences in Self-Efficacy

One of the conclusions of the third textual theme was that high self-efficacy feedback was more often given to male participants than to female participants, and the

inverse was true for low self-efficacy feedback. This trend appeared in both self-feedback and overall feedback totals, suggesting that perceptions of self-efficacy are both internal and external. These findings are notable because they suggest that women are less likely to be perceived as confident and comfortable in outdoor leadership spaces. According to Overholt and Ewert (2015), society habituates women to have low expectations of their abilities until proven otherwise. As a result, previous research has indicated that women in the outdoors often underestimate or devalue their competencies and leadership abilities (Rogers & Rose, 2019). The current study's findings contribute to this argument by revealing both self and peer feedback indicating less confidence among female participants. As it has been studied in an outdoor setting, self-efficacy has also been shown to contribute to continued participation and leadership in the outdoors, which makes it an important factor when researching emerging outdoor leaders (Mittelstaedt & Jones, 2009; Propst & Koesler, 1998). Therefore, because this current study found that female participants were more likely to show low self-efficacy, it suggests that women may have lower levels of continued outdoor participation and leadership.

Another potential reason for these differences in feedback amounts is how comfortable male participants were showing or sharing feelings of low self-efficacy. During member checking, a participant brought up that he was surprised by how few low self-efficacy feedback statements men received because he lacked confidence throughout the OLS trip. He then shared that he didn't let other people know when he was feeling stressed or unconfident in order to fulfill his leadership role and image, which may have resulted in him receiving less low self-efficacy feedback. This is an important insight

because it suggests that men may have low self-efficacy more frequently than what was reported but were intentional about hiding it.

It is also notable that female participants received more overall feedback than male participants (52 comments, compared to 41 comments for men). Some potential explanations for this difference may be that female participants more regularly engaged in giving self-feedback, female leaders were seen as needing more feedback in general, or that the difference occurred by chance. However, this difference in overall feedback counts may have contributed to why male leaders had less low self-efficacy feedback.

Additionally, the results of the current student indicated that female participants presented low self-efficacy in many more ways than male participants. Some of these ways included using self-deprecating statements, not accepting compliments or praise, showing visible stress, and avoiding challenges or difficult tasks. These results are notable because many of the ways low self-efficacy was presented by women, such as the use of self-deprecating statements or avoidance of challenging tasks, may also have the unintended effect of continuing to diminish how female leaders are viewed, which creates a cycle of perceptions of incompetence and low confidence in the outdoors. An additional finding regarding presentations of low self-efficacy is that the primary way male participants presented low self-efficacy was through removal or isolation from the group. This presentation suggests that when male outdoor leaders lack confidence, they put themselves in spaces where they are not seen. And because of this removal from the group, low self-efficacy may not be perceived as often by male leaders, which can further conceptions that men are always strong and confident. This finding also aligns with the

previously shared discussion of why women may have received low self-efficacy feedback more often than men.

Lastly, the results of the current study indicated that female participants were often told they had too little or too much confidence. These findings support prior literature, as multiple studies have shown that women who take on feminine leadership styles are seen as less competent and confident, but those who challenge gender stereotypes find themselves ostracized and evaluated poorly (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Garcia-Retamero & López-Zafra, 2006; Rogers & Rose, 2019; Warren & Loeffler, 2006). This study specifically supports Jordan's (2018) concept of agentic deficiency and agentic penalty. Agentic deficiency is when women are perceived as not having the skills and traits necessary to be a leader. Agentic penalty occurs when women are viewed less favorably when they express traditionally masculine characteristics (Jordan, 2018). Statements from this current study such as "I noticed that there was a trend whenever the girls were receiving feedback, a lot of them were just like, 'be more confident, like have more confidence" and "It was more notable when [two women] were super confident because that was something that is not really expected a whole lot" support this idea of agentic deficiency. And statements such as "confident women are sometimes labeled as like weird or like unfeminine. Or just distasteful" and a female participant being told "don't get carried away [with confidence]" support the concept of agentic penalty.

Overall, the results from this textural theme contribute to the current literature. The current study presents that self-efficacy is experienced in different ways and in different amounts for male and female leaders, which has implications for how leaders can be both valued and supported. First, findings that female leaders are more likely to

show low self-efficacy and male leads are more likely to show high self-efficacy extend prior literature on how male and female leaders are perceived in the outdoors (Overholt & Ewert, 2015; Rogers & Rose, 2019). Additionally, few studies have been conducted on different presentations of low self-efficacy for men and women in outdoor leadership, so this current study offers a new perspective to the literature. Specifically, the results that female leaders tended to use self-deprecating statements or avoid challenging tasks and that male leaders tended to remove themselves from the group as a form of low self-efficacy provide a novel explanation as to why men may be perceived as more confident. Lastly, feedback and interview statements from the current study extend prior literature on the challenges women may face with being perceived as too confident, including Jordan's (2018) concept of agentic deficiency and agentic penalty.

