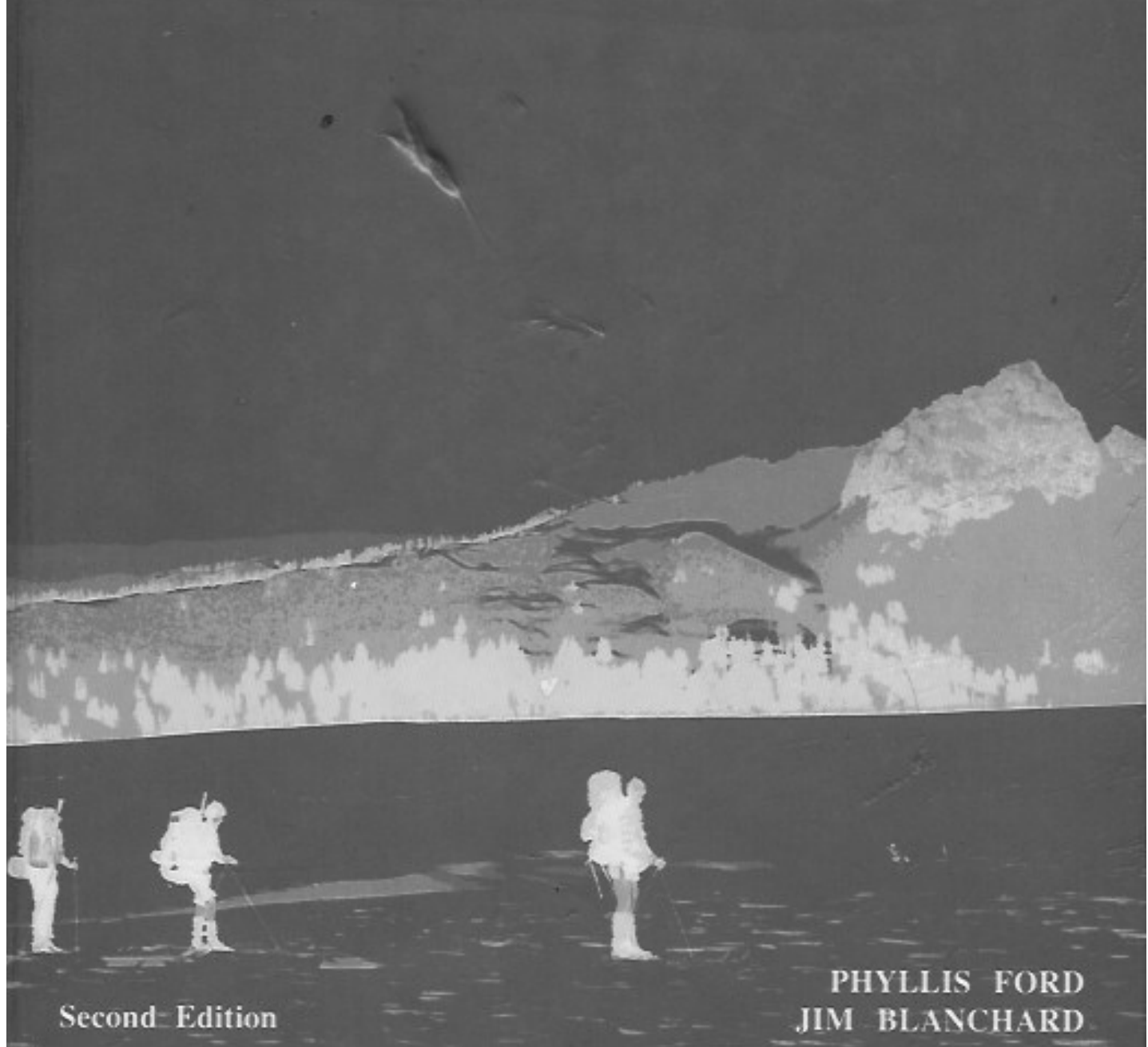# LEADERSHIP AND ADMINISTRATION

OF

OUTDOOR PURSUITS

Second Edition

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OUTDOOR PURSUITS LEADERSHIP

Throughout this book, emphasis has been placed on safety and care of the natural environment, and on those who use it for recreational or educational experiences. Understanding the natural environment and the needs of those who use it, coupled with skills and knowledge specific to the outdoor leader, leads to the topic of actual leadership in outdoor pursuits. It is extremely important that those aspiring to become leaders of participants in outdoor activities know and understand the material in Part I, "Background" and Part II, "Skills and Knowledge Specific to the Outdoor Leader" of this book. Only after that should one attempt to implement the material in the final two sections.

What is a leader? How does one become a leader? What makes some people leaders in title only, while others become leaders without officially sanctioned authority? This topic has filled many books and given rise to many theories, models, and studies. In this chapter, the relevance of modern leadership theory to outdoor pursuits will be discussed. "Leader" is defined here as one who influences the behavior of others and helps them reach their common goals and objectives. The leader may direct or guide people into action with a resulting change or improvement in knowledge, skill, or attitude.

Being a Follower

One of the first exercises in becoming a leader is to serve as a follower and analyze the components of leadership from that standpoint. In a theoretical sense, one can do that by participating in the following exercise.

Imagine yourself signing up for an outdoor-pursuit exercise. It does not matter what the activity is or where it will take place as long as you envision an experience that will hold the potential for a degree of enjoyment, excitement, challenge, and/or adventure. Since the idea is to put yourself in the place of the typical participant or student, you may want to think about some activity with which you are not familiar or that tends to be intimidating to you. If your forte is not fast-water canoeing, imagine you have just signed up for a three-day river trip. If you are an ice climber, imagine a trip to the desert or vice versa. If you are really set on imagining your own favorite pastime, imagine signing up for a very advanced lesson or clinic.

Now try to imagine what expectations you would have for the imaginary leader of your program. If you have been a leader or teacher for many years, it may be difficult to imagine a role reversal. If you are unable to put yourself into the position (imaginary or real) of being a follower (particularly one of your own followers), you may not have what it takes to be a good leader.

What would you expect of your leader? Of the total experience? Can you generate a list of your expectations? First, you probably expect the individual to be friendly, reasonably easy to get along with, and interested in, even excited about, the program. Of no less importance is the maturity and evident good sense of the person. These qualities are often considered the primary criteria for leadership of any sort; however, they are extremely difficult to assess. What else do you have a right to expect? You should expect the person to have a good basic understanding of the terrain, the weather, and the potential hazards of the locale chosen for the activity. You should also expect the leader to be sufficiently concerned about, and aware of, environmental issues and accepted practices to minimize your group's impact on the land and water. Certainly, you expect your leader to understand basic human physical and psychological needs, and to know how to meet these needs in the environment and context of your activity.

You also should expect high levels of knowledge, skill, and experience in the activity, plus familiarity with *backcountry first aid* and *search and rescue* or other appropriate skills so that he/she can handle any reasonably foreseen emergency. You should expect competence in the ability to apply a knowledge of the six other topics covered thus far in this book (i.e., *resources for outdoor pursuits, the natural environment, care of the natural environment, human needs, survival, and navigation*). You may expect to retain much personal responsibility for what happens to you on the trip. Or you may expect that the leader will take full responsibility for all aspects of the trip, including navigating, preparing meals, putting up the tent, preparing the latrine, and anything else that can be done for you. In either case, you want the leader to be a competent and up-to-date professional of the activity.

You have a right to certain expectations in at least two other areas. The leader should be willing and able to *control* and *lead (or teach)* the group adequately. This expectation cannot be assured by the satisfaction of any or all of the foregoing qualities.

Does the foregoing list mean that you, as a leader, need to anticipate and to meet all of these expectations? The general answer is, of course, yes. Generally, the expectations you imagined above are probably the same as the expectations of both adults and parents whose children you may lead. To some extent, the leader is controlled by the hopes of people served. If the expectations of the followers are not met, there may be dissatisfaction and accompanying participant dropout, or, in serious cases, substantial liability and risk of litigation. The imagined situation is a good one for understanding how you might feel as a participant.

Following—
The Participant

Obviously, in all leadership situations, there must be followers. Thus, before analyzing leadership and the outdoor leader's characteristics, it is best to understand the people who seek the organized outdoor pursuit experience. Initially, the leader should recognize the fact that outdoor participants are *groups* of people bound by the constraints of time (pre-trip, trip, and post-trip) and by space (the location of the event).

The group will develop an identification as "members," a sense of purpose, a pattern of interaction, and some commonly agreed-upon system of order. Members of outdoor-pursuit groups are members of *social* groups and interact accordingly. They call each other by their first names, and they derive much of their satisfaction from group interaction, including talking, eating, and sharing the exigencies of the outdoor environment. They are aware of being group members and identify with the group by cohesiveness in working together, a sense of shared purpose, and a need for, and acceptance of, others in the group.

An outdoor group may be a *primary* group such as a family, but it is probably more often a *secondary* group. A *primary* group is a lasting group that shares personalities and emotional character, while a *secondary* group is usually one that meets for a short time only and allows one to achieve, to gain recognition, to meet basic social needs, and to polish one's behavior as it relates to the activity. An outdoor pursuit activity may consist of several primary groups (i.e., several families meeting as a secondary

group), or it may consist of just a secondary group made up of students or members of a community who did not know each other prior to the outdoor experience. Behaviors in primary groups, where people know each other and live or work together over a long period of time, differ from behaviors in secondary groups, where people meet for only a few days or weeks.

Properties of Groups

Sessoms and Stevenson (1981) have identified nine properties of groups that may be explained in terms of outdoor pursuits as follows:

Purpose

The main purpose of the outdoor pursuit group is usually the same as that of the sponsoring agency. All members of the group are there to accomplish the same end. Common purposes may be: to climb Baldtop Mountain, to learn to cross-country ski, to travel 100 miles by canoe, or to explore Limestone Cave. Such goals are self-evident. There are also, however, three tacit goals for all outdoor pursuit groups. They may not be verbalized; however, they are of greater importance, in the long run, than destination goals. Theoretically, for all outdoor experiences, these should be the main goals of the group *and* the leader. They are: to return unharmed, to maintain the environment in its natural condition, and to have an enjoyable, or at least personally rewarding, experience.

Tone or Social Atmosphere

The group as a whole will have an identifiable social atmosphere. It may be up to the leader to set the tone so that the group is optimistic, careful, friendly, and supportive of each other. A hostile, careless, disgruntled, or frightened member can "set the tone" for the entire group. In such cases, the leader may need to intervene to create a positive atmosphere.

Cohesion

The tone of the group may well be influenced by group cohesion. If the group is divided on what route to follow, what action to take, whether to go on or to turn back, or even which menu to follow, cohesion may be lacking and this can lead to a breakdown in the social atmosphere. The leader must have the ability to maintain a cohesive group.

Organizational Structure

Some groups are organized on a formal basis, as in a classroom, while others are informally organized, as in a discussion group. The organizational structure of an outdoor-pursuit group may vary within one event or may be entirely formal or informal. The group needs to know who is in charge, what is the positional hierarchy, and when formal or informal procedures will occur. Formal organization is needed when a lot of beginners participate in an overnight cross-country skiing trip, but the organization will be less formal during the evening meal and maybe on the trip home. Lessons, activities performed in high-risk situations, and events involving young children are usually formally organized.

