

Effective Leadership in Adventure Programming

THIRD EDITION

FIELD HANDBOOK

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HUMAN KINETICS

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HOW TO USE THIS FIELD HANDBOOK

This field handbook is a summary of the top theories, models, and practices that have revolutionized the adventure programming and outdoor leadership professions over the past few decades. Excerpted directly from the main textbook, it has two intents:

- 1) Outdoor leadership students engaged in learning experiences can take this handbook into the field for quick reference instead of carrying the main textbook.
- 2) Adventure programming practitioners, university faculty, and others interested in using the textbook for instructional purposes can view this handbook as a sample of the breadth and depth of the textbook and its presentation of the body of knowledge for outdoor leadership.

In both instances, readers should locate the particular areas that interest them from the contents. Then, read that section in preparation for fieldwork or instruction.

This handbook is not a substitute for the textbook. To purchase the complete textbook, visit <http://www.humankinetics.com/products/all-products/Effective-Leadership-in-Adventure-Programming-3E-With-Web-Resource>.

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OUTDOOR LEADERSHIP AND THE BRICK WALL

Outdoor leadership is a process of social influence in an outdoor setting in which the outdoor pursuits are the media used to create adventure experiences. **Adventure experiences** are challenging situations with uncertain outcomes in which clients apply their competence to counter situational risk, thus resolving the uncertainty and benefiting from any subsequent growth, learning, and change. **Adventure programming** is the deliberate and purposeful use of adventure experiences to bring about growth, learning, and change in clients' interpersonal and intrapersonal relationships. Four fields hallmark the adventure programming profession and are determined by program purpose, as shown in the following table.

The four fields of adventure programming (recreation, education, development, and therapy) primarily address the way clients feel, think, behave, and change, respectively. Each might address elements of the others' chief purposes, but they are defined by their principal intent. For example, in therapy, change cannot occur without also influencing behavior. A change in behavior first requires a change in thinking, and a change in thinking relies on a change in feelings.

The core competencies for effective outdoor leadership can be compared to a brick wall, as shown in the figure. This model wall is built atop a solid foundation. Different types of bricks are glued together by mortar that strengthens the wall.

Differences Among Adventure Programming Fields

AP field	Recreation	Education	Development	Therapy
I want to transform the way clients	Feel	Think and feel	Behave , think, and feel	Clinically resist change , behave, think, and feel
so I will use these facilitation techniques	None (experience speaks for itself)	Basic (funneling and fundamentals)	Intermediate (freezing and frontloading)	Advanced (fortifying and focusing)



For effective outdoor leaders, the **foundation** is a current understanding of important background information. All the skills learned by outdoor leaders will make more sense, become meaningful and relevant, and be gained more easily when they have a context for learning.

The outdoor leadership bricks are of two types: hard and soft skills. **Hard skills** are those that are solid, tangible, measurable, and often easier to assess. In many ways, they represent the “medium” of leadership. Hard skills for effective leaders include the technical activities, safety/risk, and environment. **Soft skills** are those that are amorphous, intangible, difficult to measure, and often more difficult to assess. In many ways, they represent the “method” of leadership. Soft skills for

outdoor leaders include organization, instruction, and facilitation. Softer skills are stacked on harder ones, because organizing, instructing, and facilitating will depend upon and should modify in accord with the technical activity, all safety or risk issues, and any surrounding environmental concerns. The mortar, which cements everything together, is a mix of **metaskills**: those core competencies of a higher order that integrate and potentiate with the other skills. Effective outdoor leaders are frequently defined by their expressed conditional leadership style, effective communication, professional ethics, problem solving, decision making, and sound judgment. These metaskills simply make you a more effective leader once you have a solid foundation and a set of hard- and soft-skill bricks to bond together.

MODIFIED ACCIDENT EQUATION

Accidents occur when the following three types of dangers combine to create an **accident potential**: (1) unsafe conditions created by the outdoor environment, (2) unsafe acts performed by participating clients, and (3) unsafe errors made by leaders (see the figure to the right). The idea of this accident model is that as each of these sources grows in strength or quantity, its “circle” moves closer to the middle, creating a greater overlap and thus greater potential for an accident.

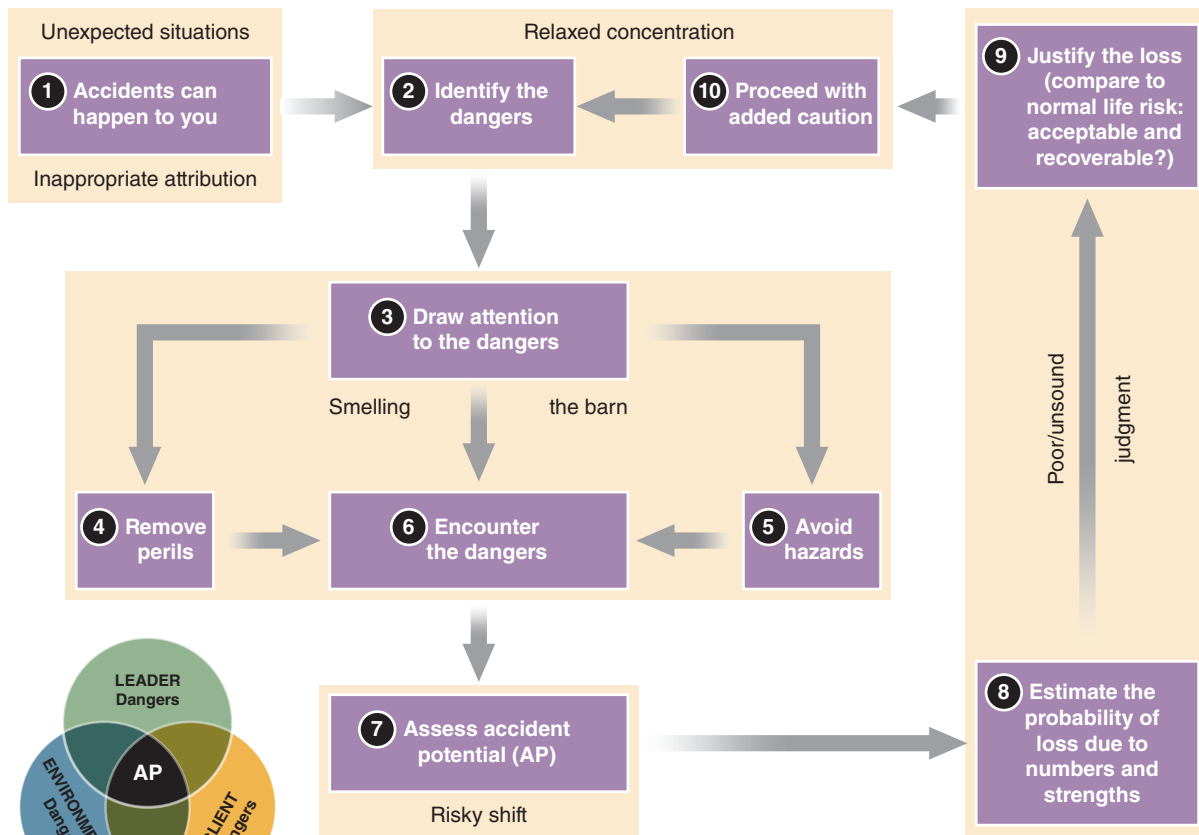
Several examples are shown in the next figure.