Structural Themes Discussion

The following sections will discuss the three structural themes in greater detail, including possible reasons for the results and how the current research advances the field of outdoor leadership studies.

Structural Theme 1: The Typical Outdoor Leader

The overarching conclusion from the first structural theme that there is a stereotypical image of a typical outdoor leader is supported by significant prior research on gender role expectations in the outdoors (Jordan, 2018; Lugg, 2018; Rogers & Rose, 2019; Warren & Loeffler, 2006). However, there are still notable results from the current study that extend existing research, especially from the reflective drawings. First, this current study suggested that leadership and confidence in the outdoors were connected to masculinity. Interview statements such as "almost an assumption of leadership that's

drawn from that more masculine side" and "I think when it comes to that, it's a very masculine thing to be super confident in the outdoors" suggest this point. Alternatively, statements such as, "I feel like women aren't innately seen as like outdoor people or outdoor leaders," shows that women are not viewed in the same way.

In addition to interview statements, results from the "typical outdoor leader" reflective drawing presented a perspective that advances prior literature. Specifically, while these drawings often aligned with descriptors of outdoor leadership stereotypes found in the literature (Jordan, 2018; Lugg, 2018; Rogers & Rose, 2019), I could not find any other study that asked outdoor leaders to specifically draw their internal perceptions. This methodology allowed for imagery that isn't possible with the spoken word and allowed participants to show specific details about their master narratives of outdoor leadership. The results of this study show that all eight participants drew strikingly similar drawings of a bearded man standing alone and wearing specific outdoor gear, alluding to a deeply specific and engrained image of a typical outdoor leader looks and acts. And this specific image is likely tied to the implicit bias participants held of outdoor leadership.

This study also presented a holistic and visual depiction of outdoor leadership perceptions by triangulating these physical images of what a "typical outdoor leader" looked like with spoken descriptions. An example of these perceptions is when one of the participants described his drawing by sharing that the leader has a "nice long mountain man beard with a trucker hat because those seem to be in." This phrase not only provides a detailed description of physical appearance, but the phrase "because those seem to be in" shows that there are trends or expectations someone may feel pressured to follow as

an outdoor leader. Additionally, descriptions such as he is “obviously masculine” and “you can tell that they’re confident in their decision making” suggest that masculinity and male role congruent behaviors in outdoor leadership are assumed as givens.

These outdoor leadership perceptions were also related to challenges for male and female leaders. Most of the research on gender in the outdoors focuses on the challenges women face, which means that this current study primarily supports previous literature. For example, the present study examined how women were perceived as less competent and less trustworthy than men,as evidenced by the number of feedback statements participants received, which has also been documented in multiple other studies (Lugg, 2018; Rogers & Rose, 2019; Warren & Loeffler, 2006). These perceptions create challenges for female leaders because they must work against preconceived notions of their abilities when leading in outdoor settings, which may influence their self-efficacy. For example, Mary said, “I assume they’re going to want to listen to me less because I am a woman. And so then that affects my confidence.” Other participants shared similar sentiments, such as “He can do that better. He’s stronger. He’s more into this. But I have to correct myself” and “She’s a woman, so maybe she won’t be able to do something like that.” All of these statements reflect how perceptions of outdoor leadership influence the self-talk and internal thoughts of women leading in the outdoors.

This connection between leadership perception and self-efficacy found in the current study relates to Eagly and Karau’s role congruity theory of prejudice (2002). This theory argues that the perceived incongruity between the female gender role and leader roles leads to perceiving women less favorably than men as leaders and evaluating behaviors that fulfill the prescription of a leader role less favorably when enacted by a

woman (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Statements such as “It might be a little bit easier for someone masculine in the outdoors to gain that trust” and “you have to work harder than most and take more time than most just so…you can like surprise people” allude to this need for women to work harder. This congruity theory of prejudice was developed in a business setting, so its presence in an outdoor leadership context provides another example of its utility.

Overall, this structural theme advances the literature through the unique methodology of reflective drawings and provides a novel perspective to Eagly and Karau’s role congruity theory of prejudice (2002) in an outdoor leadership setting. The reflective drawing methodology allowed participants to create imagery beyond the spoken word and showed a specific manifestation of how participants viewed a “typical outdoor leader.” These drawings, combined with interview statements and observational data, presented a holistic and visual depiction of outdoor leadership perceptions, which extends the current literature. And interview statements from the recent study on the challenges female participants faced being perceived as competent show how the role congruity theory of prejudice can be applied in an outdoor leadership setting.

Structural Theme 2: Self-Efficacy of Outdoor Leadership

Across all data, a common theme from both male and female participants was having low self-efficacy with technical skills. With the “typical outdoor leader,” these skills are deemed necessary for outdoor leadership, so it is notable that most participants did not have high self-efficacy demonstrating them. It is also notable that almost all the feedback comments regarding a lack of technical skills happened during self-feedback. These data indicated that participants had lower confidence in their own technical skills than either

their co-leaders or the group had in them, which may be related to overall self-efficacy trends.