Patterns of Communication

Every group develops a system for receiving and sending messages consisting of specialized vocabulary, body language, and facial expressions. Outdoor pursuit groups have their own unique communication systems. Such terms as "high-tech gear," "skid lid," "60/40," "polypro," "Class III," "on belay," and many others are included. Hikers and river runners alike can understand body and hand language that indicates cold, heat, rain, sleep, fatigue, etc. The participant who is new to the experience actually has a language barrier until the special communication patterns of outdoor pursuit enthusiasts is mastered.

Patterns of Interaction

Watch any group and interaction patterns will become evident. Who speaks to whom? Who speaks the most? How are responses made? Who seems to have seniority? Who never speaks? These are patterns of interaction. A good leader should not monopolize the discussion, and should try to involve everyone (but not to force those who are by nature and/or

preference reticent). A functional social group usually has a fairly evenly distributed level of interaction.

Procedures

Groups have definite ways of getting things done. How is the raft packed each day? What goes in first? Last? Who packs what? How is the site of the fire returned to its natural state? Who leads on the trail? For how long? Such patterns are identifiable characteristics of all outdoor groups.

Internal Commitment

All members of the group may not be equally committed to the goal of the event. Some individuals may not really care if the summit is reached, and some may be terribly disappointed and get angry at a leader who turns back in deference to group safety. The leader has the unenviable responsibility of trying to unify commitment even if it means changing the goals. In some cases, the group itself may be involved in setting or modifying these, and commitment may be more unified than if the leader makes an arbitrary, automatic suggestion.

Group History

Each group may be made up of some individuals with a history of similar experiences together, some with similar experiences as members of several different groups, and some with no similar background. Individuals who have traveled together before may exhibit certain behavior and patterns of interaction that preclude socialization with others new to the group. The group made up of participants who have no group history may be the easiest to lead once procedures are defined. The group with a long history together may be the next easiest to lead (although not always), and the mixed group may challenge the leader to achieve a new goal—bringing old and new members into a cohesive unit.

These nine properties give each group its own special identity. No two groups exhibit identical characteristics, and understanding these properties helps the leader to mold his/her style to meet the needs of the followers.

Reasons for Following

Why do some people never want to be leaders while others never sign up with a group with a designated leader, preferring to join a group of common adventurers where the leadership may be shared or everyone may be an autonomous individual? Why do some participants enroll in outdoor pursuit activities with the desire to develop skills that will ultimately lead to leadership positions? And why are some groups made up of individuals who are paying for a leader who will assume all the responsibilities of the trip so they will not have to be leaders? Sessoms and Stevenson (1981) have proposed three answers to these questions: *efficiency, satisfaction,* and *experience.*

Efficiency means that individuals want leaders when they are involved in situations where they are unwilling to undertake certain responsibilities themselves and find it easier to be followers. Many individuals discover that the most efficient and effective way of achieving their goals is through delegating responsibility for that achievement to someone else—the leader. In the outdoors, this reason for being a follower is particularly relevant. If one wishes to climb a mountain or run a river for the first time, it is much easier to achieve that goal by following a leader who knows the route than to chart all potential routes and head forth without firsthand knowledge of what lies ahead. Many people would find the achievement of outdoor goals so difficult without a leader that the activities would never get started in the first place.

Satisfaction refers to the fact that if people are already followers and are satisfied with the way things are going, they tend to continue to follow the current leader. In many outdoor situations where participants could take minor leadership roles (i.e., preparation of meals, teaching others how to pitch a tent, demonstrating simple skills), they prefer to continue to be followers because they are completely at ease and satisfied with the leader's style and accomplishments. In some cases, participants are leaders of significance in their own vocations or homes and are seeking a change where someone else can

assume the leadership in their lives. They find it very satisfying for someone else to be the leader while they relax as vacationing followers.

Experience means that many people have not had the experience of being a leader; thus, they remain as followers. Many people are comfortable and secure in the familiar role of follower. The idea of becoming a first-time leader brings a fear of the unknown which is overcome easily by reverting to this familiar role.

Thus, many people are followers because it is efficient, satisfying, and/or comfortable. That is not to say, however, that everyone wants to be a follower. You, the readers of this book, probably aspire to become leaders, and the preceding list of reasons for following should give you a basis for understanding your function as leaders.

Beyond the reasons why individuals follow rather than lead, participants have many reasons for being part of the outdoor pursuit program. Consider the following as a partial list of why they are drawn to the activity:

1. Exploration
2. Self-discovery and self-determination
3. Interest in nature and the environment
4. Relaxation
5. Social relationships
6. Intellectual growth
7. Physical fitness
8. Pleasure
9. Independence
10. Family unity
11. Desire for new skills
12. To reach the destination

Forces Affecting Participants

Inasmuch as the outdoor-pursuit leader is leading people, it is important to understand as much about the participants as possible. While behaviors, reactions, attitudes, or understandings cannot be predicted, it is possible to understand the wide range of forces that have an impact on individuals and groups. Forces that influence people may be obvious, visible, and recognizable *external* forces, or they may be subtle, unspoken, invisible *internal* forces. Sessoms and Stevenson (1981) have discussed the influences of external and internal forces on participants in typical societal settings such as committees, planning sessions, and municipal recreation activities. Their list has been adapted here to demonstrate how external and internal forces affect the outdoor-pursuit participant.

External Forces

Each of the following forces is the same for everyone in the group; however, individual reactions to each may differ considerably. Some possible reactions are listed beside each external force.

1. Time
   a. When will we get there?
   b. What time do we eat?
   c. Why must we get up so early?
   d. I wish today would never end.
2. Space
   a. This tent is too crowded.
   b. You can see forever.
   c. It must be 2,000 feet straight down!
   d. How come they are camping on our lake?
3. Lighting
   a. It's dark out!
   b. What fascinating shadows.
   c. I should have brought my darker sunglasses.
   d. Thank heaven the sun is coming up.
4. Acoustics
   a. Speak up, I can't hear you above the waterfall.
   b. That darn stream won't shut up and let me sleep.
   c. It is so still here I feel peaceful.
   d. It is so still here I feel lonesome.
5. Isolation
   a. I miss my family.
   b. Boy, is it good to be away.
   c. How close is emergency help?
   d. There's nothing out there!
6. Extended time from home
   a. I wonder if they're all right.
   b. Bet my desk is piled high when I return.

6. Extended time from home (cont'd)
   c. What if Henry called and couldn't reach me?
   d. Did I turn off the stove?
7. Food
   a. This is so easy to prepare.
   b. I really don't care for beef stew.
   c. I don't think we've brought enough.
   d. I'm hungry.
8. Primitive toilet facilities
   a. How inconvenient.
   b. What do you do when you are all roped up on a steep glacier?
   c. What do you do on the river?
   d. Is this really private?

The reader can imagine reactions to other external forces. People respond differently to temperature; height; personal privacy (sleeping, dressing); speed; environmental factors such as vast deserts, deep forests, swamps, or snowdrifts; and many other factors. When the myriad external forces that have an impact on all participants and the accompanying potential reactions are analyzed, it can be seen that outdoor leadership entails a great capacity for understanding people.

Internal Forces

Internal forces are factors that represent ideas, biases, feelings, or perceptions held by individuals within the group. Internal forces can affect the dynamics of the group and individual members within it.

1. Group size
   a. Eight is just right.
   b. We need one more strong person.
   c. There are too many people here.
2. Dress
   a. Everyone else has Goretex.
   b. I wish I had boots like those.
   c. I didn't know I'd need a hat.
3. Sex
   a. Too many women...
   b. I wonder if he's married.
   c. There's no privacy.

4. Age
   a. Look at that old guy go!
   b. Kids have no sense.
   c. I'm too old for this group.
5. Skills
   a. I've run this river fifteen times.
   b. I think I can; I think I can.
   c. I never learned to tie a bowline.
6. Physical characteristics
   a. What does he mean, step on those rocks? He's 6'4", and I'm only 5'2"!
   b. Hope my "trick knee" holds out.
   c. I'm small but tough.

The above list of forces exists within every group, and the possible reactions are only a sample. Other, less obvious, internal forces include:

1. *Motivation*—What makes different people participate?
2. *Perceived status*—How does each person view his/her status in the group?
3. *Group norms*—Certain behaviors are "expected" among outdoor participants (for example, minimum-impact camping).
4. *Homogeneity/heterogeneity*—Is the group made up of similar or dissimilar people in regard to age, experience, backgrounds, education, etc.?
5. *Group atmosphere*—A pessimistic atmosphere imparts pessimism to individuals. This group force must be controlled by the leader.
6. *Personal feelings and attitudes*—Some people bring with them openness or prejudice, courage or cowardice, an innate love for the outdoors or a trepidation about insects, reptiles, and even many mammals.

Responsibilities of Group Members

In spite of the fact that all group participants expect guidance and safety from the leader, they are not without responsibilities to themselves and each other. These responsibilities include judging their own personal skills, abilities, and fitness.

Personal Responsibilities

Fitness. The individual who signs up for a trip without the appropriate and/or required physical conditioning and/or skills may be as much at fault for going as the agency or leader is for permitting him/her to go. The person who slows down because of inadequate personal preparation may endanger the entire group and, thus, may contribute to the discomfort, accident, or injury of others.

Knowledge of the Trip, Location, Schedule, Required Skills, and Equipment. The participant who shows up without mandatory equipment should not be permitted to accompany the group. The person who doesn't attend required training meetings should not go either. Failure to bring a correct map or proper footwear; arriving at the departure point late or requesting to leave the group early; bringing a guest or a pet; or carrying firearms, alcoholic beverages, fireworks, hallucinogens, and other prohibited items are all irresponsible acts.

Knowledge of the Leader's Qualifications. It is the participant's responsibility to verify the leader's qualifications, certifications, references, abilities, and reputation. A participant signing up for a wilderness or river trip with someone whose brochure guarantees an exciting trip through fabulous country may get more excitement than he/she desires. Anyone who fails to know more than that about a leader's qualifications may be a contributing factor to his/her own accident or injury if the leader turns out to be unqualified, irresponsible, or incompetent.

Responsibilities to Others in the Group

Leaders should recognize the responsibility of *each individual to the entire group.* Everyone is expected to be on time and not delay the group, to be organized about their own gear, to be neat, and to dress and act "appropriately." Furthermore, each individual is expected not to offend the group through offensive personal habits, bragging, or complaining. It must be recognized, however, that many longtime personal behaviors cannot be changed.

Participant behavior varies depending upon settings. The *individual alone* may exhibit behavior indicative of his/her true personality, but rarely does a leader see a participant as a lone individual. There are several settings in which the individual must react with one other person; the *experience of two* in a mountain tent or a canoe calls for different behavior. The two must tolerate and understand each other's needs, and each should be reasonably neat and organized with their personal possessions and equipment.