Environmental dangers	Leader dangers	Client dangers
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • altitude • animals • animal traps • avalanche • cold water • currents, tides, and surf • deadfall • deep snowpack • deep water • falling trees • flash floods • illness • insects • lightning • loose rock and boulders • moving water • rockfall • stoves and fires • strainers in rivers • uneven terrain underfoot • vehicles • visibility • weather • wet or slippery terrain 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • assumption • attitude toward risk • carelessness • complacency • denial • distraction • erratic behavior under stress • fatigue • flexibility or resistance to change • goals or preconceptions • health status • ineffective supervision • lack of experience • lack of knowledge or skill • lack of respect for hazard • overconfidence • peer pressure • poor communication • poor conflict-resolution skills • poor decision or indecision • poor expedition • poor leadership • seeking novelty out of routine • summit fever • tunnel vision • unaware of hazard • unrealistic schedule • unresolved discrepancies 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • cooking • exceeding ability • failure to follow instructions • fall • fall on rock • fall on snow • games • haste, rushing to meet schedule • inadequate supervision • inappropriate role modeling • ineffective instruction • lost • planning errors • poor hygiene • poor position • poor technique • spilled hot water • stove fire • technical system fails • unsafe speed (fast or slow)

Reprinted, by permission, from T. Schimelpfenig, 1996, *Teaching safety awareness. Proceedings of the Risk Management in the Outdoors National Conference* (Tasmania: ORCA Publishers).

DANGER ANALYSIS



Based on Priest and Baillie 1987.

Use the following 10-step procedure for **danger analysis** (which is summarized in the figure above) to reduce the likelihood or severity of an accident:

1. **Accidents can happen to you, so plan ahead.** Know what you will do for each potential accident *before* it happens.
2. **Identify the dangers.** Maintain a continuous vigilant search for dangers and imagine what might happen at any time.
3. **Draw attention to the dangers.** Point out dangers to clients and coleaders.
4. **Remove perils.** Remove perils only if removal does not increase the risk of this or another danger occurring.

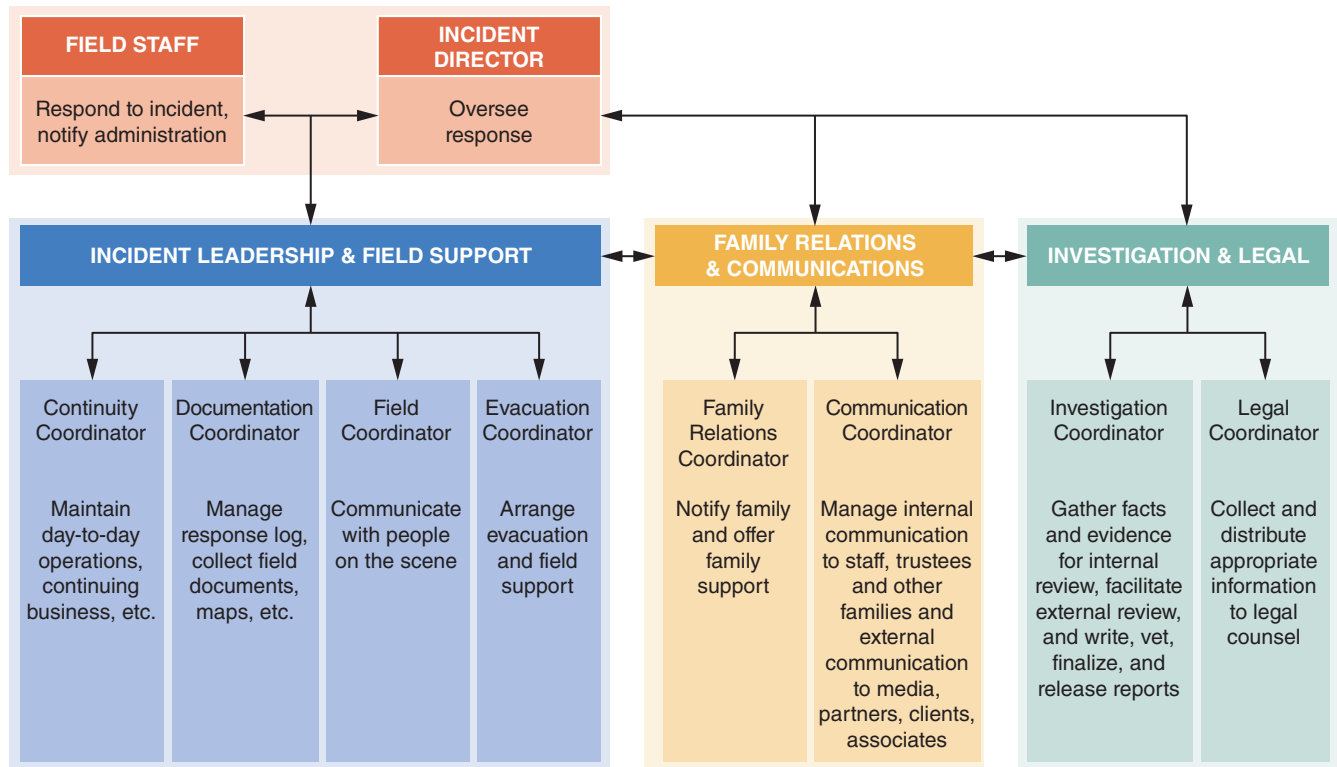
5. **Avoid hazards.** Attempt to avoid hazards by rerouting an expedition, changing the activity, cancelling the program, or adopting a different plan.
6. **Encounter the remaining dangers.** You must choose how and when to address dangers when the hazards are lowest.
7. **Assess accident potential.** Reclassify the dangers as environmental, human, or leader, and look for overlap and interaction.
8. **Estimate the probability of loss.** How much overlap is expected? How probable is this overlap to cause an accident?

9. **Justify the loss.** Choose a course of action for which the accident outcome is likely to be acceptable and recoverable.
10. **Proceed with caution.** Make preplanned and appropriate adjustments, but know your countermeasures in advance.

Be aware of the following six factors that can inhibit your ability to analyze danger:

1. **New or unexpected situations.** You are less likely to competently address situations if you have limited experience.
2. **Inappropriate attribution.** Keep your ego and pride in check when taking credit or assigning blame.
3. **Relaxed concentration.** Don't drop your guard because of fatigue, distraction, or carelessness.
4. **Smelling the barn.** Don't rush to get back or attempt to maintain a time schedule, especially near the end of the trip.
5. **The risky shift phenomenon.** When people are in groups, they tend to make riskier decisions than when they are alone.
6. **Poor or unsound judgment** always inhibits many aspects of outdoor leadership, and risk management is no exception.

ADAPTED CRISIS MANAGEMENT



This figure above is composed of the **field staff members**, who have already notified the program administration and become the “front line” responding to any incident; an appointed **incident director**, who oversees the organization’s crisis response and networks with other staff and colleagues to provide relief or assistance; and the following **eight additional functions**:

- **Continuity and documentation.** Two people or one individual performing both roles can maintain day-to-day operations and can record crisis responses and paperwork.
- **Field and evacuation.** Two people or one individual performing both roles can communicate with staff and other colleagues in the field and can arrange for victim evacuation.
- **Family relations and communication.** Two people or one individual performing both

roles can inform and support family and can contact and release information to internal staff or external media.