When considering why participants had low self-efficacy with technical skills, one of the most cited reasons was in response to how others would view them and their competence. Statements such as “I'm not going to be a good example” and “it would really solidify their confidence in me” support this point. This sentiment was shared by both male and female participants, with one of the male participants specifically sharing, “when I’m not really meeting that technical side as much, it kind of hurts my confidence a little bit in that department.” Prior literature has indicated that male outdoor leaders may feel more pressure and expectation to have strong technical skills due to perceptions of masculinity in outdoor leadership (Davies et al., 2019). As a result, not having or demonstrating these skills can impact men's self-efficacy more than women.

This anxiety towards performing technical skills can also contribute to imposter syndrome, defined as the internal belief that one is a fraud and not worthy of being in a space (Gray, 2016; Pedler, 2011). When people are less confident in their technical skills, as the current study suggested, they are less likely to attempt these skills and be self-promoting in their abilities. As a result, they may have fewer opportunities to practice technical skills or be in leadership positions where technical skills are needed, which can impact outdoor experience and perceptions of leadership. Low self-efficacy for technical skills was found similarly for male and female participants, suggesting that this imposter syndrome exists in all people.

The findings from structural theme 2 extend current literature on how low-self efficacy with technical skills can impact one’s self-perception of competence as an

outdoor leader. Since there is limited research on the experiences of male outdoor leaders, the findings from the current study also offer a notable perspective on how male participants navigated confidence surrounding technical skills.

Structural Theme 3: Experience More Than Gender

Much of the data from this current study supports the argument that gender is connected to self-efficacy in outdoor leadership. However, the last emergent theme from this study indicated that experience might matter more than gender in determining levels of self-efficacy. This concept has been identified in prior research on self-efficacy, including work from Bandura (1977), suggesting that experience is important in increasing one's feelings of self-efficacy. Similar results have been documented in outdoor settings, such as Propst and Koesler's 1998 research, which indicated that self-efficacy scores increased after participation in an outdoor program. In the current study, statements such as "I think the biggest thing that influences me is just experience" and "I feel the most confident…because I've been doing that side of outdoor leadership for a lot longer" support this argument.

In addition to interview data, the reflective drawing results add an additional perspective that has not previously been explored in the literature. Similar to the drawings of the "typical outdoor leader," the reflective self-portraits of participants before and after their outdoor leadership experience are a unique methodology that show a level of detail not present in other forms of data. By completing these two sets of drawings, participants were able to express their self-image and identification with a leadership role in more subtle ways (such as adding a hat because they wore one on a trip), which shows that perceptions of self-efficacy change in multiple and nuanced ways after an experience.

While there is prior literature on the connection between experience and self-efficacy, there is limited research on the connection between gender and self-efficacy in the outdoors, so this study presents notable findings on that connection. In this structural theme, some participants directly shared that there was not a connection between gender and confidence, such as "I don't think it's because they're male or female" and "I think being a woman or a man, I'm not sure that really matters." These findings are notable for two reasons. The first is that while they provide a valuable alternative perspective, they contradict some of the other data in this study, especially the observational data. This contradiction suggests that while participants may believe and share that gender doesn't influence self-efficacy, their actions (as captured by observational data) reflect otherwise. The second reason these findings are notable is that male participants made most statements about experience being more important than gender. Some female participants also shared these thoughts, but because primarily men claimed this connection, it may allude to men not noticing the impacts of gender as much as women with their outdoor experiences.

The notion that while experience does contribute to self-efficacy, female leaders may not get as much experience as male leaders, was also present in the data. Some participants described the origin of their self-efficacy as "more about what you were taught and the opportunities and other things you're exposed to." However, as explored in the literature review, and as Mary articulated, "in the outdoor industry, women haven't been given the same chances as men." The two main reasons for this lack of opportunity that emerged from that data were (a) participants self-selected into opportunities to practice skills based on what they believed they would be good at, and (b) men are given

more space to lead. This first reason for self-selecting into a position where one can practice leadership skills based on self-perceptions alludes to a self-fulfilling prophecy- that people who think they would be good at doing role congruent behaviors do more of them, which in turn gives them more experience and confidence doing those behaviors.

Regarding outdoor leadership, this would imply that men would practice, and therefore would be better at, the male role congruent behaviors deemed necessary. The second reason also creates a self-fulfilling leadership prophecy because if men are given a leadership platform, they have more chances to lead, so they get more experience and are looked to more as leaders. In conclusion, while data supports the perspective that experience matters more than gender in contributing to confidence, it is important to acknowledge who gets that experience.

