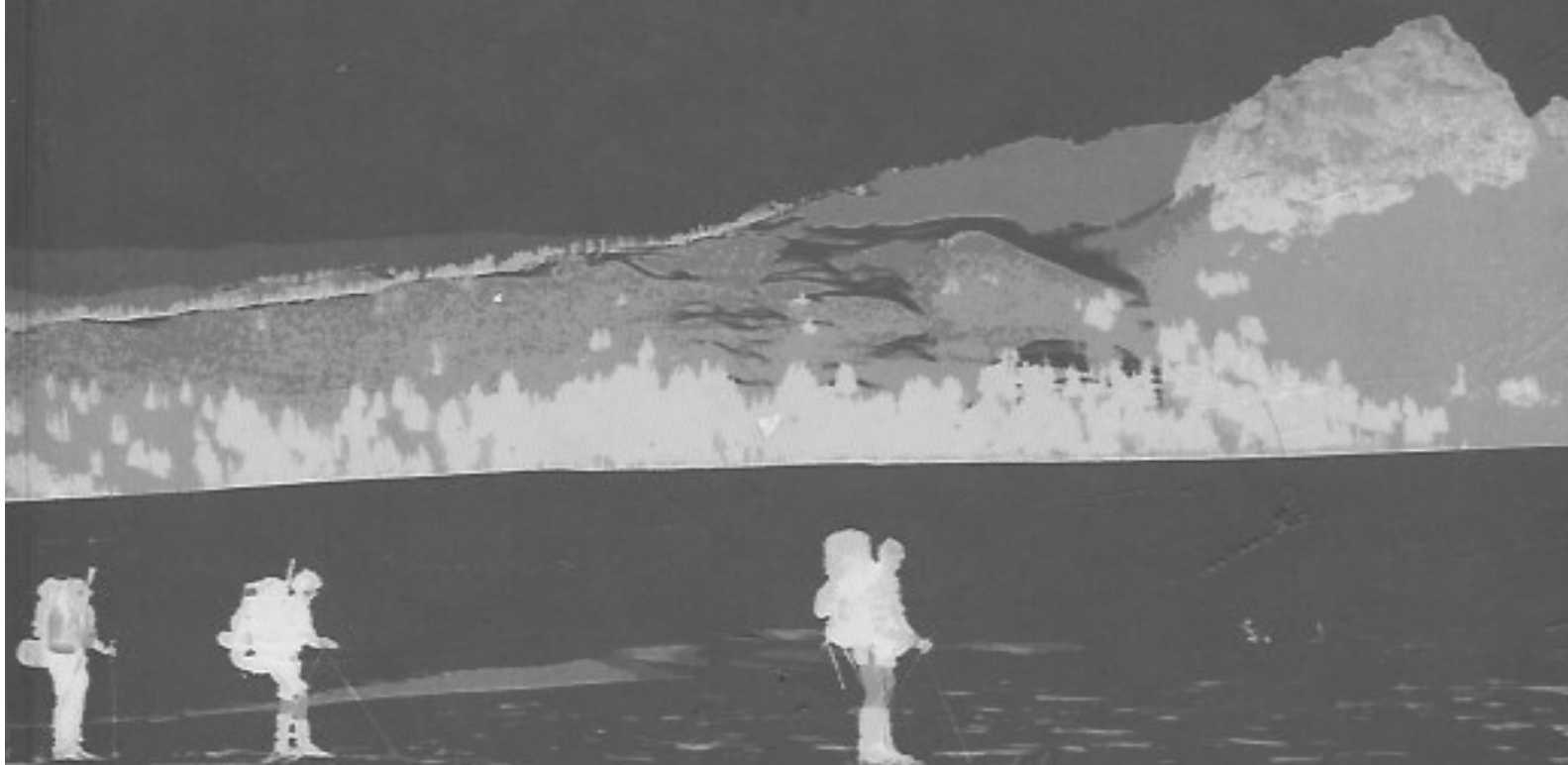


LEADERSHIP AND ADMINISTRATION
OF
OUTDOOR PURSUITS



Second Edition

PHYLLIS FORD
JIM BLANCHARD

Copyright © 1993
Venture Publishing, Inc.

No part of the material protected by this copyright notice may be reproduced or utilized in any form by any means, electronic or mechanical, including photocopying, recording, or by any information storage and retrieval system, without written permission from the copyright owner.

Printed in the United States of America

Production: Bonnie Godbey
Printing and Binding: BookCrafters, Inc.
Manuscript Editing: Michele L. Barbin

Library of Congress Catalogue Card Number 92-63339
ISBN 0-910251-60-6

10 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1



chapter one

OUTDOOR PURSUITS AND OUTDOOR PARTICIPANTS

Introduction

When the first settlers came to North America, their primary task was to develop homes and farms and, later, towns and cities. They cut and plowed the vast forests and prairies to build their cities, farms, and factories. The areas they thought of as wilderness were to be conquered, controlled, or eradicated. For the most part, the only settlers who roamed the woods, mountains, and rivers were explorers, trappers, and hunters. Like the native Americans, they followed game trails or just struck off into the forests without trails.