- **Investigation and legal.** Two people or one individual performing both roles can examine and enable an incident review and can manage legal issues and information.

The **incident director** establishes protocols for supervision and communication among the eight functions. Miscommunications about any aspect of a crisis can be disastrous. Therefore, all coordinators have the responsibility to double-check the accuracy of information exchanged, and the director is accountable for triple-checking. Once the normal resources of the organization have been exceeded, this director also makes the ultimate decision of when and how to engage the resources of external agencies and emergency services.

ENVIRONMENTAL CHECKLISTS

The Leave No Trace (LNT) guidelines include the following seven principles that can be adapted for various environmental areas and conditions:

1. Plan ahead and prepare.
2. Travel and camp on durable surfaces.
3. Dispose of waste properly (what you pack it in and pack it out).
4. Leave what you find.
5. Minimize campfire impact.
6. Respect wildlife.
7. Be considerate of others.

Leopold's land ethic: "A thing [an act in the outdoor environment] is right when it tends to preserve the integrity, stability, and beauty of the biotic community. It is wrong when it tends to do otherwise."

Leave No Trace lists several aspects to consider when preparing an environmentally sound outdoor experience:

1. Know the area and what to expect. Pay attention to the area's sensitivity and popularity when route or camp planning.
2. Stick to an appropriate group size. Groups larger than 10 can have a greater impact than smaller ones.
3. Select appropriate equipment that creates less impact on the environment.
4. Repackage food before leaving for the outdoors to reduce litter, broken glass, and spillage.

"Leave nothing but footprints; take nothing but photographs; kill nothing but time."

Staying on trails. In sensitive or fragile off-trail areas, spread out and travel on durable surfaces (rock, planks, etc.).

Selecting a campsite. Choose flat and dry ground that has shelter from the elements, lacks

insects, is close to drinking water, has ground cover, and does not show signs of danger. Determine whether you should use an existing campsite or establish a new one. Stay at least 50 meters (164 feet) from creeks, rivers, and trails and at least 100 meters (328 feet) from ponds or lakes. In some regions, the guidelines for these distances may be as great as 1/3 kilometer (1/4 mile) away from water sources, trails, or private property. Consider how the layout of a campsite might create new trails between tents and toilet areas and how the cooking area might be repeatedly trodden by people hanging around and shuffling their feet to keep warm while waiting for meals. Rotate areas of congestion to disperse wear and tear; this may mean moving sites if appropriate.

Pitching tents. Pitch tents on sand, duff, or mineral soil and avoid vegetated areas. When erecting a tent or other shelter, do not dig drain channels around its base as these channels can leave permanent scars. Instead, pitch tents on elevated sites to eliminate the need for trenching. Don't sweep away vegetation or organic material to get to the ground; set up the tent on top of these natural cushions.

Breaking camp. Completely remove any string tied to vegetation for supporting the tent. Fill in tent-stake holes, replace any rocks or logs that you moved, and scatter a little ground duff or cover over any compacted areas. Brush out footprints or matted grass with a stick. Perform a final check for any lost equipment or leftover litter; then bag trash and carry it out.

Disposing of waste. When disposing of fecal matter, avoid polluting water sources, eliminate contact with insects and animals, maximize decomposition, and minimize the chances of social impacts. Use individual "cat holes." Dig a small pit about 15 centimeters (6 inches) into the topsoil layer. Then, bury fecal matter in the top few inches of the humus layer where bacterial action can speed

degradation. Leaving fecal matter on the surface of hot and dry or cold and wet ground in remote areas sometimes aids a faster breakdown than burying it. Locate cat holes at least 100 meters (328 feet) from any water or trail, remembering that this distance should be greater in some circumstances. Consider using natural alternatives for toilet paper such as snow or stones and sticks. If toilet paper and feminine hygiene products are used, carry them out in doubled plastic bags. Carry out all human wastes when spelunking in caves. Cat holes are not necessary for urine. While posing little threat to human health, the odor of urine can be unpleasant, and the salts in urine can cause animals to dig up the ground. Urinate on rocky or sandy areas away from camp and water sources.

Building a fire. Ask yourself if the fire is necessary. Stoves can provide for the needs of people traveling in the outdoors. If, however, you want a fire for cooking or need one for survival, use an existing fire pit or carry a fire pan (a large tin can with holes in it). Use only “dead and down” wood as fuel. Don’t break or cut the branches off living trees. Do not build the fire near any combustible items, such as tree roots, logs, or tents, and keep a large supply of water on hand to extinguish any runaway flames. If you build the fire in a pristine area without any previous scars, avoid leaving any trace by making a platform, or mound, fire on bare, flat rock with a deep layer of sand and gravel spread over the exposed rock to prevent charcoal staining. Use these fire structures instead of pit fires, and clean up mound fires as you would any others.

Washing. Soap is rarely necessary for washing hands, bodies, or dishes. Sand is an effective scouring substitute. If soap is necessary, use it sparingly

because high concentrations of soap left on dishes can cause diarrhea. Pick a biodegradable soap with a low phosphate content. Lather first and then rinse over deep mineral soil situated well away from water. Soaping, brushing teeth, or washing clothes should take place 100 meters (328 feet) away from water or camp. Dig a sump hole only for dishwater or for other liquids but not for solid foods. Eat the leftovers later or carry them out.

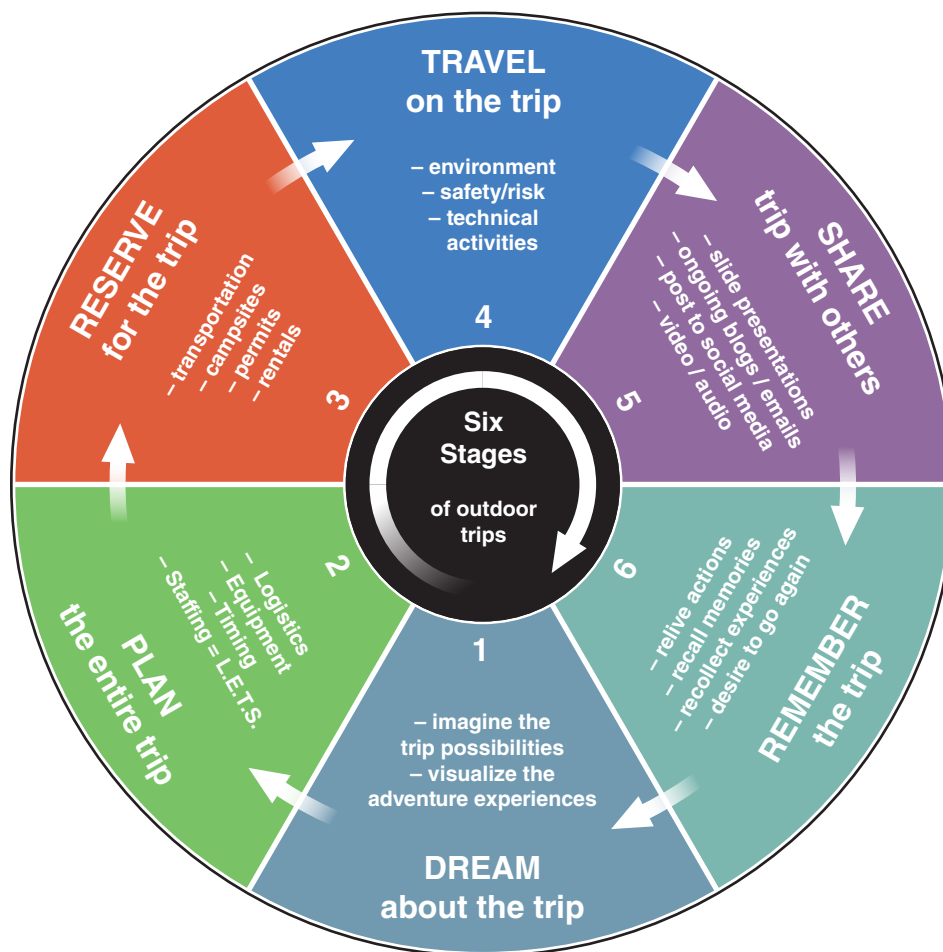
Cooking. Cook and handle food well downwind from camp as the aroma will likely attract bears or other local animals, and securely store food in animal-proof containers hung high among the trees. If possible, use leftover food in the next meal. Don’t bury it in the ground because animals may dig it up and eat it. Pack and carry out all that you packed and carried in! Don’t burn or bury litter and leftover food. Use stoves, packing an ample fuel supply, instead of open fires, which consume wood. In many areas, this fuel supply is diminishing, and its use can interfere with biological or degradation processes that are integral parts of the local ecosystem.