Responsibilities of the Group to the Individual

On the other hand, the *group is obligated to the individual.* Even if the majority rules, the needs of each person should be met. Leaders who side with the majority to the detriment of the minority are not acting responsibly. When seven in a group of eight want to press on and one is in pain or exhausted or close to hypothermia, the group should be made to understand why they must change their goal and respect the needs of this individual.

Group-to-Group Responsibilities

Trail and river courtesy dictates privacy, quiet, and overt contact. Slow groups should let faster ones pass, and groups arriving second at camping sites should move away from those who arrived first—regardless of the attributes of a neighboring site. As mentioned in previous chapters, groups have responsibilities for following agency policies and for following minimum-impact camping skills.

Knowing the foregoing material and anticipating a variety of interactive behavior will help the leader relate to each member of the group emphatically and humanistically.

Leader-Follower Relationships

Like communication, leading and following is a two-way street. Without positive relations and interaction from one to another, the leader-follower relationship may break down and dissolve entirely. Edginton and Ford (1985) have

identified a set of eight desirable relationships between leaders and followers. The following examples show how these relate to outdoor pursuits.

Shared Expectations

Some participants may come to the pre-trip meeting expecting the trip to be a guided tour with much of the everyday routine of cooking and cleaning up done by the leader and "assistants." Another may perceive the trip to be completely "roughing it" with a diet of native nuts and berries. The leader's hopes may fall somewhere between these two extremes; but, until the expectations of all are congruent, the chance of a successful trip for anyone is diminished. Expectations must be shared and a consensus reached before any progress can be made in positive relationships.

Trust

In order to produce a satisfying experience, a level of trust must exist between leader and participant. The follower must trust the leader's judgment, and the leader must trust the follower to act according to plan.

Effective Communication

Each leader and follower must develop both speaking and listening skills with opportunity for input and feedback.

Shared Decision Making

In spite of the fact that, on many occasions, the leader must make autocratic decisions for the welfare of the group, sometimes followers can share in the decision-making process during outdoor activities. When to eat, a choice of routes where practical, a choice of activities, and even a determination to turn back or go on can be made by sharing the facts and the risks.

Cooperation

There must be a willingness on the part of the follower to cooperate with the direction given by the leader. By the same token, the leader must be willing to cooperate with the follower so that his/her needs may be met.

Sense of Risk and Spontaneity

Participants appreciate spontaneity because it creates an illusion of freedom and, to some extent, a sense of unpredictability. The leader must, however, share with the group an awareness of true (or existing) and perceived risks. As discussed in Chapter Twelve, risk does not necessarily imply danger. A spontaneous decision on the part of a troop of Girl Scouts, all of whom are strong swimmers, to go skinny-dipping in a mountain lake is "risky" in terms of propriety, but not dangerous if waterfront safety practices are followed. The shared sense of risk and the spontaneity of the situation may bring leader and followers closer together.

Positive Reinforcement

Leaders must encourage followers and usually do so by giving positive reinforcement as the followers progress. Participants, in turn, can reinforce the leader. One says, "You certainly are catching on fast." The other says, "Thanks, I've wanted to learn to do this since I was a little kid."

Social and Emotional Bond

The leader must show interest in each participant in terms of warmth, humor, and understanding. The follower will, in turn, show respect and admiration. Usually, this relationship is initiated by the leader, with the result that participants respond positively and develop a social bond in return.

It is obvious that outdoor leadership and "followership" is strongest when both groups interrelate positively. One cannot expect followers to understand the aforementioned eight interactive relations. Leaders, however, must not only understand them but take steps to initiate them.

The Leader

Having discussed some reasons why people want leaders and what they expect of them, we can now turn to the topic of leadership itself.

How Are Leaders Selected?

Those who become leaders of outdoor pursuits do not all reach their position in the same manner. According to Shivers (1980), there are four possible ways in which leaders attain their positions. These may be related to outdoor situations as follows:

Appointment

Leaders are appointed by a person in a superior position. In recreational and educational settings, they are hired by those with administrative responsibility and assigned specific duties and responsibilities. In volunteer work, they may be selected by a chairperson or council president.

Election

Teams or countries may elect leaders. Outdoor clubs may elect officers, trip chairpersons, climbing coordinators, or river guides. These leaders may be elected because of ability, popularity, or a number of other factors.

Emergence

An emergent leader is one who, while not initially chosen, emerges from the group to assume leadership roles when the "right" (often unpredicted) situation occurs. The quiet follower who takes charge of leading part of the group from a burning forest, the salesperson who directs first aid care before the appointed leader can get to the victim of a landslide, or the teenager who can comfort a peer rapeling for the first time are all leaders who emerge from unusual situations. This type of leader usually assumes that role because he/she possesses and can use special skills, knowledge, or abilities that complement those of the appointed leader in unusual situations.

Charisma

Charisma is an indefinable power to draw others to oneself. Highly attractive, intangible, and often enigmatic qualities combine to create charisma. Because of personal demeanor, the charismatic leader may have a devoted following. In fact, it is because of their charisma that some people are able to become leaders.

None of the above guarantees the selection of the "best" leader or even the most competent. This list merely explains how people become leaders.

Leadership and Power

Many people believe leadership is synonymous with power. In this case, power usually refers to such terms as influence, control, authority, and strength. The outdoor leader actually does exert this force, and a brief discussion of the types of authority he/she may possess is in order. French and Raven (1959) have identified five sources from which power emanates.

Legitimate power is that coming from the assignment of the leadership role to a specific person as well as that derived from laws, regulations, and rules that the leader follows.

Reward power comes from the leader's ability to reward specific behavior. A shoulder patch awarded for the ascent of designated peaks, a first aid certificate, and a scout badge are examples of tangible rewards, while recognition in the form of praise, testimonies, a pat on the back, a thumbs-up signal, or applause are examples of intangible rewards. It is within the leader's authority to offer these rewards.

Coercive power derives its source from the leader's ability to withhold or withdraw a privilege. This type may seem negative, even threatening, and yet it may well be used when safety is the greater issue. "No one will be permitted on this trip without every one of the items of required equipment," or "No raft will proceed until every person aboard is wearing a properly secured life jacket" are examples of acceptable and appropriate use of coercive power, particularly when used along with a proper explanation of the reasons why these things are being required.

Referent power is simply derived from the leader's ability to attract. Charisma is a nebulous, yet forceful, trait that draws people to a certain individual. Some leaders are influential (powerful) by virtue of the "halo" effect and can do no wrong in the eyes of their followers. The wise leader does not let adulation go to his/her head, but tempers it with humbleness and discretion.

Expert power is derived from the fact that the leader was hired due to his/her skill in the particular outdoor pursuit being offered.

The prudent leader understands that these five types of power are tools to be used carefully and responsibly in helping the participant meet his/her own needs. They are not to be used for the self-aggrandizement of the leader.

Role of the Leader

The role of the leader is to guide, to influence, and to direct the participant toward what should be mutually agreed-upon goals compatible with the philosophy and goals of the sponsoring agency. As mentioned several times in this book, the three fundamental goals of outdoor pursuits are: a safe return, care of the natural environment, and an emotionally rewarding experience. Beyond the challenge of helping followers to meet their goals, outdoor leaders may perform the following functions:

1. Help to build group cohesiveness;
2. Help participants to identify and work for goals common to all;
3. Plan the procedures by which group goals can be met;
4. Organize the participants according to their abilities so that the planned procedures can be carried out;
5. Motivate the participants to carry out the plans, energize them, encourage them, and demonstrate behavior conducive to goal attainment;
6. Evaluate the attainment of the goals and the reasons for nonattainment;
7. Serve as spokesperson for the group, represent the group and the sponsoring agency (especially in times of accident or injury), act as contact with government officials, and compose any official communication;
8. Help participants to learn, grow, and improve in knowledge, skills, and attitudes and encouraging self-development;
9. Serve as the catalyst for establishing group climate or atmosphere.

There may be many more roles for outdoor leaders to play; however, these are role expectations common to all leaders.

Leadership Traits

Many studies done since the early 1900s have postulated that successful leaders have identifiable traits or characteristics, and countless lists of leader traits have been generated. Describing these has some merit in terms of helping prospective leaders understand what followers feel are desirable characteristics. Participation in the exercise at the beginning of this chapter was one way of looking at leadership characteristics. You probably generated your own list in addition to the one recommended.

As a result of a research study in 1978, Buell developed two lists (i.e., personal qualities and leadership qualities) that he felt were necessary for all outdoor leaders. Some of these qualities were:

Personal: poise, cooperation, self-discipline, tolerance, patience, concern for others, neat appearance, fit, dependable, pleasing voice, effective speech, integrity, prompt, self-confidence and enthusiasm.

Leadership: realizes objectives, understands participants, gets along with others, shows resourcefulness, gains confidence, can analyze problems, shows initiative, is well-organized, can adapt, can inspire, observes rules and regulations, cares for equipment, and uses time advantageously.

In 1990, Priest identified seven skills (technical, safety, organizational, environmental, instructional, group management, and problem solving/decision making) and seven attributes (motivational philosophy and interest, physical

fitness, healthy self-concept and ego, awareness and empathy for others, personable traits and behavior, flexible leadership style, and judgment based on experience) that he claimed must be combined to produce an effective leader. In between these two studies are many more that list variations of the traits necessary to being an effective or competent outdoor leader.

You might add many other traits to each list, but having these or others in any combination and quantity does not guarantee a good leader. Unless a person can act holistically, using his/her own unique characteristics appropriately in a wide variety of situations, the possession of any number of traits is of no value. You can always study lists of recommended traits, try to strengthen those you already think you possess and develop those you do not, but always with the realization that it is how the traits and qualities are combined and utilized that defines the leadership ability.

Actually, the leader should acquire a combination of skills, knowledge, and attitudes that can be interfaced with personal characteristics. Figure 10.1 shows how leadership qualifications can be organized into three interrelated components. Each of the components can then contain lists of relevant traits.

Recommended Competencies for Leaders

With the foregoing material in mind, one might well ask the question, "What competencies *should* outdoor leaders possess?" or "What abilities do outdoor leaders need to develop?" The knowledge, skills, and attitudes needed for success as an outdoor leader are not universally agreed upon. In fact, there is no way to substantiate without doubt just what makes up the qualities and qualifications of the adequate leader. They might be described as "best guess."

When the options of professional leaders are collected and analyzed, the average of the high scores of these potential actions becomes the recommended standard. Yet, no one can prove that these highly agreed upon opinions are actually the most accurate answers. They

FIGURE 10.1   Composite of Outdoor Leadership Traits

LEADERSHIP TRAITS

SKILLS
Social Interaction
Supervision
Discussion
Leadership
Outdoor
Group

ATTITUDES
Care for People
Concern for Environment
Regard for Social Priority

KNOWLEDGE
Activities
Nature
People

are purely opinions which become the (best guess) recommended standard. These standards remain in effect until overtaken by new ideas. It is assumed that opinions are gained through experience, objective analysis, or real situation and a reasonably consistent degree of knowledge, skill, and attitude.