This last structural theme contributes to prior literature in two main ways. First, by using reflective self-portraits before and after an outdoor leadership experience, the current study provides a novel perspective on prior research connecting experience with self-efficacy. Specifically, the two sets of drawings showed that identification and confidence with a leadership role increases after an outdoor experience. Additionally, since there is limited research on the connection between gender and self-efficacy in the outdoors, this study also contributes to the literature by suggesting that while participants may believe and share that gender doesn't influence self-efficacy (through interviews), their actions (as captured by observational data) reflect otherwise.

Research Implication Summary

Overall, this research makes important contributions to the field of outdoor leadership studies. Since few studies have been conducted on the connection between

gender role congruence and self-efficacy, much of the findings from the current study explored an area of scholarship where there is limited previous research. The first two textual themes, Gender Roles and Leadership Perceptions and Gender Role Congruence and Self-Efficacy, expand the literature by suggesting that male and female emerging outdoor leaders tend to hold gendered beliefs about their peers in similar leadership positions and that participants tended to have the most and least self-efficacy with gender role congruent behaviors. Additionally, observational data suggesting that gender role behaviors are practiced and upheld in part because people receive feedback affirming them is a novel explanation to prior literature on why gender role behaviors may appear in leadership. The third textual theme, Gender Differences in Self Efficacy, also expands previous literature with the findings that female leaders are more likely to present low self-efficacy and male leads are more likely to present high self-efficacy when leading. How self-efficacy was presented is also notable, as the results that female leaders tended to use self-deprecating statements or avoid challenging tasks and male leaders tended to remove themselves from the group as a form of low self-efficacy provide a novel explanation for why men may be perceived as more confident in outdoor leadership settings.

The structural themes also contribute to the literature in multiple ways. The unique methodology of reflective drawings provides a new perspective on how participants visualize a stereotypical outdoor leader in the first structural theme of The Typical Outdoor Leader. The second structural theme, Self-Efficacy of Outdoor Leadership, primarily expands upon current literature on how low-self efficacy with technical skills can impact one's self-perception of competence as an outdoor leader,

however, the current study highlights the lesser researched male experience. Reflective drawings were also used in the third structural theme, Experience More Than Gender, to show how identification with a leadership position increases after an experience, which expands upon prior research connecting experience with self-efficacy. Lastly, this current study suggests that while there is some evidence to support experience as a key factor in self-efficacy, observational data and triangulation between qualitative data shows that gender is still important.

Implications for Practitioners

In addition to contributing to the literature, there are specific implications for outdoor leadership practitioners that emerged from this study. The first implication for practitioners is the need to acknowledge that there are engrained perceptions of outdoor leadership roles for men and women. These perceptions can influence the attitudes of leaders and participants and therefore impact the amount of trust bestowed upon female leaders. It is important to actively dismantle these 'master narratives' by first discussing the stereotypical perceptions that exist and then demonstrating or showing examples of outdoor leaders who break this mold.

Practitioners can achieve this by infusing reflective drawings, including a "typical outdoor leader" drawing and pre/post self-portraits into their training sessions. These drawings can be used as a self-reflective tool for emerging leaders and as the starting point for facilitated group discussion and individualized coaching. For example, when reviewing the "typical outdoor leader" drawing, practitioners can have students share their drawings with a group and answer the prompts "which previous experiences, perceived cultural expectations, or internal reflections have influenced your drawing?" and "how do you think this master narrative of outdoor leadership has impacted your

experience and the experience of other outdoor leaders?" Pre/post self-portraits can also be used as a reflective tool, following a similar methodology to this current study. Students can be encouraged to draw a leadership self-portrait before they engage in an outdoor leadership experience and then again on the last night to allow them to visualize their growth over time. Students can then be encouraged to share with a group the changes they made, to build self-identification with their leadership role, and show examples of outdoor leaders who may contradict the "typical" leader they had previously drawn.

Additionally, because experience contributes to self-efficacy, practitioners must be conscious about who is invited to and included in training opportunities. This may require additional effort to encourage female leaders to seek opportunities to gain experience and noticing one's own implicit biases. It is also important to consider who is gravitating to what outdoor tasks and actively disrupt strict adherence to gender role congruent behaviors. For example, if it is always the female leaders planning games and facilitating conversations, one may encourage male leaders to step into that role. Lastly, it is important to recognize expressions of high and low self-efficacy and how these expressions may differ for men and women. This is important because when high self-efficacy is identified, it can be celebrated and encouraged, and when low self-efficacy is recognized, it can be addressed, and that person can be supported.

A way practitioners can build awareness of who is getting opportunities and portraying self-efficacy is by engaging in a feedback audit. This approach may be helpful if giving and receiving feedback is part of a leadership development program and can use a protocol similar to the methodology of this current study. For example, practitioners

can record all the feedback that is given to their students by themselves as a practitioner and by others to review if trends emerge in the feedback given to people of different identities and experience levels. This feedback audit can then be reviewed with students to provide specific examples of their performance and times when they demonstrated high and low self-efficacy. It can also be used as an overarching tool to understand programmatic biases.