Nonintrusive behaviors. Because people seek solitude almost as often as they seek nature, social impacts are also important while adventuring in the outdoors. Consider the visual impact of brightly colored equipment and clothing in the outdoors. Except in emergencies and hunting seasons, avoid neon colors; instead, use more subtle earth tones. Unless it is to avoid a potential accident, don’t flag trails with brightly colored surveyor’s tape. Noise as well as bright colors can “pollute” others’ experiences. Select campsites that won’t interfere with the view and privacy of other campers. Keep noise levels down at all times. We are not there to party!

SIX STAGES OF OUTDOOR TRIPS

Trip organization has the following six stages:

1. **Dream** about the trip: Imagine possibilities and visualize the experience.
2. **Plan** the entire trip: LETS = logistics, equipment, timing, and staffing.
3. **Reserve** for the trip: Book campsites, transportation, permits, and rentals.
4. **Travel** on the trip: Perform technical, environmental, and safety skills.
5. **Share** trip with others: Post video and audio recordings and images via e-mails and blogs.
6. **Remember** the trip: Relive actions, recollect memories, recall experiences, and express the desire to go again.



TRIP-PLANNING CHECKLIST

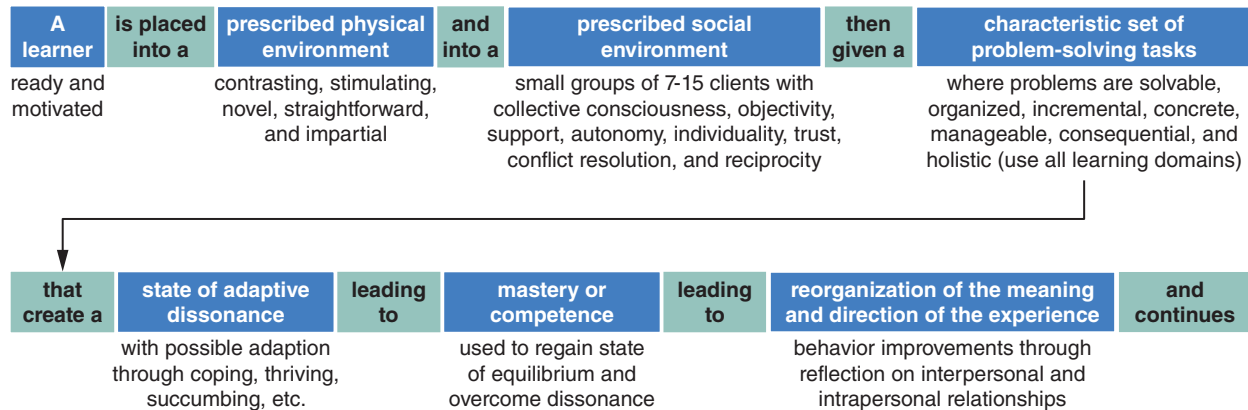
1. **Rationale.** What is the reason for doing the trip and the purpose of the program?
2. **Activities.** Does the chosen activity match the needs established by the trip rationale? If not, modify the activity and recheck its compatibility before continuing.
3. **Locations.** Does the chosen location match the needs established by the trip rationale? Is it compatible with the selected activities? If not, modify the activity or location and recheck compatibilities before continuing.
4. **Routing and scheduling.** Do the chosen route and schedule match the needs established by the trip rationale? Are they compatible with the activities and location? If not, modify the routing, scheduling, activities, or location and recheck their compatibilities before continuing.
5. **Clients.** Do the clients match the needs established by the trip rationale? Are they compatible with the routing, scheduling, activities, and location? If not, modify the appropriate trip components and recheck their compatibilities before continuing.
6. **Groups.** Do the groups match the needs established by the trip rationale? Are they compatible with the clients, routing, scheduling, activities, and location? If not, modify the appropriate trip components and recheck their compatibilities before continuing.
7. **Staffing.** Do staff members match the needs established by the trip rationale? Are they compatible with the groups, clients, routing, scheduling, activities, and location? If not, modify the appropriate trip components and recheck their compatibilities before continuing.
8. **Equipment.** Do the equipment lists match the needs established by the trip rationale? Are they compatible with the staff, groups, clients, routing, scheduling, activities, and location? If not, modify the appropriate trip components and recheck their compatibilities before continuing.
9. **Food and water.** Do the food and water provisions match the needs established by the trip rationale? Are they compatible with the equipment, staff, groups, clients, routing, scheduling, activities, and location? If not, modify the appropriate trip components and recheck their compatibilities before continuing.
10. **Accommodations.** Do the accommodation arrangements match the needs established by the trip rationale? Are they compatible with the food, equipment, staff, groups, clients, routing, scheduling, activities, and location? If not, modify the appropriate trip components and recheck their compatibilities before continuing.
11. **Transportation.** Does the transportation match the needs established by the trip rationale? Is it compatible with the accommodations, food, equipment, staff, groups, clients, routing, scheduling, activities, and location? If not, modify the appropriate trip components and recheck compatibilities before continuing.
12. **Communication.** Does communication match the needs established by the trip rationale? Is it compatible with the transportation, accommodations, food, equipment, staff, groups, clients, routing, scheduling, activities, and location? If not, modify the appropriate trip components and recheck compatibilities before continuing.

13. **Budgeting.** Does the budget match the needs established by the trip rationale? Is it compatible with the communication, transportation, accommodations, food, equipment, staff, groups, clients, routing, scheduling, activities, and location? If not, modify the appropriate trip components and recheck compatibilities before continuing.
14. **Safety and risk management.** Do the safety and risk management plans match the needs established by the trip rationale? Are all pieces of information included in the plan? Are they compatible with the budget, communication, transportation, accommodations, food, equipment, staff, groups, clients, routing, scheduling, activities, and

location? If not, modify the appropriate trip components and recheck compatibilities before continuing.