Two studies on the competencies needed by outdoor leaders are of particular interest here. By competency, we refer to measurable proficiencies of skill, knowledge, experience, and attitudes in outdoor pursuits. They are all deemed necessary for being qualified as a capable outdoor leader, instructor, supervisor, and/or administrator.

Cousineau, in a 1977 study of outdoor pursuit leaders in Ontario, Canada, found that his 113 respondents agreed that, *in order to be certified* as competent outdoor leaders, each should be examined in the following areas of competence:

1. Recognized level of achievement in specific outdoor skills such as canoe tripping, rock climbing, sailing, orienteering, caving, winter camping, cross-country skiing, whitewater canoeing, and kayaking;
2. Successful completion of courses and workshops in outdoor skills;
3. Experience as a participant and leader in outdoor pursuits;
4. Desirable personality traits for outdoor leadership;
5. Establishment of a minimum age;
6. Physical fitness and health (judged essential);
7. Skill in wilderness first aid, lifesaving, and rescue techniques;
8. Skill in aquatic lifesaving.

In 1981, Swiderski conducted a survey of outdoor leaders in five western regions of the United States Forest Service to determine opinions on the importance of fifty land-based outdoor leadership skills. Analysis of the data from his 148 respondents indicated that there were six competencies which appeared among the top ten in all five of the western regions. These six competencies were:

1. Exercise good judgment and common sense while performing duties as a leader under stress and pressure.
2. Handle situations which pose potential safety problems.
3. Foresee and be prepared for situations in which problems and accidents might occur.
4. Prevent illness or injury, but, if either occurs, recognize and apply proper procedures and controls to stabilize or improve the ill or injured person's condition.
5. Teach causes, prevention, symptoms, and physiological effects of environmentally related injuries and illness which may include, but not be limited to, hypothermia, frostbite, heat exhaustion, heatstroke, high altitude, and fluid intake.
6. Follow a personal ethic, which displays sensitivity and concern for the wilderness, reflected in everyday practices and consistent with accepted and sound environmental values.

What Cousineau's and Swiderski's studies tell us is that outdoor leaders can agree upon the competencies they see as necessary in all outdoor leaders. Their opinions should be heeded, for who can assess the needed qualifications for outdoor leadership better than outdoor leaders themselves? Swiderski's study, though, tells us that, while there may be an identifiable core of competencies that should be mandatory for all, leaders in different areas of western portions of the United States do not agree on all competencies. It may be concluded from Swiderski's study that, beyond the fact that some competencies can be agreed upon by the majority, some competencies are so regionally specific because of terrain, weather, climate, resource base, or other reasons that there are significant differences in how the competencies are evaluated from region to region.

This gives the outdoor leader a challenge. What are the *minimum* competencies for his/her region and what *additional* competencies are recommended? It behooves the leader in each part of the world to develop competencies beyond those suggested here.
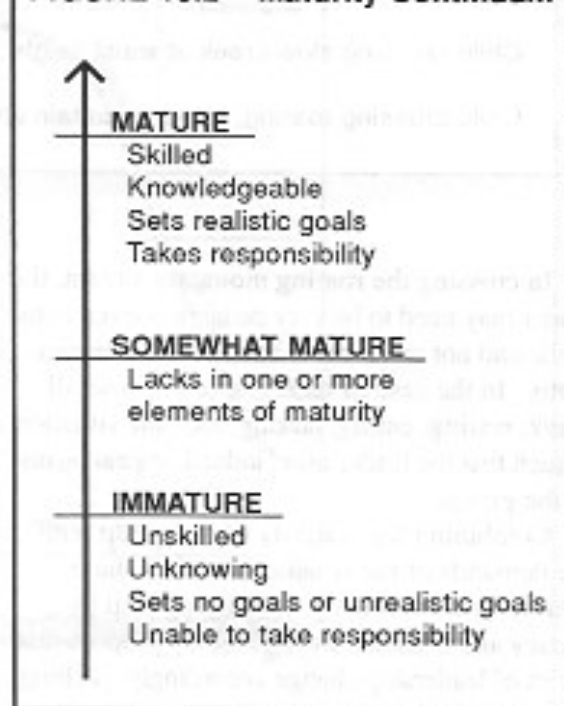
Leadership Styles

Two logical questions at this point are: "How does leadership work?" and "What works in one situation and not in another?" More relevant, perhaps, is the question: "What works in outdoor pursuits?" Basically styles of leading may be listed as laissez-faire (letting others do it), democratic (sharing), and autocratic (assuming all responsibility). When should each style be used? The following discussion addresses several leadership models which, in turn, explain the changing styles of the leader.

The literature on leadership contains at least eleven explanations of the role and function of leadership (Edginton and Ford, 1985), ranging from the very simple to the complex combination of several simple functions. The authors of this book believe that the tri-dimensional model developed by Hersey and Blanchard (1988) relates best to the styles of leadership needed in outdoor pursuits. The "tri-dimensional leadership effectiveness model" is based upon two previously recommended ones. The Ohio State study defines leadership as a continuum between processes that are concerned with human relations in the accomplishment of a task. The Reddin model suggests that certain styles are effective at times and ineffective at other times. Hersey and Blanchard tell us that, in the continuum between human relationships and the accomplishment of tasks, one's leadership style will vary according to two variables: the *level of maturity* of the group of followers and the *demands of the situation*. They propose that *the leader should determine his/her style of leadership after diagnosing the maturity of the group and the demands of the situation*. This leadership model is particularly relevant to the leader of outdoor pursuits, as will be explained.

Maturity, according to Hersey and Blanchard, occurs on a continuum that is not necessarily related to age. A mature group member in an outdoor pursuit has considerable experience and education relative to the tasks to be performed, is capable of setting high but attainable goals, and possesses the willingness and ability to take responsibility. Immature group members lack *all* of those characteristics, while those on the continuum between the extremes lack some characteristics. Figure 10.2 shows this maturity continuum expressed vertically.

FIGURE 10.2   Maturity Continuum

MATURE
Skilled
Knowledgeable
Sets realistic goals
Takes responsibility

SOMEWHAT MATURE
Lacks in one or more elements of maturity

IMMATURE
Unskilled
Unknowing
Sets no goals or unrealistic goals
Unable to take responsibility

A group of well-trained, experienced Eagle Scouts may be more mature as outdoor-pursuit followers than a group of parents who are novices—even though the parents may be assumed to be mature in other areas. The parents, because of lack of skill and knowledge, may not set attainable goals, and may lack the ability to be responsible for their own welfare. A group of very young beginners would probably lack skills, realistic goal-setting abilities, and a degree of personal responsibility. They may "feel" they can raft for eight hours on an unknown river; however, in actuality, if they do, they probably will experience the need to call for help. They cannot take responsibility for their choices and actions.

The demands of the situation relate to the task to be accomplished. In outdoor pursuits, the situation may range from formal to informal, tense to relaxed, dangerous to safe. It may demand a great amount of leader control or little or no control. Figure 10.3 (page 196) explains this.

FIGURE 10.3   Demands of the Situation

SITUATION	LEADER CONTROL NEEDED
Child dabbling feet in small creek	No leader control
Child crossing slow creek at waist height	Some leader control
Child crossing roaring, steep mountain stream	Complete leader control

In crossing the roaring mountain stream, the leader may need to be very pedantic—even autocratic and not on an equal basis with the participants. In the case of dabbling feet in a small creek, resting, eating, talking, etc., the situation is such that the leader may, indeed, appear as one of the group.

Combining the maturity of the group with the demands of the situation, we find the tridimensional leadership model proposed by Hersey and Blanchard wherein they propose that styles of leadership change accordingly. Telling, selling, participating, and delegating are the styles of leadership they define as the two continua of maturity and situation overlap. Figure 10.4 portrays this model.

In the case of the leader teaching "beginning rock climbing," the style would be pedantic, direct, and even autocratic (*telling*). In a situation where the participants are somewhat or very well-skilled and the leader tries to convince them of the necessity for carrying the correct type and amount of food, we find the technique is *selling*. If the leader wants a close relationship with participants and the task to be performed requires little direction (i.e., cooking dinner with skilled adult participants), this component is *participating*. Or the task to be accomplished is minimal, as is the need for leader intervention (gathering kindling, group singing, picking berries, or dabbling feet in the creek), and the technique to use is *delegating*.

With a mature group, picking berries can be delegated entirely; however, with youth, who may get disoriented and become lost, some leadership is necessary. Whether it be telling, selling, or participating will depend upon the group maturity and the environmental situation. Thus, we see that the style of leadership depends upon the maturity of the group and the demands of the situation, as is explained below.

High Task Orientation, Low Relationship (with Followers). When teaching complex skills, such as rappeling or raft guiding, to beginners, the leader must explain the necessity of wearing helmets or completely fastened life jackets. Here, the leader's style is one of organizing, directing, telling, evaluating, initiating, and finalizing. The situation is demanding; the maturity level is low; and the leader has a very impersonal relationship with the group.

High Task Orientation, High Relationship. The leader here is concerned with a very important task to be accomplished, such as planning nutritious meals, but, because of the skill, knowledge and responsibility of the group, the leader works *with* them, not *for* them. The leader may participate, interact, motivate, suggest, or integrate, and consequently serve as an enabler with this advanced group.

High Relationship, Low Task. In this case, the leader *participates* in the preparation of the evening meal with an experienced group through techniques involving trust, listening, acceptance, advice, and encouragement. He/she relates to everyone as an equal in a situation when no one really cares if the soup boils over.

Low Relationship, Low Task. In this case, neither the accomplishment of the task, nor the strength of the leader's influence is important.

FIGURE 10.4   Situational Leadership
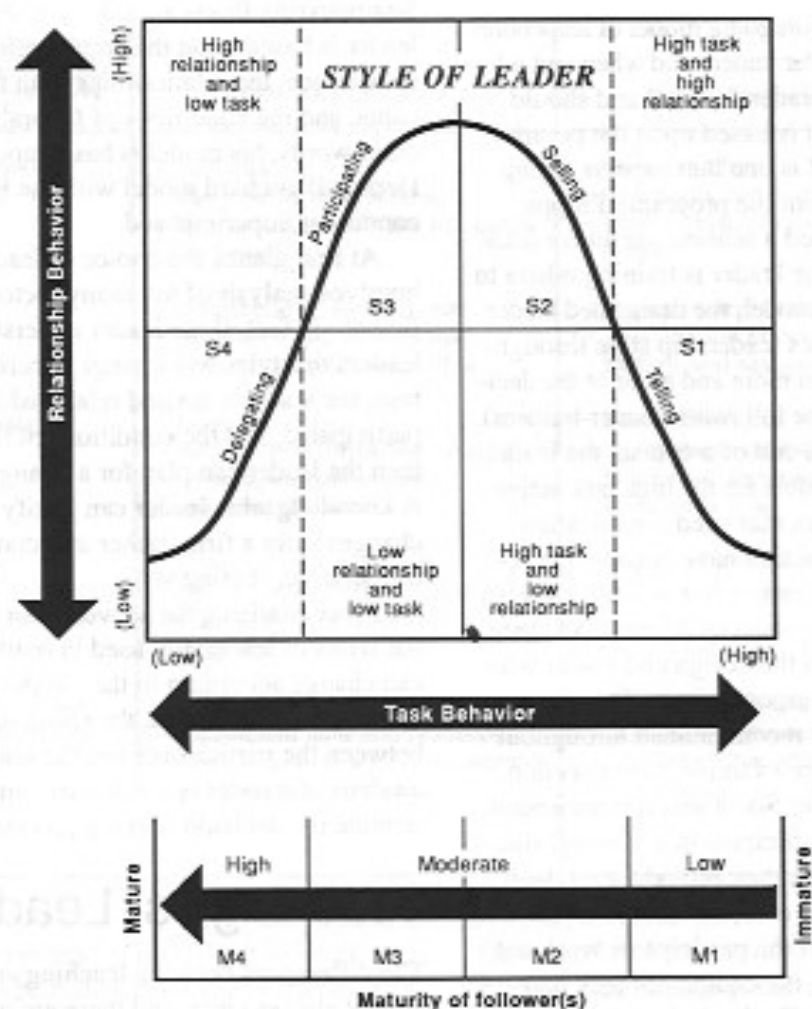
(Source: Hersey, P., and Blanchard, K.H., (1977) *Management of Organizational Behavior: Utilizing Human Resources* (3d ed.)©, p. 170. Reprinted by permission of Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, NJ)

When picking berries recreationally, the leader may just set out some time and area limitations, then sit back and wait for the task to be accomplished.