For the early hunters, trappers, and explorers, camping equipment was simple. They had no special clothes unless they made them from the skins of the game they had killed. Their shelters were often openings in rock formations and hollow trees, or beneath boughs, branches and animal hides. Their protection from the elements was often no more than a piece of hide, a deerskin, and perhaps a raccoon skin hat made so that the rain dripped off the end of the tail. Their camping equipment was made up of the few things they owned—clothes, a blanket, rifle, powder, bullets, a piece of flint for lighting a fire, stiff leather or hide shoes, probably no socks, a boiling pot, a knife, and a sack for carrying everything that was not hung onto the belt or carried in the hand.

Food was often some meat shot during the day or dried from an earlier trip—rabbit, squirrel, deer, elk, bear, fish, or whatever was available. If they were fortunate in finding any salad plants they recognized, a few sprigs of miner's lettuce, spring beauty, watercress or something similar could be nibbled for fresh greens. Their mainstay was some sort of cornmeal biscuit or johnny (journey) cake. These early campers packaged their food in rags, brown paper, or skins. They reused the wrappings until they were tattered, completely soaked with fat, and highly flammable. Then they burned them as tinder for their fires. They may have cut boughs for their beds in areas where fir trees were plentiful, and they probably dug "hip and shoulder holes" in which to sink their weary bones as they slept. They used the woods for their toilet, and leaves, cones, or other natural plant materials for toilet paper. If women or children accompanied them, sanitary materials and babies' diapers were fashioned from mosses, particularly the absorbent sphagnum moss. As recently as World War I (1917-1918), sphagnum moss was sanitized and used as dressings for wounds. In those days, there were no gauze bandages.

The land was vast, and the explorers and trapper/hunters were few. In spite of cutting trees for beds, building fires for warmth and cooking, and digging a few hip holes, there was little noticeable damage done to the environment. Any damage done was rarely permanent,

and the slight scars were few and far between. The early users of natural areas used natural materials over and over until they fell apart or were used for fuel. They had no plastics, foil, or sleeping bags, and seldom traveled in large groups. They camped right next to the source of water but had no worry about drinking from any stream. While they rarely washed with soap or swam, their sanitary practices contributed to pollution of the water. Only the scarce number of early settlers kept water-borne diseases from becoming wide-spread epidemics. Most of the water-borne diseases brought to the rivers and streams by man or beast were limited to the water supplies of the towns and villages.

Because their lives depended upon it, they learned to "read" the environment for signs of animals, other people, or previous campsites. They "knew" where they were. They recognized edible, poisonous, and medicinal plants. They were curious to know what each plant and animal meant to the area. They studied the "signs" of the area much like we study the signs in a strange city today. Many times, they traveled alone knowing there was probably no help for miles around. If they became injured or ill, they had to take care of the problem themselves—or die alone. When they traveled in groups, they depended upon their comrades for help, although medical practices were primitive by modern standards. In times of illness, most people had only folklore, guesses and self-taught remedies to call on.

As European populations expanded and the native populations were decimated by warfare and disease, proportionately fewer people lived in direct contact with the wilderness. Outdoor survival skills and knowledge seemed relatively less important than mastery of the specialized trades necessary for success in an increasingly complex urban society. About 1890, families living comfortably on the East Coast began to seek the outdoors for recreation including nature study, hiking, camping and sightseeing. By the early 1900s, youth groups such as Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, Camp Fire, YMCA, YWCA, and private organizations had developed summer camps where the participants were taught outdoor living skills such as fire building, use of axe and saw, cooking,

tenting, nature crafts, and nature study. These activities were taught to youth for several purposes: to understand the ways of the Native Americans, to learn how to be "scouts," to become self-sufficient, and to perform everyday living tasks such as planning and preparing meals and getting along with others at a time when the required public school curriculum was focused upon reading, writing, and arithmetic, and none of what progressive educators considered "practical" education.

Interest in the outdoors for recreation caught on and grew by leaps and bounds, interrupted only briefly by World Wars I and II, until, in the 1950s, literally hundreds of thousands of Americans went camping each summer. But by 1945, thousands of acres of forests and prairies had been cut and plowed to make way for towns and farms. The abundance of potential outdoor recreational land had decreased to less than a fourth of what it had been in Colonial days.

Today, almost everyone from the United States and Canada and thousands from countries all over the world spend some time each year out of doors eating, cooking, sleeping, traveling or playing. Many trails are overcrowded. Unlike early explorers, most people don't go off the trails for fear of getting lost (probably wisely), and the trails get wider and muddier every year. Instead of seeking new areas, finding game or exploring, people today flock to the sites known for recreational activities, spectacular views, temperate climates, excellent fishing, and beautiful scenery, often lured to heavily used sites by influential marketing techniques such as advertisements, guide books, documentary videos, and magazine articles.

The practices of modern campers, hikers, backpackers, paddlers or backyard cooks differ from those of the earlier hunters, trappers, and explorers in many ways. Most equipment is now made of non-biodegradable materials and may be tossed away after one use or when worn out. Synthetics, such as nylon and plastic, are used to make clothing and equipment. Food wrappings consist of foil, plastic, and treated paper—sometimes all on one package—and these materials do not burn or decay. Heavy shoes protect the feet but tramp down or erode the land. Wood used for cooking has become

more and more scarce. In some areas, it has been cut and burned far faster than it can be regrown. With so many people using the outdoors, human waste has created a problem. Toilet paper takes several years to disintegrate and return to the soil. Fecal material can be sighted along almost any trail, and diseases from humans and animals have made it necessary to purify every stream before drinking the water.

The modern camper may be confused or frightened even by plants and animals that have been studied for many decades and shown to be harmless. Lack of understanding too often leads to fear, and fear blocks vision, clouds judgment, and delays development of a constructive relationship between the person and the environment.