Future Research

Based on the findings from this study, multiple areas of future research have emerged. First, more research should be conducted on the impacts outdoor experiences have on outdoor related self-efficacy. Prior self-efficacy research shows that experience is an important factor in determining self-efficacy, and the current study suggests this is true in outdoor settings (Bandura, 1977). Specifically, the results of the current study indicated multiple examples of how self-efficacy increased after the Outdoor Leadership Seminar (OLS) trip, which suggests that Leader of the Day (LOD) days can be an important tool in growing one's confidence. Some research has already been done on this topic, such as Boettcher and Gansemer-Topf's (2015) study that found that students saw their LOD roles as a tool for intentional practice and development of leadership skills. Studying how these LOD experiences specifically related to self-efficacy can illuminate ways to foster and encourage self-efficacy in student leaders.

An additional facet of the OLS experience that should continue to be studied is the impact of mentoring and feedback on self-efficacy and how this may differ for men and women. Propst and Koesler (1998) found that mentoring is one of the most critical factors for developing self-efficacy because it enhances self-confidence and self-identity. Mentoring also forms a close, long-term relationship between instructor and student,

which allows for the social persuasion Bandura (1986) argues enhances efficacy. In addition to mentoring, Propst and Koesler (1998) found that feedback was powerful in strengthening self-efficacy. While the current study did not specifically focus on mentoring, it relied heavily on using feedback statements as a form of data to measure self-efficacy and found that feedback was given to male and female participants differently. Combining these ideas and exploring if and how mentorship and feedback are given to men and women differently and as a result, impact self-efficacy differently would be an important contribution to the field.

Lastly, more research needs to be conducted on the experiences of men and other under-studied groups in the outdoors. While this current research included men, most themes that emerged centered on the experiences of female participants. And the themes that did emerge about men echoed what had previously been found in the literature, such as challenges created by hypermasculinity (Davies et al., 2019). Conducting a similar study with only male participants would allow for a more nuanced look at their experiences, which may illuminate factors that influence self-efficacy beyond stereotypical gender differences. Finally, because of participants' self-identification, this research focused exclusively on men and women. However, many people exist outside of that gender binary, and their experiences are both more nuanced and understudied, especially in the context of outdoor leadership.

Conclusion

As both a researcher and an outdoor practitioner, I believe this study has vast implications for the field of outdoor leadership. While my positionality was removed from the research process, I was initially interested in this topic to better understand how gender influenced the self-efficacy of the students I am currently training to become

outdoor leaders. And the results of this study that (a) participants had the highest self-efficacy with gender role congruent behaviors, (b) self-efficacy appear in different amounts and forms for men than for women, and (c) self-efficacy is impacted by both experience and engrained perceptions of gender roles, have the potential to shape how future outdoor leaders are trained.

As previously discussed, gender is commonly studied in outdoor literature. However, few studies have been conducted on the connection between gender role congruence and self-efficacy, and no other known study has examined this topic in an outdoor context, using the same robust design as this current research. Specifically, the use of reflective drawings provided a unique insight into the visualization of leadership. These drawings, and other methods from this study, such as feedback analysis, have the potential to be used as training tools for future practitioners to facilitate learning on self-perception and self-efficacy. Overall, this research on how gender influences the self-efficacy of outdoor leaders can foster a more inclusive and supportive outdoor industry.

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APPENDIX A

Recruitment Email Script

Hello (insert name),

As part of Audrey Krimm's master's program, she is conducting research on gender role congruence and self-efficacy of emerging outdoor leaders. That sentence is a mouthful, so in simpler terms she is interested in what (if any) relationship exists between the gendered expectations of outdoor leadership and the feelings of confidence one has as an outdoor leader.
And as someone who is participating on OLS, she is inviting you to consider being part of this research.

The attached informed consent form goes into greater detail, but briefly, participation in this study will involve two rounds of interviews (each less than 30 minutes) and the completion of both the Outdoor Recreation Self-Efficacy Scale and two reflective drawings. Additionally, observations will be conducted during OLS (but will involve no extra work or actions on your part during those nine days).

Your decision to participate in this research is entirely voluntary and is not affiliated with your participation on OLS or your position as a trip leader. You can decide not to participate without adversely affecting your relationship with Audrey, Outdoor Adventures, and/or the University. Additionally, your decision will have no effect on your employment as a trip leader or training experience/feedback during OLS, and if you choose to participate, results collected via observations, interviews, drawings, or surveys will in no way be used to evaluate your performance as an OA leader.

Should you decide to consent to this research project, your name will be removed from all data and you will not be referred to by name in any published materials or in any presentations.

If you are interested in participating in this research, please review the attached informed consent document and either print and scan or provide your digital signature, save it to your computer, and send it to Audrey's Academic Advisor, Dr. Lindsay Hastings, as an attachment at lhastings2@unl.edu.