Superimposing situational demands over the continuum of maturity tells us that the leader's *style* will change depending upon the *task/relationship* orientation as well as *group maturity*.

To further illustrate the four dimensions above, assume a group of adults is starting their first whitewater rafting class or winter mountaineering excursion. As a whole, the group's

knowledge, skills, and ability to take responsibility for themselves is very limited or lacking (immature), and safety is a prime concern of the leader who would use a directive task-oriented approach with little interaction with the learners. The leadership style would change to the point where it might even be participative as the learners become as adept as their leader.

Implementation of the Hersey-Blanchard Model

Understanding the foregoing model of leadership style can help a leader understand when and why different styles of leadership will and should change. The model is based upon the premise that the group itself is one that expects strong leadership throughout the program. Phipps (1991) has developed a scheme useful for leadership education (the leader is training others to be leaders). In this model, the designated leader purposefully changes leadership style throughout the course so that more and more of the decisions are made by the followers (leader-trainees). For example, by the end of a course, the leader may take no responsible for the high task activities. Those activities that need organization, direction, and instruction have become the responsibilities of the leaders-in-training. Through group dynamics, the trainees discuss and share responsibilities with the designated leader who takes less and less responsibility. This style of leadership has been recommended throughout parts of this text. For example, in the section on survival in Chapter Six, it was recommended that leaders-to-be participate in a survival situation using only what they brought with them on a day trip. In this case, the course leader "stood aside" and let the participants work out their situation using the equipment they had brought with them. The leader's style was "not to lead."

Phipps' model is recommended for situations where the purpose is to train leaders. Strict adherence to the Hersey-Blanchard model is recommended for the situation where the participants expect to follow the leader and thus enroll in the program with that in mind. For situations in between these two extremes, the leader's style should change according to the group expectations and the importance of the task to be accomplished.

By incorporating Fiedler's contingency model into it, Priest (1989) added the element of conditions to the task orientation-relationship model explained above. According to Priest, factors that determine the favorability of conditions include: environmental dangers, individual competence, group unity, leader proficiency, and decision consequences. His spectrum of conditional favorability is shown on Figure 10.5. Summarizing Priest's model, the style of the leader is based upon the combinations of task importance, the relationships with the participants, and the conditions of favorability. In other words, his model is based upon the Hersey-Blanchard model with the Fiedler's conditions superimposed.

At first glance the choice of leadership style involves analysis of too many factors to be efficient. In fact, if the leader understands that leadership styles will change according to the task, the leader's desired relationships with the participants, and the conditions of the situation, then the leader can plan for a change of style. A knowledgeable leader can justify why he/she changes from a firm, rather autocratic style to a cooperative, sharing style.

In summarizing the above, it can be said that the *styles* of leadership used in outdoor pursuits can change according to the: *importance of the task* to be accomplished, the *relationship* desired between the participants and the leader, and *an analysis of a series of conditions* which will determine the decision-making process.

Teaching vs. Leading

The differences between teaching and leading are not always clear, and there are many times when the outdoor leader teaches and the teacher leads. Perhaps it is simplest to define teaching as learning from an instructor and leading as facilitating self-taught learning. Much of this depends upon the experience or maturity of the group and the tasks to be accomplished.

While theories of leadership may be applied broadly to many situations, the *techniques* of leadership usually relate to specific activities in which one person—the leader—organizes, directs, influences, instructs, or otherwise affects the behavior of others—the followers. The techniques utilized by leaders of outdoor pursuits may often be automatic and unacceptable for other types of human effort. Inherent in outdoor pursuits, however, is an element of risk, danger, and even death. Accordingly, an outdoor leader may use firmness, nondemocratic methods, and

FIGURE 10.5   A Spectrum of Conditional Favorability

FACTORS DETERMINING THE FAVORABILITY OF CONDITIONS	LOW FAVORABILITY	HIGH FAVORABILITY
Environmental Dangers	• Bad weather • Many perils and hazards • Mostly subjective risks not easily controlled	• Good weather • Few perils and hazards • Mostly objective risks under human control
Group	• Disintegrated and divided • Distrustful and competitive • Immature and irresponsible	• Cohesive and unified • Trusting and cooperative • Mature and responsible
Individuals	• Novice members • Incompetent, unskilled, unable • Unsure, inexperienced, unknowledgeable	• Expert members • Competent, skilled, able • Confident, experienced, knowledgeable
Leader	• Deficient and incapable • Lacks power base for credibility • Poor judgment, stressed out, fatigued	• Proficient and capable • Holds strong power base for credibility • Sound judgment, in control, fit
Consequences of the Decision	• Problem cloudy and uncertain • Insufficient time and resources • Challenge high with unacceptable outcomes	• Problem clear and defined • Sufficient time and recources • Challenge low with acceptable outcomes

unilateral decisions. It is difficult to know at what point to be firm and autocratic, particularly since most leadership training programs emphasize group dynamics and leadership by consensus. Before discussing how the leader arrives at decisions, then, it may be wise to examine the inherently different expectations that mature and immature people have for the leaders of their programs.

Teacher-Directed vs. Self-Directed Programs

Many, if not most outdoor pursuit programs consist of adult participants, and it is known that adults learn differently from children. Adult may be defined as a "mature, *self-directing individual.*" This means that adults do not always need the teacher-directed programs of youth. Remembering that leadership style varies with

the *maturity* of the group, it seems that there must be a difference in the way immature and mature participants learn. These differences are summed up in the following four points adapted from Edginton and Ford's *Leadership of Recreation and Leisure Service Organizations:*

1. The immature are dependent learners. As individuals grow, they move from dependency to self-direction. People who have reached maturity need to be recognized as self-directing and given the opportunity to choose their own methods of learning.

2. The immature lack experience or cannot generalize based upon previous situations. Mature learners benefit more from learning conditions in which they can tie in some of their previous experiences.

3. Both immature and mature learners have teachable moments (unpredictable times when they are particularly receptive to learning). For many, these coincide with a stage the individual faces in a specific role. Thus the timing of learning experiences becomes as important as knowing at what stage a group or individual may be.

4. The immature beginner has many basics with which to become familiar while the mature, or advanced, person is interested in a problem-centered approach to learning. The receptivity of the mature learner peaks when the issue being studied is of immediate concern and not just an abstract theory.

Figure 10.6 delineates the differences between an understanding of immature and mature behavior in five different areas. It should be understood that this dichotomy is really based not upon an either-or situation, but upon a continuum. In groups, individuals may be at various points on the continuum and one should not categorically assume that immature and mature behavior is entirely separated. The dotted line on the table means that there is not a clear demarcation between these two; on the whole, the immature are more likely to be to the left and the mature to the right. (The beginning climber is not very self-directed compared to the veteran of 200 climbs.) The less mature the individual, the more pedagogical (leader-oriented) the approach should be. Learners with intermediate skills may exhibit both immature and mature behaviors, so it is possible to say that they would likely fall within a wide area in the middle of the continuum.

Because of their lack of maturity, limited experiences, interest in the present, and lack of ability to be self-directing, most children are assumed to be immature while most adults are assumed to be mature. Some adults, however, may select leader-directed leisure experiences similar to those for children because of an interest in a specific topic or activity, a desire for an extrinsic reward, a lack of earlier experience, or situational immaturity.

FIGURE 10.6   Continuum of Immature and Mature Learners

ASSUMPTIONS ABOUT	IMMATURE (Beginner)	MATURE (Advanced)
Perception of the Participant	Dependent upon others	Self-motivated individual
Status of the Participants' Experience	Built on progression of earlier experiences leading to selected outcomes	Based on own past experiences with chances to grow
Readiness for New Experiences and New Learning	Varies with maturity	Based on life problems and life tasks
Orientation to Learning-time Perspective	Topic, or activity, centered for future use	Task, or problem-oriented; solutions based upon current need; focus on *now*
Motivation	Extrinsic award (ribbons, badges, trophies) and intrinsic rewards (praise, winning, peer acceptance)	Intrinsic incentives (personal growth, self-actualization, self-esteem, belonging, fulfilling curiosity)

In terms of our *perception of the participant*, leaders should generally view the immature as being dependent upon others and the mature as being self-motivated. In a leader-directed (immature) situation, the participant is viewed as being dependent upon the leader, while, in a self-directed (mature) experience, the participant is self-motivated and self-directed.

In terms of *experience*, leaders should develop progressive programs to meet the needs of the immature based upon earlier programs for beginners, who also need *leader-selected* outcomes. The mature participant is generally viewed as being able to participate in activities that draw from past experience and knowledge with a chance to grow through individually selected goals. With beginners, there is usually one-way communication since the leader is the primary resource for the learning. With the mature, leaders and participants engage in transactional communication where everyone's experience is valued as a resource for learning.

In terms of *readiness*, it is assumed that the readiness of participants in leader-directed programs varies with the level of their maturity whereas self-directed participants are all assumed to have reached a similar level of maturity. For example, children are grouped according to ages, classes, skills, and experiences. The mature learners are group according to interests and experiences. On the whole, the more mature will identify their own program needs. The less mature adults (in terms of their abilities) will select leader-directed programs as they seek new skills and new adventure.

Orientation to learning-time perspectives refers to the topics or activities learned and the time frame within which they will be used. For the less mature, leader-directed participants, the behaviors are usually topic oriented, for example tying knots, basic belaying techniques, or getting up after falling down on skis. From the leader's perspective, the activities are being learned for future application. For the self-directed participant, the level of maturity in the performance of basic skills already exists and the focus is problem centered, i.e., how to scale the rock face using the skills learned in the past. Mature learners may have different objectives such as socialization, skill perfection, or the addition of another

climb to a list of many. Immature learners usually all have the same objective, such as learning the skill.