Most people today do not cope well with emergencies, accidents or unforeseen survival situations. They seem to think that whenever something goes wrong, someone will soon come to help. Where there are trail signs, people assume they will not get lost, or if they do, a ranger will swoop from nowhere to rescue them. Unfortunately, many such overconfident and underskilled people stray from the trails and become hopelessly confused and lost. Evidence of the inability to cope with survival emergencies is found in the numbers of people who get into trouble each year. They were snowbound on highways with no survival equipment in their cars. Or they were ill-prepared to weather out periods of darkness, loss of water and/or power, and lack of normal food supplies and cooking facilities following tornadoes, hurricanes, earthquakes and other natural phenomena.

The ways of outdoor enthusiasts today are so different from the ways of the early explorers that new methods and regulations must be enforced. Nothing seems to stop the growth of interest in outdoor activities; yet if people continue to participate in these activities as they have up to the present, the potential quality of all outdoor experiences will diminish as the available land becomes overrun with litter, debris, waste, water pollution, barren sites, and crowds of people.

Since the end of World War II in 1945, the quantity of all outdoor activities has increased astonishingly. In a veritable explosion of numbers, millions are backpacking, cross-country skiing, rafting, canoeing, bicycling, hiking, climbing or caving. In short, millions are moving across land and water seeking enjoyment through physical activity in primitive settings. Accompanying this rise in outdoor recreation have been predictable increases in environmentally-related accidents, injuries, and deaths, with a concomitant increase in environmental degradation.

Most of the participants in outdoor pursuits have had no formal or informal education which addresses either care of the natural environment or care of themselves in that natural environment. It is now recognized that the user needs to be educated in care of self and in stewardship of land and water resources. Those who are charged with educating users must, in turn, have been educated to teach them.

Organized outdoor pursuit activities are inherently complex. On the one hand, there is the human element—people who desire experiences based on utilization of natural resources. On the other hand, there is the nonhuman element—the natural resources that can contribute to either successful or disastrous experiences and which may be affected adversely by excessive or improper use. The connecting elements are the activity sponsors, the resource management agency, money, transportation, and equipment; all must be coordinated by a leader who, it is assumed, has the knowledge and ability to integrate these elements in such a way as to yield safe and environmentally responsible outdoor experiences that result in attainment of proper objectives.

One answer to the dilemma is expert leadership, and the preparation of expert leaders begins with the proper education. This book is designed to meet the needs of both outdoor leaders and administrators. While specifically addressed to leaders and instructors, the contents should be understood by administrators of outdoor programs as well. The managers of these educational and recreational programs are, with increasing frequency and urgency, being pressed

to extend the scope of their programs to include outdoor pursuits. Unfortunately, many administrators do not know enough about such activities to be able to select qualified leaders and to monitor and evaluate the development and implementation of the activities adequately. A better understanding by administrators of the specific demands of outdoor leadership should improve the process by which they select and supervise leaders. Thus, program quality improves while exposure to liability is reduced.

Through the use of the material in this text, readers should become aware of the accepted standards, policies, controversies, principles, methods, and skills of leadership of outdoor activities. Readers should be able to plan, organize, and carry out safe and responsible programs for land-based or water-based activities in natural settings. Further, they should understand the roles and functions of both leaders and administrators of outdoor pursuit activities.

Outdoor Recreation Defined

This book is focused primarily on activities perceived as outdoor recreation. The words "outdoor recreation" connote a wide variety of meanings. In its broadest sense, the terms were used by the U.S. Department of the Interior in its report, *The Recreation Imperative*, to the U.S. Senate in 1974. As a result of the 1962 Public Law 85-470, the Outdoor Recreation Resources Review Commission (ORRRC) was organized and mandated to review the outdoor recreation wants and needs of the American people in 1962 with projections for the years 1976 and 2000, and to inventory the available resources and recommend policies and programs to insure that the needs of the people would be met. In carrying out the charge, the commission defined outdoor recreation as follows:

"...those activities that occur outdoors in an urban and man-made environment as well as those activities traditionally associated with the natural environment. With the advent of indoor-outdoor facilities, such as convertible skating rinks and swimming

pools, an additional dimension has been added to the complex of areas and facilities encompassed in the term outdoor recreation" (Outdoor Recreation Resources Review Commission, 1962).

As a result of this broad definition, and by surveying thousands of Americans, the following list of the twenty-six most popular activities was generated:

- Picnicking
- Driving for Pleasure
- Swimming
- Sightseeing
- Pleasure Walking
- Attending Sporting Events
- Playing Outdoor Games and Sports
- Fishing
- General Boating
- Bicycling
- Sledding
- Attending Concerts and Plays
- Nature Walking
- Camping
- Day Hiking
- Hunting
- Ice Skating
- Hiking with Pack (Backpacking)
- Water Skiing
- Bird Watching
- Canoeing/Kayaking
- Downhill Skiing
- Cross-Country Skiing
- Sailing
- Photography (Primarily mammals and birds)
- Mountain Climbing

In 1984, a research report from the University of Maryland reported that the rank order of the activity popularity was the same as in 1962, but that the numbers of participants had grown astonishingly.