Triple-check. Immediately before departure, get the latest weather forecast or tidal charts and check the local conditions for icy roads, muddy trails, river flow rates, snow depth, and the like. Encourage clients to call one another to ensure that no one oversleeps. Let them determine their own car pool arrangements to the initial meeting place. Double- and triple-check the previously listed 14 steps. Is everything compatible? Make the final decision to go or alter, adapt, or cancel the trip. Last, establish and continually refine criteria for determining whether plans need to change midstream. Stay flexible!

OUTWARD BOUND PROCESS MODEL



The **learner** needs to be open to learning and be physically capable of performing the tasks they face, cognitively thinking about and reflecting on the experience, and dealing with any extreme stress that may arise from doing and reflecting.

Prescribed physical environments are generally multisensory, neutral, and straightforward. Their unfamiliarity of the environment is valuable because it contrasts with the clients' familiar home environments. This contrast allows clients to see old behavior patterns in a new light from a richer perspective and to notice behavior patterns that they may have overlooked in familiar settings. Unfamiliar physical environments may also allow clients to "try on" new behaviors in an environment that does not have the same limitations or fears as familiar settings. Successful new behaviors that are repeatedly practiced in the unfamiliar setting may serve as first steps toward integrating behavior changes in more familiar settings.

Prescribed social environments typically consist of an interdependent group of 7 to 15 clients with a common goal. The group needs to be

- large enough to produce a wealth of differing behaviors, yet small enough that sepa-

rate subgroups diversify and form around these behaviors,

- large enough that conflict results from differing client opinions, yet small enough that the group possesses the ability and resources to resolve them,
- large enough to create a collective force through which individuals can and cannot reach certain goals working separately, yet small enough that the group can support each client's individual goal, and
- large enough that a supportive state of reciprocity occurs in which strengths and weaknesses can be traded off, yet small enough that members can contribute their individual strengths and, through such an exchange, use the strengths of others.

A **characteristic set of problem-solving tasks** contributes to competence, functional change, and other positive benefits experienced by clients. These should be organized to suit the group's skills, needs, and maturity and should be sequenced progressively from simple to complex and with increasing consequences.

By acting to create change and by reflecting on the effectiveness of their actions, clients can learn valuable interpersonal and intrapersonal lessons arising from their adaptation to a **state of dissonance**, or the anxious difference between the way clients perceive their current state of being and the way they would like their reality to be. If they don't resolve dissonance, clients can become disempowered, disinterested, or both. What you must implement as a leader are **adaptive dissonance** situations. These are opportunities in which clients choose to overcome dissonance and reach a new state of equilibrium by adapting their behaviors. Adapting instills a sense of skill or talent and gives clients insights into their behaviors so they can transfer new learning to their home environments.

Success in the adaptive dissonance process is achieved through clients' **mastery** of the experience. This is generally driven by clients who are

motivationally ready; alert in a novel, adventurous environment; appropriately supported by group members and the leader; and presented with structured problems facilitated for mastery of learning. The mastery produced by successfully resolving the adaptive dissonance presented by a situation motivates behavior change.

While mastery provides a motivation for change, reflection on the experience informs clients toward **reorganizing the meaning and direction** of change in their lives. The lasting impact of this reorganization is only as strong as a client's ability to transfer change in a manner that is lasting and continuous. When clients master problems through adventure experiences and these associated processes, their lives are often enhanced in positive ways. The purpose behind achieving mastery and reorganization is to generalize, or transfer, the successful strategies and associated feelings to other situations.

THREE TYPES OF TRANSFER

Transfer represents the integration of learning from the adventure program into the participant's real life. However, clients may or may not be able to successfully apply what they learn in the adventure environment to other environments, such as on the job, within the family, or at school, because these environments are very different from the adventure program. The following three types of transfer are possible:

1. **Specific transfer** involves the learning of particular skills, habits, or associations for use in closely related situations. The skills learned are transferred to another similar situation and used in the same manner.
2. **Nonspecific transfer** refers to learning general principles or behaviors and applying them to different situations. The processes learned are transferred to another different situation.
3. **Metaphoric transfer** involves making two seemingly different and separate environments (like those in the nonspecific example above) appear more similar

through the deliberate and purposeful use of metaphor. A **metaphor** is an idea, object, or description used in place of a different idea, object, or description in order to denote comparative similarity between the two. Metaphoric transfer occurs when parallels can be imagined between two learning environments. These metaphors can be

- spontaneous (clients spontaneously discover important and relevant connections between the adventure experience and their lives without assistance from anyone),
- analogous (clients discover these connections between environments through reflective discussions and other facilitation techniques), or
- structured (experiences are deliberately framed or introduced so as to strengthen the metaphoric message on behalf of the clients— see also **isomorphic** framing).

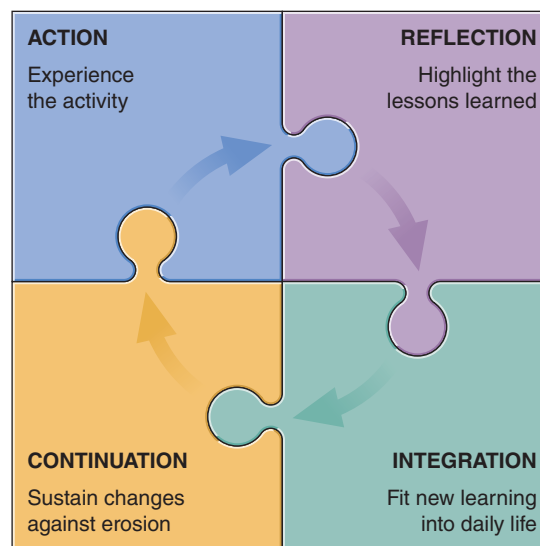
FOUR PHASES OF EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING

Experiential learning is about the active doing rather than the passive being done to. All learning is **experience based** because learning is deeply rooted in action. However, learning becomes **experiential** when the three elements of reflection, integration, and continuation are added to the action of adventure programs.

- **Action** means experiencing adventure activities with novel task completion and problem solving.
- **Reflection** refers to “looking back on” the experience through debriefing or similar facilitation methods to highlight the lessons learned and identify new concepts and clarify existing ones.

- **Integration** is the phase during which lessons learned transfer to daily life as changes in feeling, thinking, or behaving and where transference is strengthened by the conscious use of metaphor.
- **Continuation** maintains and sustains these daily life changes in the face of erosive forces such as peer pressure or lack of resources and avoids returning to old habits, ideas, or emotions.

As an effective outdoor leader, you have the ability to facilitate these learning experiences and guide clients through repeating cycles of the four phases.



SIX PHILOSOPHICAL QUESTIONS

Philosophy comes from the Greek words for “lik-ing” or “seeking wisdom.” It considers the under-lying principles and the ultimate real truth (versus the ideal truth) of the human condition. Philosophy has six branches that relate to adventure program-

ming: aesthetics, ethics, logic, politics, epistemol-ogy, and metaphysics. For our purposes, these branches of philosophy ask different questions about adventure programming (see the table be-low).