Please direct any questions to myself (Dr. Hastings) about this research or what participating will involve

Thank you in advance for considering

APPENDIX B

Informed Consent Form

IRB Project ID #: 21305

Gender Role Congruence and Self-Efficacy of Emerging Outdoor Leaders

As part of Audrey Krimm's master's program at the University of Nebraska, Lincoln, she is conducting research on the relationship between gender role congruence and self-efficacy of emerging outdoor leaders. And as a participant on the Outdoor Leadership Seminar (OLS), you have the opportunity to participate in this research.

Participation in this study will involve two rounds of interviews, one occurring before and one occurring after OLS, as well as the completion of both the Outdoor Recreation Self-Efficacy Scale and two reflective drawings. Additionally, observations will be conducted during OLS, but no additional actions need to be taken by you during the training. Outside of OLS, participation in this study will require no more than 1.5 hours of your time.

There are no direct benefits to you for participating in this project, other than the benefit you derive from a self-reflective process. However, results of this research will contribute to the field of outdoor leadership and the experiences of future trip leaders at Outdoor Adventures. There are no known risks that may result from participating.

Results of this assessment will be presented in a master's thesis and information from this study may be published in scientific journals or presented at scientific meetings and may be reported individually, or as a group of summarized data. However, your identity will be kept strictly confidential. Reasonable steps will be taken to protect the privacy and the confidentiality of your study data; however, in some circumstances the researcher cannot guarantee absolute privacy and/or confidentality. Your name will be removed from all data, including observations, interview and survey responses, and drawings, and you will not be referred to by name in any published materials or in any presentations. In some cases, identifiers might be removed from the identifiable private information and after such removal, the information could be used for future research studies or distributed to another investigator for future research studies without additional informed consent from the subject.

Your participation in this research is completely voluntary and is not affiliated with your participation in OLS. You can decide not to participate, or you can stop being in this research study ("withdraw') at any time before, during, or after the research begins for any reason without adversely affecting your relationship with the Audrey, Outdoor Adventures, or the University of Nebraska. If you choose to participate, during the research process you may also refuse to answer any questions you are uncomfortable answering. Should you decide to participate, results collected via observations, interviews, drawings, or surveys will in no way be used to evaluate your performance as

an OA leader. To ensure this, not only will results in no way be shared, but all leadership level decisions at Outdoor Adventures do and will continue to occur through joint decision making, with the approval of Jordan (the Assistant Director), so any results from this research will not positively or negatively impact your employment.

You may ask any questions concerning this research and have those questions answered before agreeing to participate in or during the study. Please direct any questions Audrey's research advisor, Dr. Hastings, who's contact information can be found below**.** If you have any questions about your rights as a research participant that have not been answered or to report any concerns about the study, you may contact the University of Nebraska---Lincoln Institutional Review Board at (402) 472-6965 or irb@unl.edu. You may request a copy of this consent form to keep and a copy of the consent will be provided.

Sincerely,

Dr. Lindsay Hastings
lhastings2@unl.edu

Participant Feedback Survey:
The University of Nebraska-Lincoln wants to know about your research experience. This 14-question, multiple-choice survey is anonymous. This survey should be completed after your participation in this research. Please complete this optional online survey at: http://bit.ly/UNLresearchfeedback.

You are voluntarily making a decision whether or not to be in this research study. Signing this form means that (1)you have read and understood this consent form, (2) you have had the consent form explained to you, (3) you have had your questions answered and (4)you have decided to be in the research study.

Your Name (please print):_____

Signature:_____Date:_____

APPENDIX C

Outdoor Recreation Self-Efficacy Scale

Please rate the following prompts on a scale of not at all true (0) to very true (10):

Factor 1: Enjoyment / Accomplishment - 10 Items

When I do outdoor recreation activities ...

I have a good time	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
I get excited	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
I have fun	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
I feel energized	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
I am really involved in what I am doing	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
I have a sense of enjoyment	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
I feel a sense of accomplishment	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
I feel a sense of achievement	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
I feel a sense of challenge	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
I am able to choose the activity	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

Factor 2: Skills / Competence – 7 Items

When I do outdoor recreation activities ...