This broad definition of outdoor recreation, encompassing urban and rural participants, includes more than most single books on outdoor activities are able to cover. Other definitions may be equally broad. The following definition, adapted from Reynold Carlson, is more limiting:

Outdoor recreation is an enjoyable leisure-time activity pursued outdoors or indoors involving knowledge, use, or appreciation of natural resources (Carlson, 1960).

The essence of Carlson's definition is the emphasis on "natural resources," thus eliminating outdoor facilities which are developed and maintained according to carefully planned specifications (e.g., golf courses and tennis courts). Carlson's definition, however, because of its inclusion of indoor activities (e.g., looking at slides of natural resources and reading guidebooks), even though they involve use, knowledge, or appreciation of natural resources, is broader than many outdoor enthusiasts are willing to accept.

A third definition of outdoor recreation is proposed by Clawson and Knetsch in their book, *Economics of Outdoor Recreation*. In spite of the fact that this book was written in 1966, no natural resource economist since then has challenged or altered the definition or the premise upon which it is based. This definition is based on the premise that outdoor recreation occurs on large tracts of land and/or water located at considerable distances from the homes of the recreationists and, consequently, includes several phases. This multiphased concept of outdoor recreation entails the activities, attitudes and economic values of anticipation (planning the event, which includes purchasing equipment, determining the route, and organizing the schedule), travel to the site, activities at the site (hiking, climbing, rafting), travel from the site, and recollection or reflection. While most outdoor leaders and their respective followers seem to be mainly concerned with activities at the site, it is clear that pre-trip planning and transportation, and post-trip evaluation are also integral parts of the leader's responsibility; thus the multiphased concept of outdoor recreation has logical application for this book.

These three definitions may serve to confuse, or even annoy, some outdoor enthusiasts who consider their personal outdoor recreational interest to be far removed from, and even antithetical to, the interests of others. The authors of this book recognize accordingly that the

terms used here will not be generally accepted by all outdoor leaders. For the sake of clarifying the contents of this book, the following discussion will serve to define outdoor pursuits as we see them. It is important to understand that, while the principles for activities pursued by *individuals* are basically the same as those for activities carried out by *groups*, this book focuses upon administration and leadership functions that are carried out with and for *groups* of people. Further, it must be understood that the outdoor pursuits referred to here are usually those undertaken voluntarily for the sake of the activities themselves and with no gain in mind other than the intrinsic value of the activity. This, then, is a book on the administration and leadership of activities usually considered to be recreational.

In the twentieth century, there have been many studies and attempts to define the terms recreation and leisure. For the sake of simplicity, most recreational professionals agree that *recreation* consists of activities chosen voluntarily during leisure time for the sake of the activities themselves. *Leisure* is defined as freedom from duties or responsibilities or time remaining after the necessities of life (sleep, nourishment, and day-to-day responsibilities such as work, school, and chores) are accomplished. Leisure is correlated with discretionary time (time to choose.)

There are many recognized definitions of recreation, but a statement from Jensen (1970) summarizes them most appropriately:

(Today, of course, the statement would be written in nonsexist language; however, in 1970 the male gender was understood to include both sexes.)

Upon analysis of definitions it seems that many of them, even though stated differently, say essentially the same thing. The following elements are common to the several definitions:

1. Recreation directly involves the individual.
2. It is entered into voluntarily.
3. It occurs during leisure time.

4. The motivating force is enjoyment and satisfaction, as opposed to material gain.
5. Recreation is wholesome to the individual and his society.

These common points distinguish recreation from work and other necessary activities; however, they do not give the term the strength it deserves. They do not *clearly distinguish* recreation from amusement, time-filling, or low-quality participation. They do not add a strong characteristic of *quality* to this meaning.

The term "recreation" implies that the participant is recreated in some aspect—physically, psychologically, spiritually, or mentally; that he becomes refreshed and enriched; that he becomes revitalized and more ready to cope with his trials. In order to qualify as recreation, an activity must do something desirable to the participant. It must enrich him and add joy and satisfaction to an otherwise routine day (*Outdoor Recreation in America*, 1970).

Many outdoor scientific expeditions (i.e., studying glaciers and testing new equipment on Mt. Everest, exploring the Mojave Desert, or charting the Colorado River) entail the same skills and often identical leadership principles as recreational activities. However, the goals are specific to the accomplishment of the task, and the process often requires strict discipline, arduous functions, forced effort to succeed and even drudgery, hardship and deprivation—always with the accomplishment of the task in mind.

Recreational experiences may involve the same discipline, ardor, effort, drudgery, hardship, and discomfort. However, the end product is not the accomplishment of a required task; it is the accomplishment of an internal feeling of success, safe return, and joy of accomplishing something of personal value. While the goal of a funded expedition may be to reach the destination and to return with a "product" in the form of information, the goal of recreation is personal satisfaction and, a safe return with a chance to try again, if desired.

It is a moot point to try to determine when an enjoyable outdoor recreation activity becomes an unpleasant bit of drudgery or a life-endangering crisis. Hopefully, leaders and administrators will apply the principles of group guidance and avoid turning recreation into a goal-oriented torturous experience. The major purpose of this book is to discuss the role and function of professional leaders who are paid employees or volunteers leading members of the general public in voluntarily chosen activities with positive, enjoyable expectations.