The Six Branches of Philosophy and the Questions They Ask About Adventure Programming

Branch of philosophy	Is the study of	Example	Question asked	Answers found in
Epistemology	Methods and theories of knowing	The nature and origin of the profession’s body of knowledge.	Why do I choose to lead adventure programming?	Introduction and chapters 1 and 2 on research and philosophy
Metaphysics	Methods and theories of reality	Create or view reality and meaning through the natural world.	How do I know that what I do is the truth?	Chapter 2 on philosophy and the rest of the textbook
Aesthetics	Form and artistic beauty	Wilderness provides the inherent values of solitude and naturalness.	What role does nature play?	Chapter 2 on philosophy
Ethics	Conduct and moral living	Challenge by choice gives clients the rights to select their personal levels of engagement.	What are the correct values or principles to lead by and how do I resolve a dilemma?	Chapter 3 on professional ethics
Politics	Society and social order	Human interactions in small-group adventures.	How can I work best with individuals and teams of clients?	Chapters 9 through 13, from social psychology to facilitation skills
Logic	Thinking and reasoning methods	The three keystones of leadership: judgment, problem solving, and decision making	How do I make decisions, solve problems, and develop sound judgment?	Chapters 14, 15, and 16 on decision making, problem solving, and sound judgment

THREE TYPES OF ETHICS

Knowing the principles behind the ethical foundation used by the leader will often determine the moral actions used with clients. Three types of ethics are important to outdoor leaders.

Principle ethics are based on objective, predetermined, and impartial rules that are often pre-established by a governing body or professional organization (e.g., Association for Experiential Education Accreditation Standards). They are based on the belief that the decisions being examined are similar in context and can be compared for relative value for the client. Principle ethics are independent of the situation, and create specific rules that apply for all situations.

Virtue ethics are based on the belief that ethical situations are independent of one another and each situation possesses its own particular conforming factors and influences. Contrary to principle ethicists, virtue ethicists believe you cannot apply any

decisions made in one situation to another situation and ethical behavior must be determined independently for each specific situation. Virtue ethics are guided by the particular virtues associated with being a moral outdoor leader rather than the principles of being ethical. Virtue ethics are dependent on the situation and use specific rules for each particular situation.

Feminist ethics focus the ethical decision-making process on the emotional, intuitive, and individual characteristics of the client. Feminist ethics often seek to include the client in the resolution of the ethical dilemma whenever appropriate and possible. Feminist ethical principles consider the personal experience and involvement of the leader and client as part of the resolution of the ethical dilemma. Potential power differences between the client and the leader and the possible influence of cultural biases in making value-laden decisions are considered.

Summary of Differentiating Factors Among Three Ethical Approaches

Differentiating elements	Independent of situation?	Specific for all populations?	Client involvement in resolving ethical dilemma?
Principle ethics	Yes, independent of situation	Yes, specific rules for all populations	No
Virtue ethics	No, dependent on situation	No, specific rules for each case	Generally not
Feminist ethics	No, dependent on situation	No, specific rules for each case	Yes

UNDERSTAND NONNEGOTIABLE VALUES

ACTIVE Opposition	PASSIVE Opposition	Concerned Co-existence	Unconcerned Co-existence	PASSIVE Support	ACTIVE Support
---	--	-	+	++	+++
This issue is NEGATIVE			This issue is POSITIVE		
If offered the chance, I will SPEAK UP against and ACT to PREVENT the cause	If offered the chance, I will SPEAK UP against , but not act	If offered the chance, I will NOT act nor speak up	If offered the chance, I will NOT act nor speak up	If offered the chance, I will SPEAK UP for , but not act	If offered the chance, I will SPEAK UP for , and ACT to FURTHER the cause
I will stop this from overlapping my lifestyle by AVOIDING exposure and HINDERING progress	If this happens to overlap my lifestyle, I will DISPUTE and OBSTRUCT the cause	I am not sure why this is such a big deal, but I can TOLERATE the cause as long as it doesn't overlap my lifestyle	I am not sure why this is such a big deal, but I can ACCEPT the cause in case it happens to overlap my lifestyle	If this happens to overlap my lifestyle, I will ACKNOWLEDGE and AID the cause	I will encourage this to overlap my lifestyle, by EMBRACING interaction and PROMOTING progress

Based on your beliefs and values, the potential for conflict between you and a minority of clients may become so great that working with them would be ethically inappropriate. Proactively knowing where you stand on issues and understanding the potential for conflict is the first step toward avoid-

ing an uncomfortable situation before it happens. Think about your position in advance using the scale above. Know your nonnegotiable values. The clearer you can be with these, the less likely it is that you will encounter difficult ethical issues.

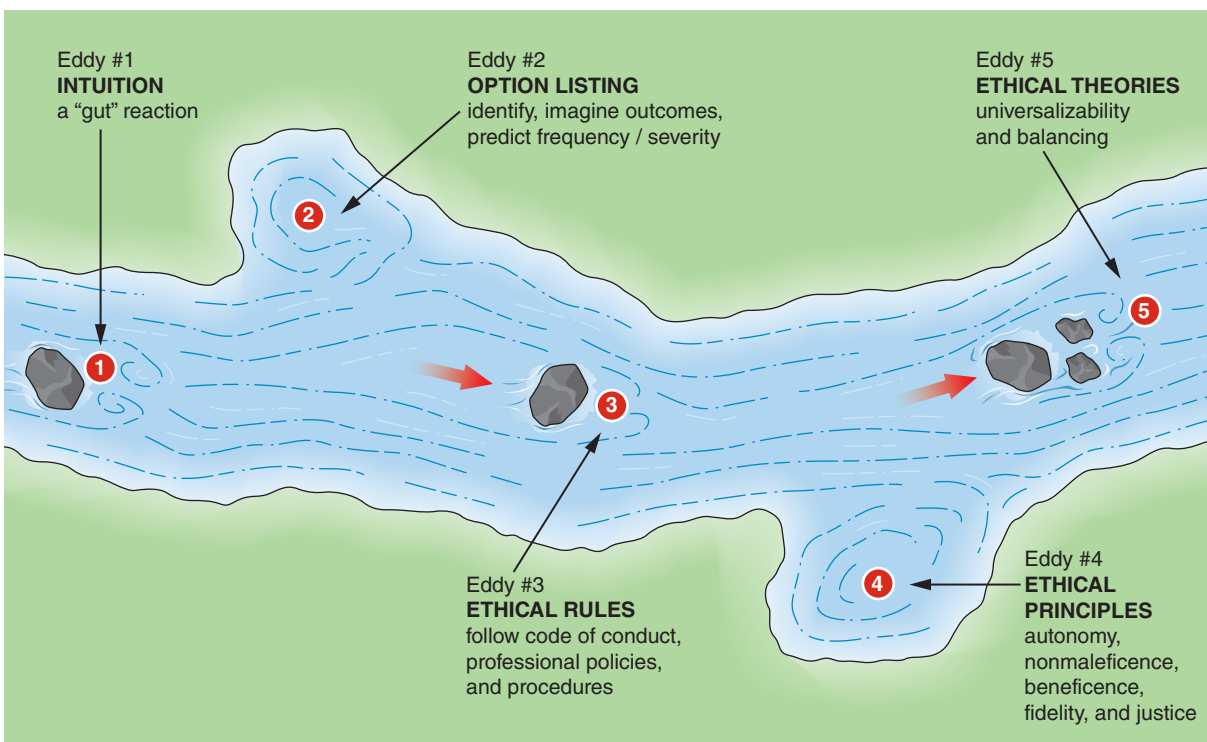
PROFESSIONAL ETHICS

Know the ethical standards of your profession and use them. Along with examining the appropriateness of programming for certain clients, outdoor leaders should be fully cognizant of what are considered ethical behaviors in their field. These are divided into the following 10 categories:

1. **Competence** (e.g., not working beyond your capability): boundaries of competence, continuing training
2. **Integrity** (e.g., using honesty, fairness, and respect with clients): interaction with other professionals, supervision
3. **Responsibility** (e.g., caring for the clients' well-being as well as the environment's): basis for professional judgments, initiation and length of services, and concern for the environment
4. **Respect** (e.g., fundamental rights, dignity, and worth of clients and peers): policy against discrimination, ethic of empowerment, describing the nature and results of adventure programming, informed consent, fees, advertisement, distortion of information by others, and public opinions and recommendations
5. **Concern** (e.g., clients' physiological and psychological needs and well-being): professional relationships, dual relationships, sexual relationships, physical contact/nonsexual contact, behavior management, physical needs of clients, physical treatment of clients, appropriate use of risk, assisting clients in obtaining alternative services, confidentiality, use of case materials with teaching or professional presentations, and storage and disposal of client materials
6. **Recognition** (e.g., social responsibility toward the broader community needs)
7. **Objectivity** (e.g., limiting relationships with clients only to the roles of adventure therapist/outdoor leader and client)
8. **Service** (e.g., assisting people in need by addressing client social issues)
9. **Social justice** (e.g., challenging social injustices, particularly for those clients who are subject to society's greatest levels of unjust actions and perspectives)
10. **Dignity and worth of the person** (e.g., respecting the personal rights of individuals)

Although all these guidelines represent critical steps in advancing adventure programming and the outdoor leadership profession, simply following such guidelines does not release you from the need to apply and use principles of ethical judgment.

MORAL REASONING MODEL



Outdoor leaders will often be faced with an ethical dilemma: a difficult choice between at least two alternatives that are equally undesirable. The key to resolving such a dilemma lies in feeling confident with your choice. The model above is useful for resolving an ethical dilemma. It consists of multiple steps using a process of ethical reasoning that examines issues in a progressive sequence. If you can't make a well-founded ethical decision at one step, you advance to the next one, which is usually more general and abstract in its approach to the issue.

Ethical responses at the **intuition** level come from prereflective or "gut" reactions to the question of what feels right. The ethical beliefs associated with these decisions are so established the answer is obtained through "ordinary moral sense."

When you are unable to resolve ethical decisions at the intuition level, **option listing** and eval-

uating options and their outcomes and potential ramifications are necessary. This step serves as a foundation for ethical decision making in whichever of the three remaining steps you use.

Ethical rules are externally established codes of conduct. The guidelines most like ethical rules for adventure programming and outdoor leadership are those noted previously for professional ethics.

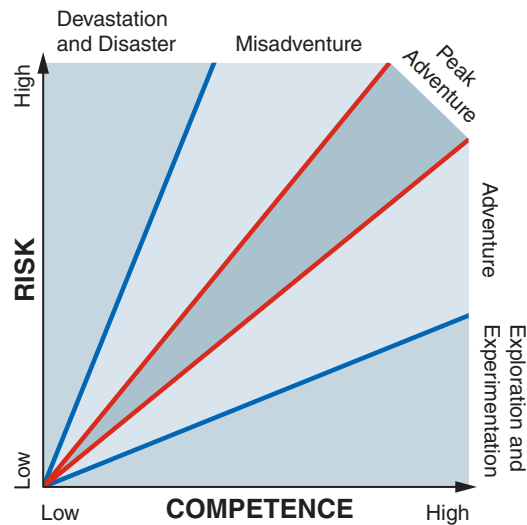
Ethical principles are enduring beliefs about specific modes of conduct or states of existence that, when acted on, protect the interests and welfare of all people involved. **Autonomy** means that individuals have the right to freedom of action and choice as long as their behavior does not infringe on the rights of others. **Nonmaleficence** means that, above all else, no harm is done to people. **Beneficence** means that the focus of an outdoor leader's actions is to contribute to the health and welfare of others. **Fidelity** means to be faithful,

keep promises, and be loyal and respectful of people's rights. **Justice** means individuals are treated as equals and implies a concept of fairness.

When intuitive thought, ethical codes, and ethical principles fail to resolve ethical issues, implement two **ethical theories** that help you determine which factors are relevant to the situation. With **balancing**, you compare options and pick the one that brings the least avoidable harm to all

parties involved. Balancing suggests that an action is ethically correct only if it produces the greatest happiness for the greatest number of people. With **universalizability**, you institute and generalize the same ethical actions across similar situations. If it is ethical to act one way in a situation, then act that way in similar situations. Actions should only be taken when they can be fairly and broadly applied as a universal law to all similar cases.