Motivational behavior refers to the fact that the immature learner often is motivated by intrinsic incentives that have no tangible aspects.

The processes and techniques of leadership will differ for the immature and the mature participant and may need to be adjusted very carefully when the skill maturity of the participants ranges from beginning level to expert level.

Leader-directed (pedagogical) techniques may be utilized in situations involving children, adults, and groups of all ages—whenever people are beginners or immature in experience. In leader-directed programs (for beginners), the setting is formal, organized with predetermined locations for participants, equipment, and so on. The leader and often the sponsoring organization establish the format for the setting, as can be seen with many youth agency badge programs. There is little interpersonal communication.

Self-directed (andragogical) leadership is generally practiced in settings with adults or experienced participants. In self-directed programs the setting is informal. Participants and leader share an equal status wherein the leader is a facilitator rather than a director. Time is devoted to getting acquainted, sharing ideas, and socializing. The site is usually decided by consensus rather than by the leader.

The process of *organization and planning* under leader-directed settings is almost always implemented by the leader, who plans and organizes what activities will be undertaken. In self-directed programs, program organization occurs with participant involvement in the decision-making process. Examples of leader-directed outdoor programs would be a canoeing lesson, a climbing lesson, or a backpacking trip sponsored by a municipality, where the leader structures the format. In a self-directed program, planning is done mutually with the leader involved as a facilitator. Examples would be club programs, common adventurer outings, and advanced trips sponsored by a municipality.

Assessing interests, needs, and values of a leader-directed program is a primary function of the leader. An overnight hike for ten-year-olds, for instance, is usually planned according

to his/her perception of participant interests and needs, and his/her own values. If this were not the case, ten-year-olds might plan to hike too long a distance, to bring a mixture of indigestible food, and perhaps even to engage in dangerous activities or those which would annoy other campers. Self-directed programs involve the participants in assessing their own interests, needs, and values in agreement with the group.

In leader-directed settings, *goals and outcomes* are primarily established by the leader, while in self-directed programs, they are created by group negotiations with consensus. The leader-directed program might have a goal of hiking 12 miles, while in a self-directed program, participants might discuss various hike lengths and reach an agreement based upon a consensus from the group members.

In planning the *sequence of events and activities*, the leader of a leader-directed experience will plan purposefully, in a logical sequence, the order in which events are to occur. An example of this is a leading plan where the event may be divided into specific units, each of which contributes to the integral whole. For example, hiking, cooking, map and compass, and survival and environmental ethics are often taught separately before the trip. This sequence of events is planned so that each one builds purposefully on previously learned skills, knowledge, and attitudes.

In self-directed programs, events and activities are conducted according to the desires of the group, assuming everyone already has a foundation of basic skills on which to build and can undertake projects at any stage needed to reach the goal. As a matter of fact, because of the wide variety of individual readiness levels in self-directed programs, different events and activities may be conducted by part of the group rather than having everyone perform every step. In a self-directed canoe trip, for example, the group may start out, travel for a while, then go ashore and analyze how to do things more efficiently.

Implementing activities requires two different processes. In leader-directed activities, techniques, rules, and format are transmitted to the participants by the leader, who may assign practice drills or designate specific steps and projects

to be followed for earning badges or awards. In self-directed activities, the program is often conducted independently of the leader's goals and wishes. Instead everyone doing the same thing, the group may plan a variety of activities for independent participation by different people. Instead, the program might be implemented through discussion, sharing, and experimental involvement, with the leader being a facilitator rather than a director.

Evaluation of leader-directed programs is conducted primarily by the leader. It may be in terms of "You did well," "You have made a lot of improvements," or "You have earned your badge." In a self-directed program, evaluation occurs through mutual group consent, with members stating, "We did well," or "We succeeded." They also gather data that support group evaluation of individual portions of the project, parts of which may be assessed as being better than others. Here the final result or product isn't evaluated as much as the *process* the group went through to complete the project. No person loses or fails because of a leader or any other one individual making that decision, and any individual or project deemed successful merits this praise on the basis of group consensus. Success in the self-directed process is measured in terms of group or individual expectations, not those of the leader. In this andragogical process, evaluation is not a dead end, but a move toward assessing more or different needs and finding ways to meet them. Rather than a single-minded orientation toward judgment and comparison with past events or scores, it focuses on changing the situation to bring about success in the future. In the andragogical process, each individual is measured in terms of his/her own ability, not against others in the group. As long as this person contributes to group goals with his/her own unique abilities, his/her achievement can be assessed highly. Through this process, each individual makes the enterprise successful.

Because of situation, circumstance, type of program, age, or ability of the participants, one can never assume that every program will be either entirely leader-directed or self-directed. A leader-directed (formal) setting may be used in a self-directed activity with the group helping

to plan, assess, and create goals. On the other hand, the self-directed group may, through consensus or agreement, plan a very logical and purposeful sequence of events and implement precise techniques, rules, and assignments for completing them. The point here is that much advanced adult outdoor leadership occurs in self-directed groups; the prudent leader should understand that he/she may need to make some modifications in the leadership process to meet the goals of the self-directed group. Even in what may appear to be a leader-directed program with an identifiable progression, some participants may require less leadership to meet their self-directed recreational needs.

In conclusion, leaders must be able to adjust their methods of working with groups to adapt to the continuum of the beginner who is both chronologically and experientially immature and the beginner who is chronologically mature but immature in experience. A review of the literature on adult education tells one that adults:

1. Are capable of change at any age;
2. Seek fulfillment or happiness; (Learning experiences can be an avenue for achieving self-fulfillment.)
3. Are extremely capable and become frustrated unless they are given the opportunity for self-direction;
4. Have developed "mind sets" based upon past experiences that have much to do with how they react to a particular learning situation;
5. Are capable of learning from personal experience but need help in determining a logical process for analyzing those past experiences;
6. May be quite mature in relation to one set of standards and quite immature in another; (In cases where the learners are still immature, more guidance may be required from the instructor.)
7. Have periods in their life which make them more receptive to learning certain subjects and give them blocks against other subjects until that problem is solved or that phase is past;

8. Are uniquely different based upon aims, values, social habits, and experience; therefore, each learner should be treated with respect for his/her individuality.

The following guidelines are offered for leaders who work with adults:

1. Adults expect to be treated with dignity and respect. They want to feel valued as individuals and have their opinions respected and given credence.
2. Leaders should recognize the value of the uniqueness of each individual. It is important to remember that each adult in the group will bring unique skills, experience, and knowledge to the group environment.
3. The leader should attempt to determine both individual and group goals since individual goals within adult groups can vary tremendously. Some attempt should be made to identify and respond to individual desires and expectations expressed by group members.
4. Leaders should work to create a supportive social climate. This is important to build a relationship of trust and openness that facilitates positive communication.
5. Adults find leisure experiences more personally meaningful if they are actively involved in the decision-making process.
6. Adults respond to personally relevant leisure experiences; in other words, outings that draw upon the participants' meaningful past experiences are often more successful than those that deal in abstractions.
7. Adults respond to leaders who are genuinely concerned about their welfare, needs, interests, and desires.
8. In developing relationships in groups of adults, the leader should work to create trust between group members and between himself/herself and the group.
9. The leader should attempt to interact with participants in a parallel fashion rather than in a superior/subordinate way. Respect for the leader should be based upon knowledge and skills rather than solely on his/her position within the organization.

10. The leader should be able to adjust the goals of the activity or program, where appropriate, to meet the needs of group members. It is not unusual for the goals of the group to be different from those of the leader, and some modification may be necessary.

Outdoor Pursuit Leadership Training

In virtually all of the economically advanced nations of the world, large numbers of people regularly participate in outdoor recreation. As outdoor activities become more popular, there has been a growing awareness of the need for qualified instructors and leaders at all levels of expertise in each activity. Guide services and schools are often the first to recognize and respond to this need, having a vested interest in the availability of competent staff. Therefore, the first (and sometimes the only) training programs in a given area begin as in-service programs for staff. These staff training programs are often opened to prospective staff, and, in some cases, expanded to offer leadership training to the general public.

In some countries, public funds have been made available to facilitate development of larger, more accessible leadership training programs. The rationale for such expenditures is usually economic, based upon the value of tourism and a desire to reap some of the long-term benefits that can accrue from having more productive local enterprises. In France, for example, a multitude of small, private programs are complemented by the large and prestigious École de Ski et Alpinisme in Chamonix. The school is partly tax-supported, sets national standards, certifies ski instructors and guides, and offers a variety of programs including multi-year in-residence courses of study leading to full guide status.

Of the many leadership training programs available worldwide, those in the English speaking nations are probably the most easily accessible to readers of this text. The following brief survey of outdoor leadership training in the United Kingdom, Australia, New Zealand, Canada, and the United States illustrates the diversity of programs that are available.

United Kingdom

The United Kingdom was the first nation to institute a formal training program for outdoor leaders. In 1969, the Scottish Mountain Leadership Board, on behalf of the three outdoor-leadership training agencies in the United Kingdom, published *Mountain Leadership* by Eric Langmuir. Revised in 1973 and reprinted in 1976, this book provides much of the groundwork for candidates attempting to obtain leadership training and receive a Mountain Leadership Certificate.

Within the United Kingdom, a Mountain Leadership Certificate is accepted as proof of having achieved a minimum standard of proficiency in skills important to teachers and other leaders in charge of children participating in high-risk outdoor activities.

Leadership certificates are awarded to candidates who meet the necessary prerequisites, who fulfill the requirements set forth by the Mountain Leadership Training Board, and who pass the assessment procedures that take place at an approved outdoor-pursuit center.

Applicants who are accepted in the Mountain Leadership Certificate scheme undergo a residency of at least one week or a nonresidential course of four full-weekend outings. A period of at least one year of practical training follows, where the candidate puts into practice the technical skills learned during the basic training period.

The assessment takes place during a one-week residency held at an approved mountain or other outdoor-pursuit center. A written report and recommendations are made on the basis of examined knowledge, and observed performance is evaluated by a field assessor who accompanies the candidate on a scheduled expedition. The report and recommendations are forwarded to the Mountain Leadership Training Board for final approval before a certificate is granted.

Australia

Three of Australia's seven states are actively involved in the training of outdoor leaders. Victoria, South Australia, and Tasmania all offer certification programs in "Mountain and

Bushwalking Leadership." The Victoria program was the first of the three, created in response to the concern that heavy use of outdoor teaching environments might lead to accidents and fatalities. The South Australian program is very similar to Victoria's, but concentrates primarily on training school teachers to care for children involved in outdoor-adventure activities. The Tasmanian program takes the Victoria system one step further by incorporating a unique experimental component aimed more at commercial operators than at school teachers.

Historically, the Australian outdoor-leadership movement began with the first Victorian course offered in May 1969. The program format at that time was heavily modeled on the British Mountain Leadership Certificate scheme with the content adapted to suit local bush settings. Over the years that followed, many alterations were made including the application of advisor and assessor panels and the introduction of preliminary appraisal sessions.

Today, a typical program for leadership applicants begins with an initial week-long residential course during which the technical and safety skills of each applicant are appraised, and recommendations are made on their potential for leadership.