The term "outdoor pursuits" is widely applied to those activities which entail moving across natural land and/or water resources by nonmechanized means of travel. In this context, this book limits the scope of outdoor pursuits to nonmechanical and nonanimal means of travel. Included in this perception of outdoor pursuits are such activities as hiking, backpacking, climbing (rock and snow), cross-country skiing, primitive camping (summer and winter), canoeing, rafting, caving, and snowshoeing. Specifically included are group activities based on land, snow, or water resources. Excluded are downhill skiing, car camping, motor boating, horseback riding, dog sledding, etc. While the book is focused on nonmechanical group activities involving human judgment in areas remote from modern convenience, much of the material is applicable to the excluded activities. All of the activities are based upon the interrelationship of humans with the natural environment, particularly where that environment may present discomfort, danger, and unique situations.

The terms "outdoor adventure" or "adventure activity" are similar to but slightly different from "outdoor pursuits." Adventure activities are those outdoor pursuits that, in addition to being based upon the interrelationship of the human with the natural environment, apply stress to or challenge the participants *purposefully*. Advanced skills, tenacity, stamina, and courage are elements added to usual outdoor pursuits that cause them to be termed "adventure activities." The point at which an outdoor pursuit becomes an "adventure activity" is often moot and may be determined by the participant

who finds the skills, tenacity, and stamina required by the program are greater than had been anticipated. The novice participant in river rafting may perceive the experience as an outdoor adventure, but if the instructor does not apply stress purposefully, the activity, from the instructor's point of view, is an outdoor recreational pursuit.

It must be recognized that many activities necessitating leadership in the outdoors are not perceived as recreation by the sponsors, leaders and/or participants. Classes required by various educational institutions, military training, referral programs for potential or adjudicated delinquents, and any program whose purpose is to develop self-concept, character, stamina, or other personal attribute cannot be labelled "recreation." Such programs should, nevertheless, follow the same leadership standards and principles as recreational programs. The purposes of each are different; however, the means of achieving those purposes differ little. Philosophically, it is believed that the attitude and technique of the leader can turn an otherwise unpleasant situation into an enjoyable one so that the purpose of the outing can be achieved more willingly, even with enthusiasm. Regardless of the ultimate goal, leadership should never result in an antipathy toward the resources upon which the activities are based, nor in anything other than an attitude of care for those resources.

It must further be understood that there is a fine line between voluntary and required activities. There are times when participants in required activities find themselves enjoying the experience and desiring to participate again. By the same token, there are times when the outdoor recreation enthusiast wishes only to get home and away from the activity. Picture two friends who have climbed a glacier-covered peak in the sunshine and then descended into a cold rain. As they subsequently try to warm themselves over a miserable sputtering fire of wet subalpine fir twigs, one turns to the other and asks, "Is this recreation?"

Thus, regardless of the diversity of outdoor recreation definitions and the vast potential for definitions of outdoor pursuits, this book focuses mainly upon the administration and leadership

of voluntarily chosen nonmechanized outdoor activities undertaken in natural environments, remote from the city, for the purpose of enjoyment, self-realization and the intrinsic value of the experience itself.

The Leisure Experience

In recent years, attempts have been made to define the "leisure experience." It is important that the outdoor leader understand this definition because, while some outdoor pursuits are conducted for the purposes of education or character development, the vast majority of outdoor pursuits are conducted for the purpose of recreation or leisure. Even the activities conducted for the purpose of education may eventually become recreation; thus the understanding of what composes a leisure experience becomes important to the leader.

Defining the "leisure experience" is an attempt to explain the personal nature of an individual's activities as opposed to just having free time. There seems to be agreement that the leisure experience is really a continuum of experiences that vary in intensity from those that are barely perceptible to the individual to those which may go beyond ecstasy into what Maslow (1968) terms the "peak experience" (complete immersion into the experience and a state of oblivion to other forces). Individuals differ in the range and intensity of their leisure experiences. Thoughts, images, feelings, and sensations differ in intensity so, while some individuals feel only slightly exhilarated, others feel at the peak of stimulation. These individual differences, when recognized by the insightful leader, will influence the method of leading.

Further, it has long been recognized that the feeling of the leisure experience changes and is transitory. For example, one may find pleasant emotions in planning an outdoor activity and start out with high expectations of joy. However, after several hours of trudging uphill under a heavy pack, the leisure experience may well resemble drudgery. Upon reaching a level spot and a view of cascading waterfalls, the experience of leisure may well reoccur. Certainly those who start out with trepidation in an outdoor venture because of extrinsic motivation

such as parental or peer coercion and return having found the experience to have been personally satisfying and thrilling have moved from one range of the leisure experience continuum to the other.

It is believed that four conditions must be present for a person to experience leisure: perceived freedom of choice, intrinsic motivation, facilitative arousal, and commitment. Understanding each of these conditions can help a leader appreciate why one individual may hate the outdoor experience while another may love it. Even if the outdoor program is *not* basically recreational in purpose or nature, the leader may be more successful if the conditions for leisure experience are understood.

1. *Perceived freedom of choice.* If the participant perceives that he/she has the freedom to choose the activity (and to choose to end it at any time) a leisure experience may be present. If, on the other hand, the participant feels that there is no choice in participating and does so only as an assignment, a punishment, a required learning experience, or because of peer pressure, then the experience is not one of leisure.

2. *Intrinsic motivation.* If the participant is paid, bribed or enticed into outdoor pursuits, or if participation is for any reason other than personal desire, he/she is not motivated intrinsically. Intrinsic means for the value within something. For example, the intrinsic value of a one hundred dollar bill is no more than that of a one dollar bill. Its intrinsic value is that of a piece of special paper with special printing. The intrinsic value of an outdoor pursuit is purely for the feelings of joy or satisfaction or inner contentment—for the value of the activity itself. The psychological needs of the individual play a big part in determining intrinsic motivation.