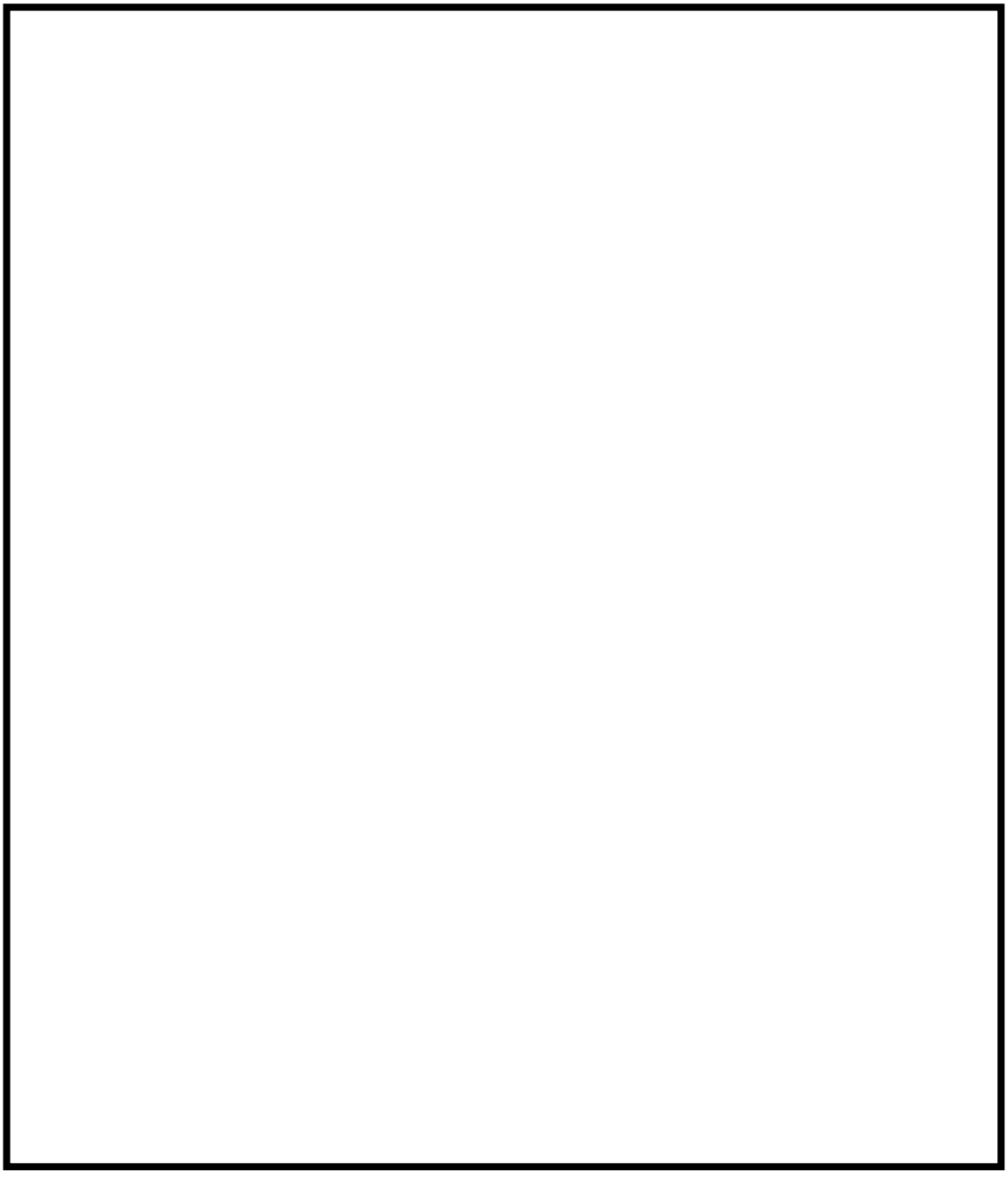
I feel competent	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
I feel skilled	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
I feel confident	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
I feel capable	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
I feel that I am successful	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
I feel adequate	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
I believe I can succeed	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