Once they have been recommended for leadership, candidates are assigned established, experienced leaders as advisors for one or two years. During this training period, they experience a wide variety of leadership roles with many different groups in a range of settings. These intensive and extensive experiences are recorded in a log book, then the candidates meet with their advisor to discuss the log. Once the candidates have collectively put in a minimum number of days as experienced apprentice leaders, they are once again appraised and recommended for advancement to the assessment stage.

The assessment stage begins with individual four-day trips in which each candidate takes full leadership responsibility. An advisor attends as backup leader, and members of an assessment panel go along to critique each candidate's leadership performance. If satisfactory performance is demonstrated on this trip, the candidates are advanced to a final, week-long residential assessment course. During this time, a panel of advisors and judges observe and evaluate the leadership performance of several candidates under a wide selection of actual and simulated situations. At the conclusion of the assessment period, candidates who meet the criteria for advancement are recommended for a leadership certificate. At any time during this process, a candidate who fails to meet a criterion has the option of withdrawing from the program or returning to repeat that stage of training.

With a few differences, both the South Australian and Tasmanian programs follow this scheme. The South Australian program is oriented toward outdoor-education for teachers and thus focuses upon teaching strategies, instructional aids, and lesson planning.

In Tasmania, more emphasis is placed on safety skills such as accident response, route finding, weather interpretation, and search-and-rescue. The Tasmanian program also has more stringent application prerequisites than the other two programs. Applicants must be highly experienced in bush and mountain travel before they will ever be considered as candidates. The result is a leadership-trainee group at an advanced technical-skill level that can concentrate on the more critical aspects of leadership development such as group dynamics, decision making, and problem solving.

All three states make use of the manual, Bushwalking and Mountaincraft Leadership, published in 1978 by the Victoria Bushwalking and Mountaincraft Advisory Board. The manual details six areas of concern for the leadership candidate: the leader, trip planning, the walk, food, the elements, and emergencies.

New Zealand

In 1977, the provisional Outdoor Training Advisory Board (OTAB) was formed to examine a national outdoor-leadership training system for New Zealand. The "Hunt Report" had recently been published in the U.K., and it advocated sweeping alterations to the British Mountain Leadership Certificate Scheme. OTAB's recommendations for outdoor-leadership development at home were based heavily upon the changes occurring overseas.

OTAB implemented outdoor-leadership training programs from a new and fresh perspective. They agreed to adopt an open-ended development scheme that did not present a certificate, which thus implied that a candidate should continue to seek lifelong learning opportunities in outdoor-leadership training. A modular approach was also used that allowed the system to be flexible enough to meet an individual's unique needs, to be applicable to many levels of skill or experience, and to be available to potential leaders from many outdoor-pursuit areas and organizations. To encourage leaders to take responsibility for their own training and development, rather than evaluation by a panel of board members, OTAB decided upon self-assessment.

OTAB is designed to be an advisory agency. At present they assist other associations with outdoor-leader training programs at a "grass roots" level rather than dictating a mandatory series of courses for all leaders in general. They also operate a resource-and-information clearinghouse based in the capital city of Wellington, and have two major publications of note: a self-assessment Logbook and an Outdoor Training Guide.

Canada

Canada is relatively new at the work of developing outdoor leaders. No recognized program exists nationally, but, at the provincial level, a few currently operate, and others are under consideration.

The Nova Scotia Outdoor Leadership Development Program serves three functions: a clearinghouse for information on outdoor leadership, a service program providing outdoor-leadership resources and class instructors, and the sponsor of a basic course in leadership training. Applicants attend an introductory leadership school to obtain groundwork in some of the more important leadership skills. As candidates, they apprentice in an experiential leadership role and then attend a leadership assessment school. Once they complete this program a certificate is not granted; instead, graduates are encouraged to continue their training, self-assessment, and development as outdoor leaders.

The stream of leadership training follows a modular pattern which deals with teaching methods, problem solving, group dynamics, trip planning, and expedition behavior. On their own, candidates must obtain the specialized technical skills in the adventure activities where they expect to lead parties and the necessary core skills of navigation, survival, campcraft, environmental ethics, and emergency procedures.

United States

In contrast to the five countries mentioned above, there is no widely accepted broadsided certification program for outdoor leaders in the United States. There are, however, several well-established and nationally recognized training and certification programs for instructors in specific activities. For example, one may become certified as an instructor in skiing, scuba diving, canoeing, or as a guide in several states. In addition, there are dozens of small organizations offering instructor certification in virtually every outdoor pursuit from hiking to hanggliding, and from rafting to rock climbing. With few exceptions these organizations are highly specialized, are recognized only within the local area or region, and are not recognized by any governmental agency. Generalized outdoor pursuits leadership training, designed to address the complex array of skills necessary to the safe leadership of activities such as backpacking or mountaineering, is available through a small number of private organizations and public institutions.

Outward Bound began in the United Kingdom and has since become the largest and most widespread adventure-based educational institution with 32 schools and centers worldwide. There are five schools in the United States. While the Outward Bound schools are best known for an emphasis on building participant self-confidence and self-reliance in experiences ranging from sailing to canoeing and from backpacking to mountaineering, the schools also provide excellent leadership training. The Kurt Hahn Leadership Center, located at the North Carolina Outward Bound School, offers leadership courses to the general public. Most of

the training programs devoted specifically to leadership skills are limited to staff and prospective staff; however, Outward Bound does occasionally offer leadership seminars and leadership development programs for the general public, and most of their regular programs include material of value to prospective leaders.

The National Outdoor Leadership School operates an outdoor center which administers a wide variety of outdoor-skills courses, including specialized courses for outdoor leaders and instructors. The Wilderness Education Association offers a number of leadership certification programs within many higher-education degree programs in physical education and recreation.

At the National Outdoor Leadership School (NOLS), the emphasis in leadership training is placed upon teaching capability and technical skills. Certificates at three levels are given: outdoor educator, outdoor leader, and NOLS instructor. The outdoor-educator certificate is awarded to skills-program graduates who demonstrate an ability to teach "no trace" outdoor skills; the outdoor-leader certificate is awarded to graduates of longer courses who demonstrate the ability to lead groups in the outdoors; and the NOLS instructor certificate is given to outdoor leaders who pass the specialized instructor course, who apprentice for one season, and who effectively carry out the philosophy of the National Outdoor Leadership School.

The Wilderness Education Association (WEA) was founded in 1976 to promote professionalism in outdoor leadership, to improve the safety of outdoor trips, and to enhance the conservation of the wild outdoors. WEA offers the National Standard Program for Outdoor Leadership Certification (NSP), which emphasize experiential teaching and learning in a standard basic 18 topic curriculum under field conditions. The curriculum is taught by WEA certified instructors under the auspices of accredited universities or agencies. The NSP for outdoor leadership certification is an expedition-based program that addresses all components of the curriculum in one of three formats, each of which is part of the context of a longer course that must be completed within one year: at least three weeks of continuous wilderness travel; two wilderness field trips of two continuous weeks; or one two-week wilderness field experience with two additional continuous one-week wilderness field trips.

The Certification Issue in the United States

At first glance, it seems quite remarkable that there is no nationally recognized certification system for outdoor leaders in the United States, except for the narrowly-focused programs such as skiing, scuba diving, and small craft. While many excellent generalized leadership training programs have been developed, such as those of Wilderness Education Association (WEA), National Outdoor Leadership School (NOLS), and Outward Bound (OB), no one program reaches more than a tiny fraction of the nation's outdoor leaders.

Collectively, there are large numbers of people involved in hiking, camping, backpacking, mountaineering, rock climbing, nordic and alpine skiing, rafting, canoeing, kayaking, and a host of other activities, and participants in these activities often want and/or need guidance, instruction, and/or leadership. It is also apparent that these activities have much in common. All take place outdoors, generally in remote areas, often in wilderness or on wild rivers. Most of the knowledge and skills necessary for safe and responsible performance as a guide, instructor, or leader are common to all of these activities. Why not define a basic "tool kit" of skills and knowledge and provide standardized training? Such a program, perhaps modeled on some of the best examples in other countries, might ensure higher levels of competence, reduce risks (and thus potentially affect insurance rates), and enhance the quality of services provided.

A nationally accepted program sounds like a good idea, and every few years, someone initiates a new attempt to muster widespread support for such a program. Typically, a successful local training scheme is proposed as a model for a national program. Inevitably, the proposed national design is repeatedly trimmed and modified in response to input from prospective participants, until it loses form completely or is reduced to the prototypical local design on

which it was originally based. The proponents of such plans sometimes seem bewildered, or even frustrated, by the success of national programs in other countries, particularly in Europe.

The reasons for relative success in the implementation of national programs in Europe are clear. Most European nations are small, with few exceeding the size of a typical state in the U.S. More importantly, European nations are social democracies in which collective interests are weighted more heavily in both public and personal decisions than is the case in the United States, where individualism is a cultural expectation. It is far easier to develop an acceptable set of national standards in a relatively small country, especially when the population is more inclined to consider the broader social consequences of a measure.

In the U.S., not only are potential participants less inclined to compromise—there are also greater real obstacles to the development of meaningful common standards. Geographically, the U.S. includes far more variety than exists in any single European country. Even when the issue is limited to "basic outdoor skills," geographical diversity results in intractable disagreements. Leaders in the cool, wet Northwest insist that thorough knowledge of hypothermia prevention and treatment are essential, and that no gear list, even for a day hike, is acceptable without rainwear as a required item. Experienced leaders from the desert Southwest may balk at the emphasis on wet, cold conditions but insist instead upon inclusion of skills and information related to acquisition and use of water, and skill and knowledge in the prevention and treatment of heat-related conditions. Those in the humid tropical climates from Florida to Louisiana have other perceptions.

The situation becomes more complicated when attempts are made to define common techniques for specific activities. All of this is not to imply that there are no common grounds. Certainly there are common principles and common needs. There are, however, enough differences to complicate attempts to develop broad national support for any one set of standards, and there is not enough incentive to motivate the sustained individual and collective effort necessary to overcome the obstacles.

Seeking Employment as an Outdoor Leader

Many would-be outdoor leaders gain their first experience in informal circumstances. Typically, some leadership responsibilities are accepted in the context of an outing with a group of friends. Once the fledgling leader gains confidence, he/she might organize and lead a group of other friends to a favorite site, or volunteer to teach them some basic outdoor skills. If the leader does a good job, it may not be long before his/her services are sought by others. With luck and patience, this progression may lead to significant professional opportunities.

More often, however, the leader must actively seek positions in which to develop leadership skills and/or generate income for his/her services. The first step is to identify existing employment opportunities. A survey of local park and recreation departments or districts, public or private schools, youth camps, ski schools, guide services, and outfitters will help identify what services are being provided in the area and may reveal job opportunities. A good source of information about available positions nationwide is the *Jobs Clearinghouse*, a monthly publication of the Association for Experiential Education, University of Colorado, Box 249, Boulder, CO 80309. Information about youth camp positions may be procured from the American Camping Association, 5000 State Rd 67, North, Martinsville, IN 46151.