3. *Facilitative arousal.* Facilitative arousal in the vernacular refers to “what turns you on.” It may be curiosity, variety, novelty, challenge or countless other stimuli or motivations. This level of stimulus also differs from person to person or from event to event. A novice might find

rapelling from a 50 foot cliff to be too frightening. A person who has rapelled that same cliff many times over a period of ten years might find it boring. But one who is trying it for the first time, after many successful attempts at a lower cliff, might find that experience facilitatively arousing. (He/she is “turned on” by the experience.)

4. *Commitment.* If the participants aren’t personally committed to the activity it is not going to be a leisure experience. All other conditions might be met but, because of minimal interest, psychological burnout, or other priorities, a personal commitment is lacking, and the true leisure experience is lacking. Some people may want to repeat a trip many times and find it exhilarating each time so are committed to continuing it in high spirits. Others may be bored and want to quit because they are no longer committed to the experience. For them, a new route may rekindle the commitment. Those who aren’t committed to the activity in the first place will be a challenge to the leader.

Ideally, the leader wants participants who: (1) choose the activity voluntarily, (2) are there for no motivation other than to participate in the activities themselves, (3) are stimulated by that level of activity, and (4) are committed to the program. If all these conditions are met, the individual will participate in what is known as a “leisure experience.” The intensity of the experience will vary from individual to individual.

(Philosophically, if the outdoor program is purely punitive, or forced upon the individual for some purpose other than contact with the natural environment, the leaders might consider using a different site. Using natural resources with their finite ability to withstand the impact of humans for any purpose other than enjoyable use, understanding or appreciation of natural resources may no longer be acceptable conduct. Certainly one of the purposes of any outdoor program should be the eventual enjoyment, understanding and appreciation of the outdoors in the true context of leisure.)

Participants

Many outdoor leaders perceive their followers to be similar to themselves, but such is rarely the case. Leaders would do well to consider some or all of the following as potential clients:

- Five-year-old youngsters with grandparents in their 80s;
- Families with parents in their late 30s or early 40s with children aged 14, 11 and 8;
- Participants who are hearing impaired, partly or totally blind, physically disabled, mentally disturbed, or learning impaired;
- Minorities (African-American, Oriental, Chicano, and others);
- Students from elementary schools, high schools, or colleges;
- Young men and women who find the outdoors their main source of personal challenge and gratifying recreation;
- Inner-city youth who find the outdoors frightening, alien, and even punitive.

It is especially challenging and not uncommon to find several of the above in one outing group. Leaders of outdoor pursuits must expect a wide range of participant ages, abilities, and backgrounds, many times in combination. While some activities should be limited to the very fit, most groups include a wide range of abilities, interests, and attitudes. The leader must be willing and able to lead the slow, tired, frightened, or recalcitrant follower. Leaders and administrators of outdoor programs often seem to assume that leadership is being offered to segments of the population whose interests and skills in the out-of-doors are the primary reasons for being there. This is more often *not* the case.

Usually participants are grouped with some common denominator as a tie. Regardless of ability, intelligence, income, or even equal liking for the activity, youth groups are tied together by their membership in a nationally sponsored organization with specified goals and behavior patterns. Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, Camp Fire, YMCA, YWCA, and other similar groups are usually involved in outdoor

programs as a sponsored group or troop. Each participant may have different reasons for being there. Social interaction, peer pressures, desire to excel, parental hopes, desire to earn an award, or other motivations may be stronger than a desire for any of the purposes of outdoor pursuits recognized by the leader.

Family groups may participate in outdoor programs for reasons primarily related to family cohesiveness. The main purpose may be to have a chance to interact on a recreational level in a new setting. Here, as in the youth groups, the outdoor experience may be secondary to the family interaction. Leaders of two or three diverse families in a group may even find conflicting objectives from one family to another and may need to make changes in the program objectives and the leading/teaching methods planned for the occasion.

Mixed groups may attend outdoor pursuit programs sponsored by municipal recreation departments, schools, or clubs. Usually participants in such programs are there because of personal goals. Unlike the youth agency groups, they may have no common denominator for belonging to the group and may not even be interested in being part of it. People who join city-sponsored programs, clubs, and college classes may be doing so because the desire to participate in the activity is primary and the temporary group association interest is only secondary or perhaps nonexistent.

The physically or mentally disabled, the adjudicated delinquent, and the social misfit or miscreant are increasingly being programmed into outdoor pursuits for the purpose of developing self-confidence, experiencing success, learning to adjust to new situations, and experiencing group work. The physically disabled, including those with orthopedic, congenital, and neuro-muscular disabling conditions, can usually adjust to the environment and are usually in the program voluntarily with attitudes and skills as attainable (within the limitations of the disability) as any nondisabled person.

The mentally disabled, on the other hand, may not know or understand why they are present or what they should do. Coping with problems caused by snow, danger, cold, rain,

heavy loads, toileting, lack of comprehension, and length of time needed to perform tasks means a different approach to leadership.

The elderly may range in age from 55 to 90 or more. Some may be in better shape mentally and physically than some people much younger. Some may need a slower pace, warmer clothes, more frequent rest, or other considerations. A totally mixed group could contain physical disabilities, mental impairment, the teenager, the retiree, young adults, the middle-aged, and the elderly. In short, the outdoor-pursuit leader can anticipate responsibility for every category of person imaginable and will profit by learning as much about human diversity as he/she can.