APPENDIX D

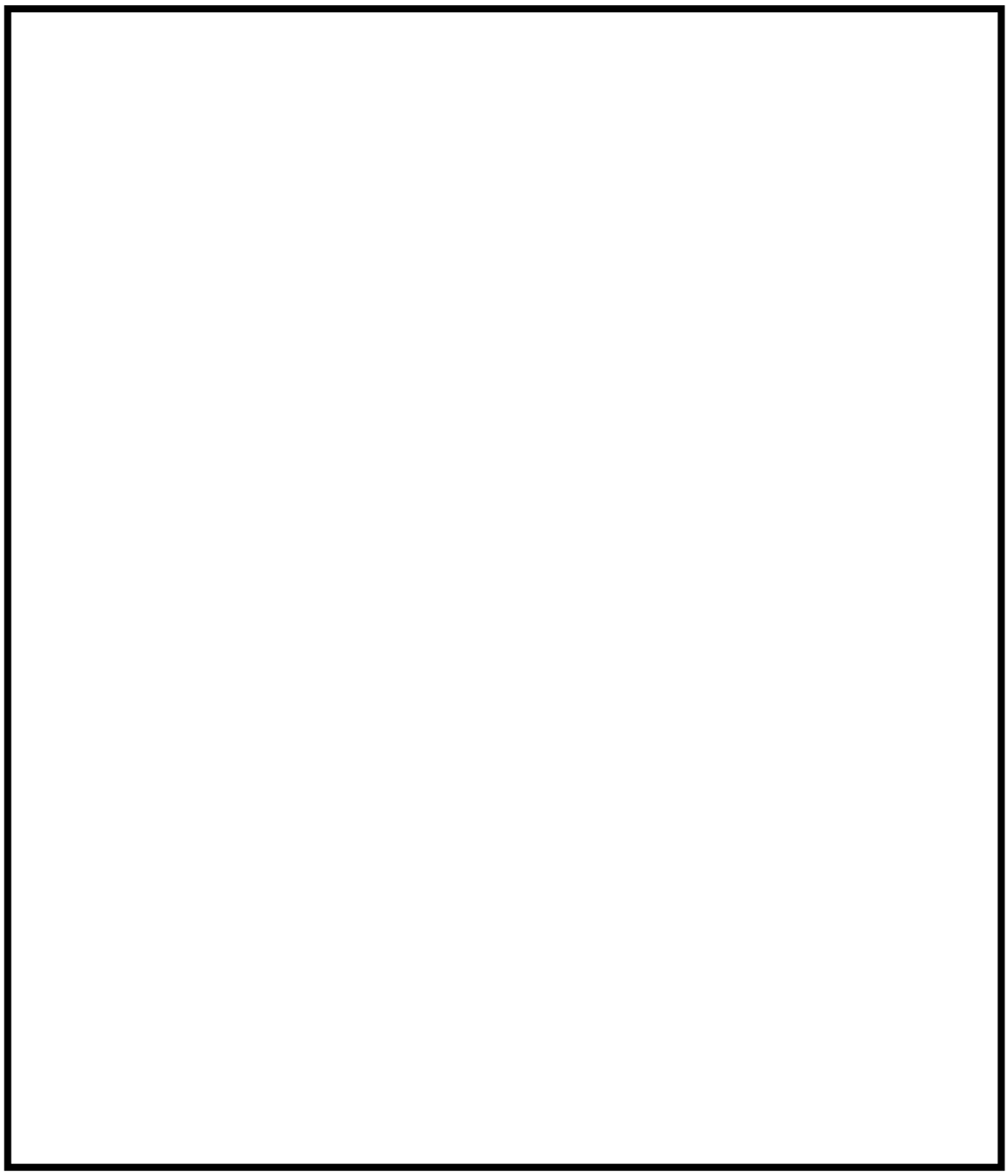
Reflective Drawing Prompts

On the following pages, you will be asked to complete two drawings. How you interpret the prompts and the level of detail you include is up to you. You will have the opportunity to explain your drawings during an interview.

Reflective Drawing #1: Please draw a "typical" outdoor leader.



Reflective Drawing #2: Please draw a self-portrait of yourself leading outside.



APPENDIX E

Interview Questions

1. What aspects of outdoor leadership do you feel most confident in? What aspects do you feel least confident in? *(Prompting follow-up: think about tasks that need to happen on a trip, such as teaching, logistical planning, facilitating conversation, driving the trailer, demonstrating technical skills, etc.)*

2. How would you describe your gender identity? For example, would you describe yourself as male, female, non-binary, etc.

3. Do you believe your gender identity influences your overall experience as an outdoor leader? If so, how? If not, why not?

4. Do you believe your gender identity influences your confidence as an outdoor leader? If so, how? If not, why not?

5. Did you make any observations about the relationship between gender and confidence on OLS? If so, what were they? *(Prompting follow-up: What was the impact of that relationship?)*

6. What did you see as the role of feedback on OLS?

7. I asked you to complete three drawings, two before, and one during the trip. Can you explain what you drew? *(Prompting follow-up: What, if any, differences are there between the two drawings? Why are they different? Why did you second drawing change?)*

8. Is there anything else you would like to add?

APPENDIX F

Observational Data Organization

Category	Participant 1	Participant 2
Female RCB (self)		
Female RCB (co)		
Female RCB (group)		
Female RCB (general)		
Female RCB total		
Male RCB (self)		
Male RCB (co)		
Male RCB (group)		
Male RCB (general)		
Male RCB total		
RCB total		
HSE (self)		
HSE (co)		
HSE (group)		
HSE (general)		
HSE total		
LSE (self)		
LSE (co)		
LSE (group)		
LSE (general)		
LSE total		
Self Efficacy total		

Note: The actual data organization included columns for each of the eight participants

APPENDIX G

Mixed Methods Data Organization

Self-Efficacy Bracket	Low		Low-Mid		Mid-High		High	
Participant #								
ORSE Scale Score								
HSE Self-Feedback								
Total HSE Feedback								
LSE Self-Feedback								
Total LSE Feedback								
Total Gendered Feedback								
FRCB Feedback								
% total								
MRCB Feedback								
% total								

Note. Abbreviations: High self-efficacy (HSE), low self-efficacy (LSE), female role congruent behaviors (FRCB), male role congruent behaviors (MRCB).