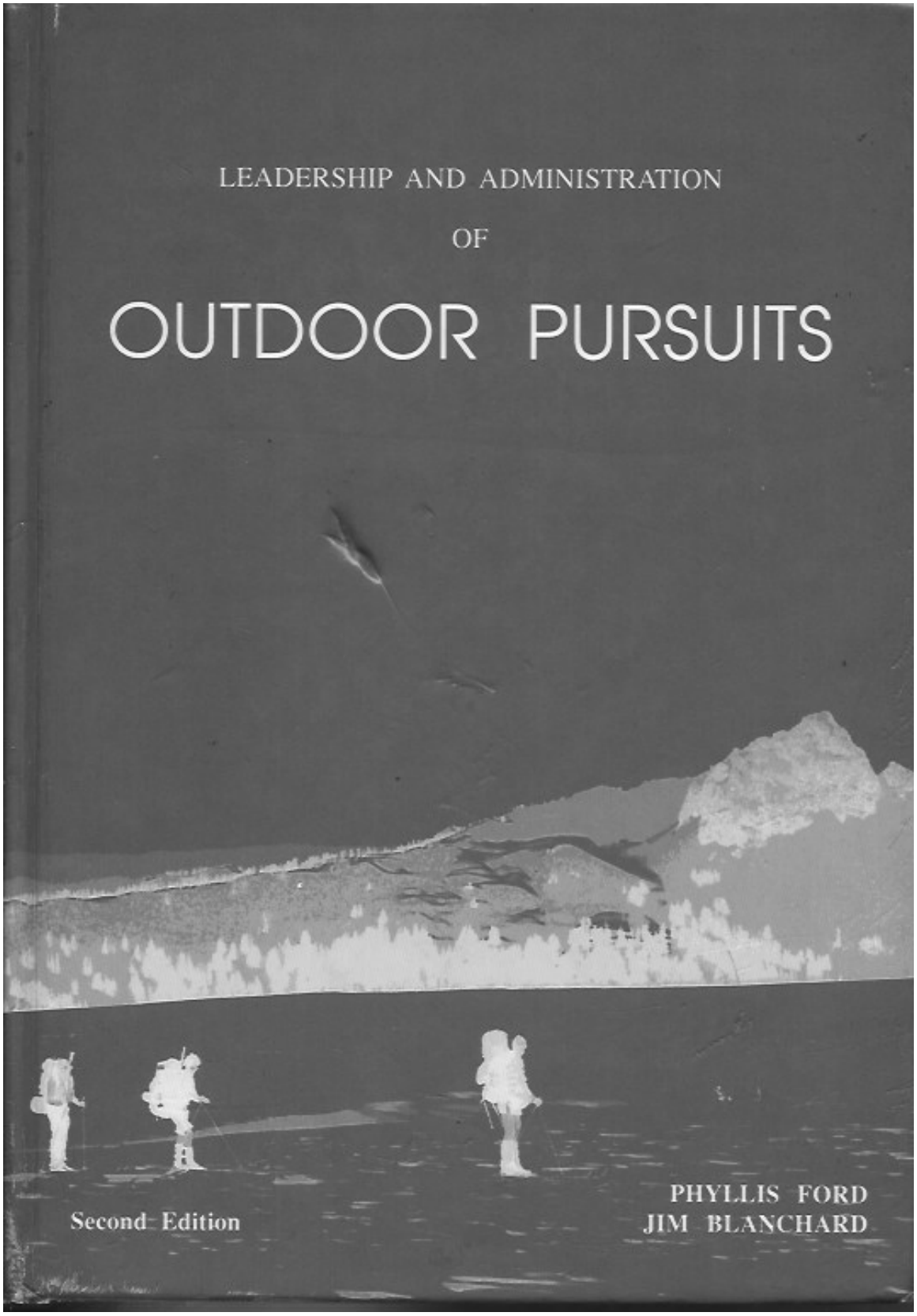
LEADERSHIP AND ADMINISTRATION

OF

OUTDOOR PURSUITS



Second Edition

PHYLLIS FORD
JIM BLANCHARD

Leadership and Administration of

OUTDOOR PURSUITS

Second Edition

by

PHYLLIS FORD

and

JIM BLANCHARD

designed and illustrated by

ANNE BLANCHARD

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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.

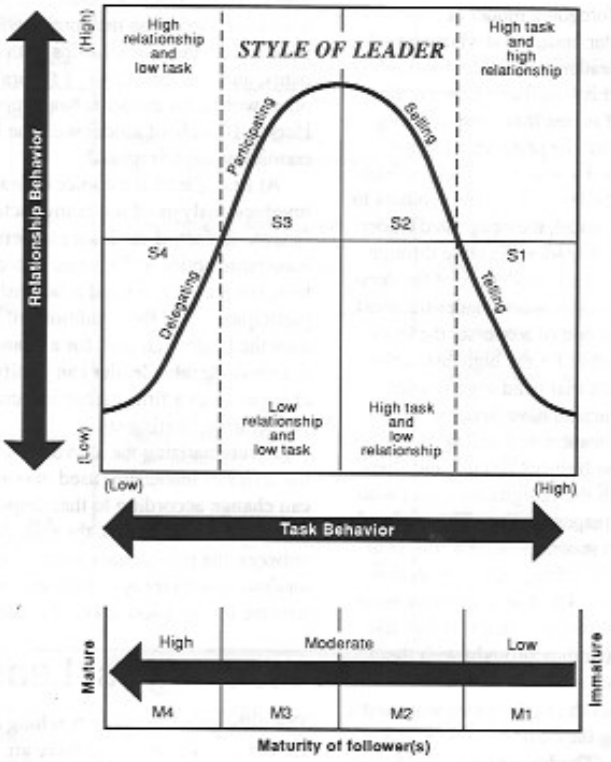
High Task Orientation, Low Relationship (with Followers). When teaching complex skills, such as rappeling or raft guiding, to beginners, the leader must explain the necessity of wearing helmets or completely fastened life jackets. Here, the leader's style is one of organizing, directing, telling, evaluating, 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.

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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 hang-gliding, 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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