The Nonexistent "Typical" Participant

It is unwise to focus all our attention on the "average" or "typical" person involved in outdoor recreation because such an individual is not to be found. The "average" is a composite of many pieces of information—not the description of a verifiable individual. Because of different locales, motivation, and personal attributes, outdoor enthusiasts are as different as are the members of the general public. For example, in 1990 it was found that of the enthusiasts visiting the Inyo National Forest in California, 91 percent were white, 60 percent were males, and 53 percent were college educated. Only five percent were Asian, three percent were Hispanic, and less than one percent were African-American. We cannot generalize that the outdoor recreationist is an educated white male. In *this* case, we can state that the typical participant was white, male, and college educated. In contrast, however, 64 percent of the visitors to the San Gabriel Canyon of the Angeles National Forest were Hispanic and only 22 percent were Caucasian. In this second case, the typical outdoor recreationist was *not* Caucasian. While the reason for the differences is not known, it is surmised that they may have been due to distance factors, socioeconomic differences, motivation and knowledge of opportunities.

In another study of the Angeles National Forest, four major cultural groups made up the sample: U.S.-born Anglos (6 percent), U.S.-born Hispanics (26 percent), Mexican-born Mexicans and Hispanics (45 percent), and Central/South American-born Hispanics (23 percent). The motivations of the respondents varied in respect to place of birth. The respondents born outside the United States had stronger motivational responses for all fifteen reasons (listed on a questionnaire) for going to the forest than those born in the United States. Strongest were the motivations to get away from noise, be with the family, learn about nature, experience new things, and enjoy peace and calm. The fact remains, while we may expect to find most of the participants to be white males, we can also expect to find many participants who are neither white nor male. And we can expect to find participants with many motivations for being in the outdoors. We should not generalize about any population.

Sponsoring Agencies

Participants in outdoor pursuits are of two types: common adventurers or proprietary groups. As common adventurers, they, in essence, sponsor themselves, all taking equal responsibility for cost, equipment, leadership, and success or failure of the event. Common adventure, also known as joint venture, assumes an undertaking wherein all participants have an equal voice in directing the conduct of the enterprise. In other words, common adventurers have no legally designated leader. They are a self-sponsored group with shared leadership responsibilities. They may be members of a college outdoor program, a private climbing club, a group of acquaintances, or a family.

While the principles of outdoor leadership may be applied sagaciously by groups of common adventurers, this book is specifically addressed to those proprietary groups operating under sponsored programs with designated volunteer or employed leaders. Proprietary groups may be discussed under the following six categories. Within each category, leaders may be part- or full-time volunteers, or part- or full-time paid professionals.

1. *Tax-supported Outdoor Programs*

Municipal recreation departments and districts offer many outdoor activity programs.

2. *Youth-agency Outdoor Programs*

(Includes Scouts, Camp Fire, YMCA, YWCA, YMHA, etc.)

These organizations sponsor resident and day camps as well as an extensive array of outdoor trips.

3. *School-sponsored Outdoor Programs*

Elementary and middle schools offer outdoor education programs, often for five days away from home. Colleges and universities often offer elective outdoor skill classes. Recreation and physical education departments provide a variety of outdoor-related courses for their majors and minors. And many natural science departments (e.g., geology, botany, and zoology) require field trips to natural areas.

4. *Church-sponsored Outdoor Programs*

5. *Membership Programs*

These programs include hiking, climbing, and boating clubs, native plant societies, and bird watchers' organizations.

6. *Private Businesses*

These include many types of "for-profit" programs some of which are educational development programs, wilderness use education courses, guided nature tours, tours to other countries, and guide businesses sponsoring water and land trips.

The Values of Outdoor Recreation

One might ask the question, "What good is outdoor recreation that we should spend so much time and money on it?" Or, "What are the values of outdoor pursuits?" One could spend much time relating the *economic* values of outdoor recreation in terms of money spent on equipment, transportation, guide service, and such amenities as photographic equipment,

lightweight food, and how-to books. This book, however, is about people and the benefits of outdoor pursuits to the human being.

In spite of the lack of quantitative data supporting the value of outdoor pursuits, there are *perceived* values that are undeniable. Human beings may be viewed holistically as a combination of mind, body, and spirit. Another way of looking at the holistic individual is as a complex organism whose nonbiological essence is composed of knowledge, skills, and attitudes or emotions. The values of outdoor recreation may relate to each of those domains separately and in combination.

Physical Values

The physical values of outdoor recreation include the benefits of exercise, development of endurance, and increase in cardio-muscular function. With the increase in strength and endurance comes energy, an increase in muscle tone, an increase in the flow of oxygen to the brain, and a general feeling of well-being. Other physical benefits may well be fitness, skills, strength, coordination, exercise, and balance.

Mental Values

The knowledge gained from good-quality outdoor pursuits includes knowledge of self and self-concept, knowledge of safety measures and the need to follow them, and knowledge of skills that relate to the physical values. The knowledge of outdoor skills should be accompanied by the knowledge of the environment in which the activity takes place. Weather, flora, fauna, rock and soil formations, water quality, and changing ecosystems provide the individual with understandings of the world that can last throughout life and make other experiences more interesting.