It is a good idea to look into each of the existing programs that might offer employment to ascertain the quality and reputation of the program as a whole and of the current leaders of each activity. This knowledge can be invaluable and is worth a substantial investment of time. The beginning leader may well do himself/herself a disservice by becoming associated with an organization that does not have a good reputation for quality and for adherence to high standards for safety and environmental ethics. On the other hand, especially for experienced leaders with excellent reputations, an institution or company with a poor reputation may represent

an opportunity for involvement either internally or as an outside consultant, to help develop a more positive image.

Getting a job takes real effort which requires a great deal of time, patience, self-assurance, and sometimes a considerable amount of expense. Before selling yourself to a prospective employer, it is necessary to verify your credibility as an outdoor leader. Suggestions for enhancing this credibility include:

1. Know as much as possible about the particular activities that you would like to lead. If you want to "get ahead of the pack," read every major book on the activity and keep up-to-date on current activity-specific periodicals. Read carefully. Don't just skim over the technical details. Study every available shred of material on safety issues, concerns, and skills related to the activity. Attend clinics and conferences to stay abreast of what's happening.

2. Whatever the activity, do it well and often. Participate and practice as often as necessary to become expert and to develop a reputation as a competent, safe and responsible practitioner. Serve as a volunteer with youth agencies to get more practice.

3. Obtain any applicable certification in the activity itself and in any relevant safety skills. For virtually any outdoor leader, this also includes first aid and CPR certification. Advanced Red Cross certification may or may not suffice. Outdoor-oriented courses emphasizing improvisation and long-term care are better and, in many cases employers prefer or require First Responder or EMT certification. Wilderness EMT courses are becoming more readily available and are usually the preferred option.

4. Teach safety related courses. Employers need to be assured that leaders are capable of conducting activities safely. It helps to have taken safety courses (first aid, rescue techniques, avalanche safety, or whatever is applicable), but it means a great deal more to have *taught* the topic or skill. Teaching requires (or at least

implies) a level of understanding of the topic that is considerably greater than that of the average participant or student.

5. Understand why you want to lead outdoor activities. Think about it. Talk to others as a means of clarifying your own thoughts. There are many legitimate reasons. Most employers will ask you why you want the job, and most will see right through an answer that doesn't come from the heart. Incidentally, "Because I like to do the activity" is not a sufficient reason for leading others! Employers will not hire those whose goals are entirely self-serving.

6. Try to expand your horizons beyond the local area. Whatever the activity, there is much to be learned from participation outside the immediate area. In virtually every activity, there are local customs and practices. Often, local practices do not reflect broader trends. By participating outside of the area or region, you can gain new insights, and others can gain from you. Travel to other areas produces real benefits for you as a leader, makes you more valuable as a resource, and, sometimes out of proportion to any real gains, can add to your credibility. Climbing in the Alps of Europe or in several of the states in the U.S. may enhance one's perspectives and will probably result in the development of new skills or ideas. Almost certainly it will add substantially to the credibility of the climbing instructor whose previous credentials covered only two western states.

7. Keep a logbook. It helps to organize your experiences so that you can obtain the greatest benefit from all that you have done. The logbook is invaluable when constructing a professional resume. One way to log in experiences is to have a page reserved for each activity that you are involved in, such as hiking, skiing, and rafting. Reserve the front side of each page for a chronological listing of each experience in the activity (for example, a hike up Old Baldy with dates and description). Reserve the top half of the other side for classes, clinics, or other training you have had in the activity and reserve the bottom half for any leadership or instructional

experience. Too often, potentially impressive arrays of experience are simply compressed into "lots of hiking experience" as time passes and memories fade. Particularly for the leader who has not yet established a substantial employment record, a well-organized presentation is impressive because of the data itself and because it demonstrates an ability to keep organized records.

8. Learn to write well. With a good investment of time and energy, many skilled participants are capable of becoming excellent outdoor leaders. It may be hard to see beyond the initial goal of becoming a field leader or instructor, and, at this level, it is often not necessary to have excellent writing skills. However, at some point, the leader will probably aspire to positions "up the ladder." Many supervisory field positions require an ability to write professional quality reports, and most administrative positions and virtually all academic positions require an ability to construct and edit copy-ready professional documents. The leader who has not invested sufficient time and effort in the development of writing skills is not likely to be among the few field leaders who eventually become directors and administrators.

Applications and Resumes

Once a potential employer is identified, the exact details of the application process can usually be determined in a simple phone call. Then the work begins. Usually, a written application is submitted first, and an interview is scheduled later. The written application may or may not include a resume. Sometimes, a written statement is required, wherein the candidate discusses his/her reasons for wanting the position, and why he/she is qualified. In any case, the application represents an opportunity to demonstrate one's ability. An application that is completed in exact compliance with the requests and is carefully typed or (if permitted) very neatly filled out in printing or longhand reflects well upon the applicant. The employer will assume that the application represents the very best work that the applicant can produce. An application that contains typos, misspelled words, poor

grammar, or is sloppy or incomplete will not inspire confidence. It is a good idea to make at least one copy of the application prior to filling it out. Then a practice copy can be completed and checked carefully before the final copy is made. Remember that generic application forms may not be well-suited to expressing your particular talents and abilities. Supplementary written material is usually welcome and should be included when it will help the reader to understand better your qualifications for the job. One's signature should be legible. Prospective employers are not impressed by the ego-scrawl affected by some who think it is a sign of sophistication to write illegibly.

The resume is a very valuable tool. Like the application, it will be taken by the employer as an example of the best work that the candidate can produce. Before beginning the task, it is helpful to look at many examples of possible formats. Schools, colleges, and universities usually have offices that provide employment counseling, and there one can find examples of resumes. Many public libraries and most public employment agencies have examples to review. In spite of the fact that some people have been advised to submit one-page resumes (generally to companies that screen hundreds of applicants), resumes can be several pages in length as long as the material is germane to the experience.

Typically, your name and address appear at the top of the first page. If you plan to move soon, insert a permanent address at which you can always be reached. Many jobs are lost by college students who leave school with no forwarding address. If you know exactly what job you want, it might be listed under the heading of *Job Objective*. The next headings are usually *Education* and *Experience*, in each case listed in reverse chronological order. If you have kept a good logbook or can recall many details, this information can be incorporated here. Training in outdoor skills or leadership and any related certifications can be included under education while personal and leadership experience may be organized under *Experience*. Be consistent throughout each section; use the same pattern and provide the same type and extent of information for each entry. *Military Service*, if any, could be listed, followed by *Personal Data*.

This can include anything that might be relevant such as foreign language, hobbies, travel, related activities in youth agencies, and awards. Avoid diluting the effect of the resume by tossing in facts not relevant to your qualifications for the position.

Address the letter and resume in accordance with the established application process, or, if no formal processes exist, to the person responsible for hiring employees. Avoid the generic "Dear Ms.", or "Dear Sir" and expressions such as "Hello" or "Gentle People." Identify the person in charge, and be sure to spell the name and title correctly.

References

References are especially important in outdoor pursuits, as many aspects of leadership are subjective and not easily assessed in writing. Maturity and good judgement, for example, are often best evaluated by direct observation in the field and through referees who have such firsthand knowledge. When possible, solicit letters of reference from people who have direct knowledge of your performance in the field. It is always best to use referees who are known to be credible, and, ideally, who are known by the prospective employer. Remember that letters reviewed by the applicant carry far less weight than letters sent directly to the employer. It is better to have a few select references sent to the employer than to send or carry in a great stack of letters that you have had a chance to survey. The employer will assume that the applicant will have withheld any letters containing negative comments, and might assume that those writing the letters may have been swayed toward kinder evaluations knowing that they would be read by the applicant. Select reference parties carefully, ask their permission to list them as references or ask them if they are willing to write a letter of recommendation to the agency, then trust them.

Interviews

Sometimes, interviews are scheduled for every applicant, though, in most cases, interviews are scheduled only for the top few candidates. Whenever possible, interviews are done in person, though, in some cases, they can be conducted over the phone. In the realm of outdoor pursuits, it is not unusual for conventional interview processes to be supplemented by field experiences in which the applicant has an opportunity to demonstrate activity skills and leadership ability.

Anxiety is normal and to be expected. You can keep anxiety to a minimum by being prepared well in advance and by keeping a healthy perspective on the process. Remember that the purpose of the interview is to determine whether or not you are the right person for the job, and whether this is the right position for you. The following suggestions may help:

1. Dress up. Look your best. The employer will assume that what is seen is just about the best you will look on the job. In both public and private sectors, image is an issue. Your appearance may or may not be a major factor, depending upon the position. When it is important to convey an impression of professional competence, personal appearance is often important. Ski schools want staff to look sharp; city park departments want employees who will be acceptable to the taxpayers; and summer camp operators want staff who look wholesome and credible so that parents will be comfortable leaving their children with them. What is functional, in style, and acceptable as a devotee of an activity may not be acceptable to employers whose success and/or public image depends upon the appearance and behavior of staff members. (Refer to Chapter Thirteen, "Marketing the Outdoor Program").

2. Be enthusiastic. This is the time to bring forth your best attributes. The interviewer is looking for facts and clues to your personality and approach to life and work.

3. Answer all questions completely. If it is a simple "yes" or "no" question, try to give some additional information. Show that you know what you are talking about, without being overbearing. Be truthful! Ethics aside, there is no advantage, in the long run, to distortions. Be sure to include the "yes" or the "no," then go on and elaborate.

4. Don't be swayed or made anxious if the interviewer pauses for a while or asks very difficult questions. This may be a direct attempt to see how you handle stress, or it may be inadvertent. If you need a moment to think, just say so. "That's a tough question! May I have a moment to think about it or would you like my immediate response?" would be a reasonable reply to an exceptionally complex or challenging question.

5. Come prepared with a list of any questions you may have about the position. If you have done your homework, you will be well-acquainted with the company or agency and the position before you arrive at the interview. Asking the right questions about the job can indicate your interest in a successful matching of your abilities and the needs of the organization.

Summary

Outdoor leadership requires the understanding of participants and the role and function of leadership. Outdoor pursuit participants possess all the properties of other groups of people. They have reasons for being followers and needs for having leaders, and are affected by many external and internal forces. Every individual in a group has specific responsibilities for himself/herself, and all groups have responsibilities to individuals and to society.

Leaders may be selected in several ways, and all leaders exert several types of power on the followers. Outdoor leaders may have certain recognizable traits, but no list guarantees that the possessor will be an effective or adequate leader. Outdoor leaders can agree on the relative importance of some competencies; however, regional and activity differences make it necessary to develop additional competencies that

may be mandatory in one situation and inappropriate in others. Several models of leadership tell us that leadership style depends upon the level of maturity of the group as it relates to the demands of the task to be performed and as it is affected by a series of conditions.

The outdoor pursuit leader needs to understand the interrelationships of participant and group characteristics, leadership theory, and leader competencies before embarking with a group.

While there are several outdoor leader training programs in the United States, there is no single nationally recognized program of certification of outdoor leaders. Other English-speaking countries have a wide variety of leadership training programs that are based upon experience and may lead to a form of certification.

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