Emotional Values

The emotions or attitudes one develops through outdoor pursuits may relate to the self, to others, to society, and to the environment. One can gain a sense of achievement, overcome stress, find relaxation, increase self-concept, or just simply enjoy the experience. One may develop new attitudes toward the members of the group because of the closeness of the individuals in accomplishing difficult tasks. From appreciation for the natural environment and a commitment to save it from destruction may emerge a real concern for the survival of the planet after witnessing the results from acid rain, mining, blasting, burning, logging, or herbicides when they are seen face to face in the seemingly untouched wild lands.

Psychological-Sociological Values

The values of outdoor activities may be greatest in terms of the contribution to the individual and to the group. Research has shown that changes in self-esteem as a result of outdoor experiences are both positive and quantitative. Ewert (1987) has identified the potential psychological benefits of outdoor adventure recreation as being: Self-concept, Confidence, Self-efficacy, Sensation-seeking, Actualization, Well-Being, and Personal Testing. He lists potential sociological benefits as: Compassion, Group Cooperation, Respect for Others, Communication, Behavior Feedback, Friendship, and Belonging.

There is research to document the theory that a primary human motivation is to establish control over one's environment. Certainly if participants perceive they have control of the outdoor situation, their behavior is markedly different from behaviors of those who feel they do not have control. Both physical and social space introduces perceptions of control and different reactions. Successful coping with stress leads to enhanced feelings of control. In the outdoor environment, individuals who learn to perceive that they are in control of themselves

and the situation are believed to have greater psychological and physiological well-being than those who feel a lack of control. It is important that the leader understands this, for not only will the individual benefit by positive perceptions of the natural environment, those perceptions may be induced by positive leadership.

In addition to a desire to feel "in" control, outdoor participants seem to desire a freedom "from" control. They feel that they do not have control of their recreational choices if someone or something dictates where and how they must travel. They often resent being controlled by an agency after they have chosen where to go for their recreational pursuits. This results in problems of management, particularly management of wilderness areas. (See Chapter Two for more on this.)

Overall Values

While the following passage was written during a 1954 workshop on recreation, it is interesting to note that the words are still valid today. If the six objectives listed are met, that in itself may be the greatest value of outdoor pursuits.

The first principle of recreation is that the experience must give satisfaction to the participant. This does not mean, however, that certain other values might not be derived. Neither does it mean that the leader and the organization or agency responsible for the activity should not have specific objectives. Objectives are generally stated in terms of values to the individual. Most of them, however, also have social significance, and programs are planned to meet social needs. The fostering of love of the land and pride in country, the understanding and practice of democracy, the strengthening of social institutions, and the development of conservation attitudes—these are values that might come from the participation in desirable outdoor recreation activities. Contributions of recreation to the health and happiness of people are themselves important social values.

The principal purpose of outdoor recreation is to provide for enjoyment, appreciation, and use of the natural environment. Certain more specific objectives are the following:

1. To develop a sense of responsibility for the preservation, care, and wise use of the natural environment;
2. To develop an awareness and understanding of the inter-relatedness of all nature, including man;
3. To develop an understanding and appreciation of man's heritage of outdoor living, skills, and pursuits;
4. To develop good outdoor citizenship;
5. To make a contribution to physical and mental health;
6. To develop resourcefulness, self-reliance, and adaptability (*Athletic Institute*, 1954).

Summary

The principles of outdoor leadership are based on the need to assist those desiring outdoor experiences in making logical and safe transitions from the routine of every day life to a positive interaction with the natural world. This book is designed for outdoor leaders and administrators of both land-based and water-based outdoor activities. While mainly concerned with recreational (voluntary) pursuits, the book also addresses nonrecreational outdoor programs. While the content is focused upon nonmechanical and nonanimal means of travel, much of the material is applicable to other outdoor activities.

There are countless locations for outdoor pursuits, a wide variety of participants, and many benefits to outdoor experiences. Physical, mental, emotional, social, and psychological values have been identified for outdoor pursuits as well as values for the entire outdoor-recreation experience. Regardless of differences among participants, professional quality leadership techniques are needed in every activity.

References

- Athletic Institute. (1954). *The recreation program*. Chicago, IL: The Athletic Institute.
- Brown, C. N. (1982). New handshake: Management partners along the Appalachian Trail, *Parks and Recreation*. National Recreation and Parks Association, June, pp. 36-42, 62.
- Carlson, R.E. (1960). Lecture. Bloomington, IN: Indiana University.
- Clawson, M., & Knetsch, J. L. (1966). *Economics of outdoor recreation*. Baltimore, MD: The Johns Hopkins Press.
- Ewert, A. (1987). Research in outdoor adventure: Overview and analysis. *The Bradford Papers*. Volume II. Bloomington, IN: Indiana University.
- Jensen, C. (1970). *Outdoor recreation in America*. Minneapolis, MN: Burgess Publishing Co.
- Knudson, D. M. (1984). *Outdoor recreation*. Revised edition. New York, NY: Macmillan Publishing Company.
- Maslow, A.H. (1968). *Toward a psychology of being*. New York, NY: D. Van Nostrand Co.
- Nash, R. (1967). *Wilderness and the American mind*. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.
- Outdoor Recreation Resources Review Commission (ORRRC). (1962). *Outdoor recreation for America*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of the Interior.
- Tinsley, H. E., & Tinsley, D. J. (1986). A theory of the attributes, benefits, and causes of leisure experiences. *Leisure Sciences*, 8:1, pp. 27-49.