ADVENTURE EXPERIENCE PARADIGM

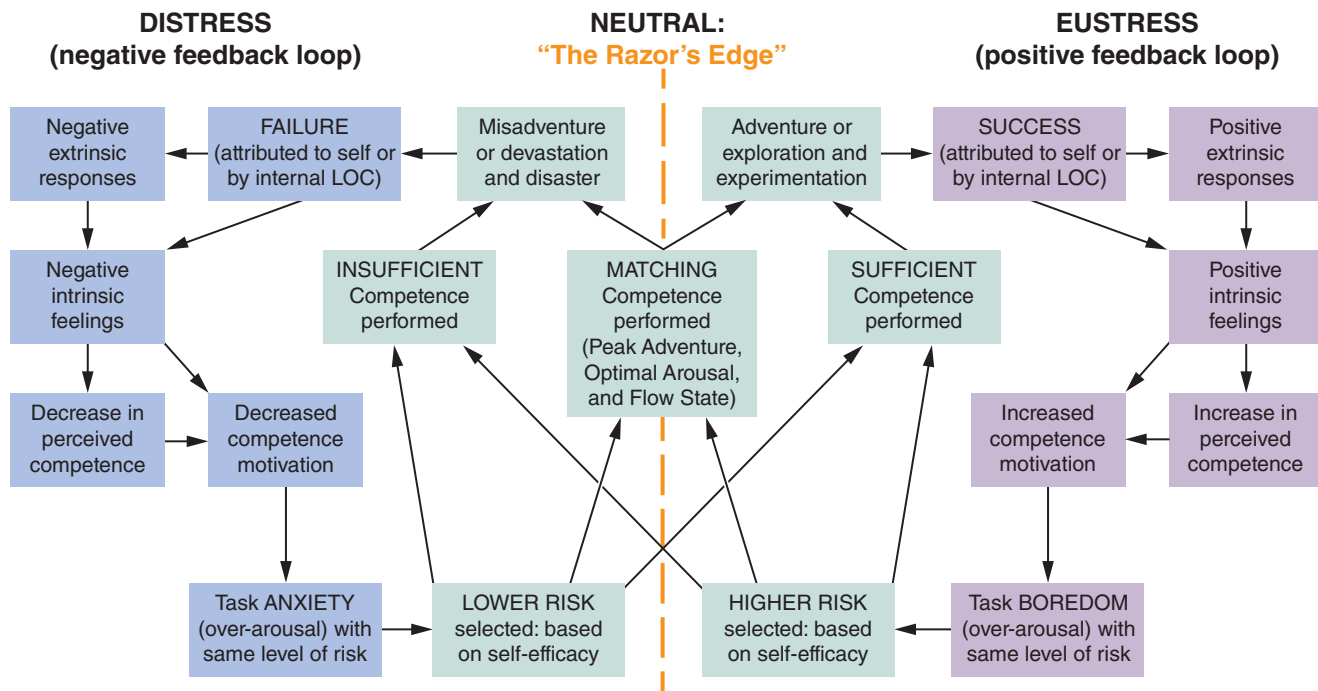


In this model, the interaction of risk and competence creates the challenge. Challenge cannot exist without both situational risk and personal competence engaged in an effort to resolve uncertainty. Depending on the amount of risk and the degree of competence interacting in an adventure experience, five conditions of challenge are possible.

The diagram above illustrates that when a competent person performs a low-risk or easy activity, the

result is a condition of exploration and experimentation during which new skills are learned, tested, and honed. As competence decreases or risk increases or both, clients move into the adventure. When the two components are balanced and matched, peak adventure results. As risk exceeds competence, the potential for misadventure arises. When risk (difficulty) becomes very high and competence is very low, devastation and disaster may occur.

COMPETENCE EFFECTANCE



The model above is composed of three parts designated as the neutral center, the positive feedback loop, and the negative feedback loop. **Distress** represents the negative loop and describes a downward spiral of pessimistic thoughts and emotions. **Eustress** represents the positive loop and describes an upward spiral of optimistic ideas and attitudes. Between the distressful (negative pressure) and the eustressful (positive tension) lies the neutral center. This has been characterized as the “**razor’s edge**” because it describes the sharp, central ridge that adventurers or clients enjoy staying on (without falling off onto either side) that is the main motivation for risk taking.

The **negative** loop of distress begins with a perception of failure that results from misadventure and is attributed to internal sources such as personal performance. The failure can cause direct, negative intrinsic responses, such as feeling bad about oneself, or cause indirect, negative extrinsic

responses such as disappointment from significant others. Through a decrease in perceived competence, these negative responses can lower feelings of competence motivation. For example, clients who believe they cannot accomplish a task experience anxiety when they face the same level of risk. When they emerge from the negative feedback loop, they tend to select a lower level of risk (an easier challenge) in the neutral center.

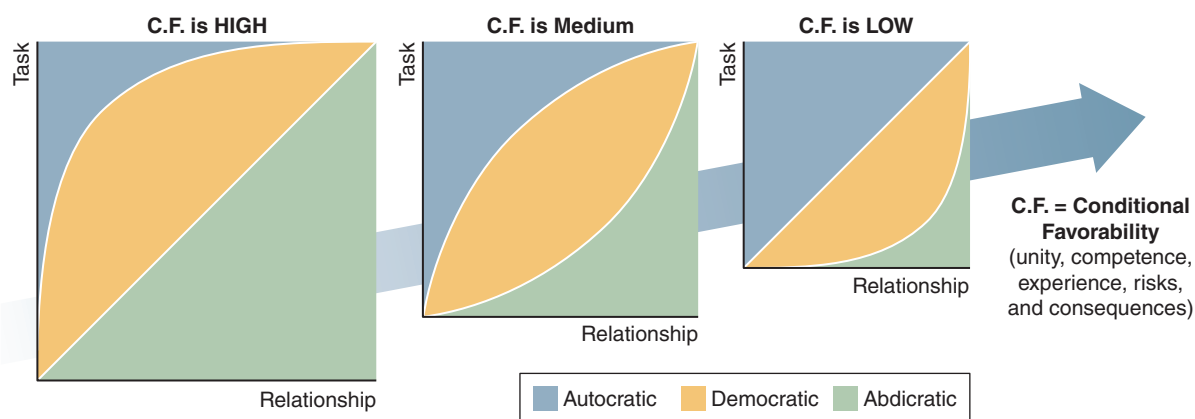
The **positive** loop of eustress follows a similar pattern, but the effect on competence motivation is the reverse of the negative loop. The positive loop begins with an internally attributed perception of success that results from adventure. This success leads to direct, positive intrinsic responses, such as feeling good about oneself, and to positive extrinsic responses, such as approval from significant others, that indirectly build on the good feelings. Through an increased perception of competence, these positive feelings generally increase compe-

tence motivation. For example, clients who believe they can accomplish the task will experience boredom with the same level of risk. When clients emerge from the positive feedback loop, they tend to select a higher level of risk (a more difficult challenge) in the neutral center.

Once back in the **neutral center**, clients may select situational risks that perfectly match with their personal competence, and they subsequently reengage with peak adventure, optimal arousal, and the flow state. Most of the time, they will select a lower level of risk if they are feeling less competent or a higher level of risk if they are feeling more competent. Regardless of risk or difficulty selected, they will perform sufficiently or insufficiently. Their interpretation is usually a subjective assessment of personal performance. If they believe they have performed sufficiently for the level of risk chosen, then challenging conditions of adventure result or even exploration and experimentation. If clients think their performances were insufficient to meet the risk, then the challenging conditions of misadventure, or perhaps even devastation and disaster, are possible. The cycles repeat depending on interpretations of their performance. The outdoor leader can make an enormous difference by guiding the clients' interpretations.

Following each cycle, clients begin to attribute, or justify, the way things turned out as per their locus of control. Obviously, your role is helping people correctly attribute their adventures by acting as a kind of **gatekeeper** in the neutral center. If people have a correct internal locus of control and they attribute success or failure to themselves or other internal sources, then they enter either the anticipated positive (eustress) or negative (distress) loop. However, on occasion, when clients might benefit from changing directions, you can close the gate and redirect them toward the opposite loop. You do this by shifting the clients toward an external locus of control and encouraging them to attribute their successes or failures to external sources (something other than themselves). Two obvious examples of gatekeeping include helping timid and fearful clients who excessively internalize their failures see that external forces (ill-fitting shoes in rock climbing) hindered their progress and helping arrogant and fearless clients who excessively internalize their success see that external forces (the wind in sailing) were present to help their progress. This reframing brings about a reevaluation of performances and possibly changes clients' minds about whether they performed sufficiently, thus opening a new gate and allowing them to enter the other loop.

CONDITIONAL LEADERSHIP MODEL



The model above shows that the styles expressed by a leader (autocratic, democratic, or abdicratic) are functions of that leader's combined concerns for getting the job done or **tasks** (y-axis), concerns for getting along together or **relationships** (x-axis), and overall **conditional favorability** (z-axis). Conditional favorability is defined by the five factors shown in the figure below.

Medium favorability. If your orientation is toward relationships, you may express an abdicratic style, and if your orientation is toward tasks, you may express an autocratic style. If your orientation is balanced between both tasks and relationships, you may express a democratic style. The style de-

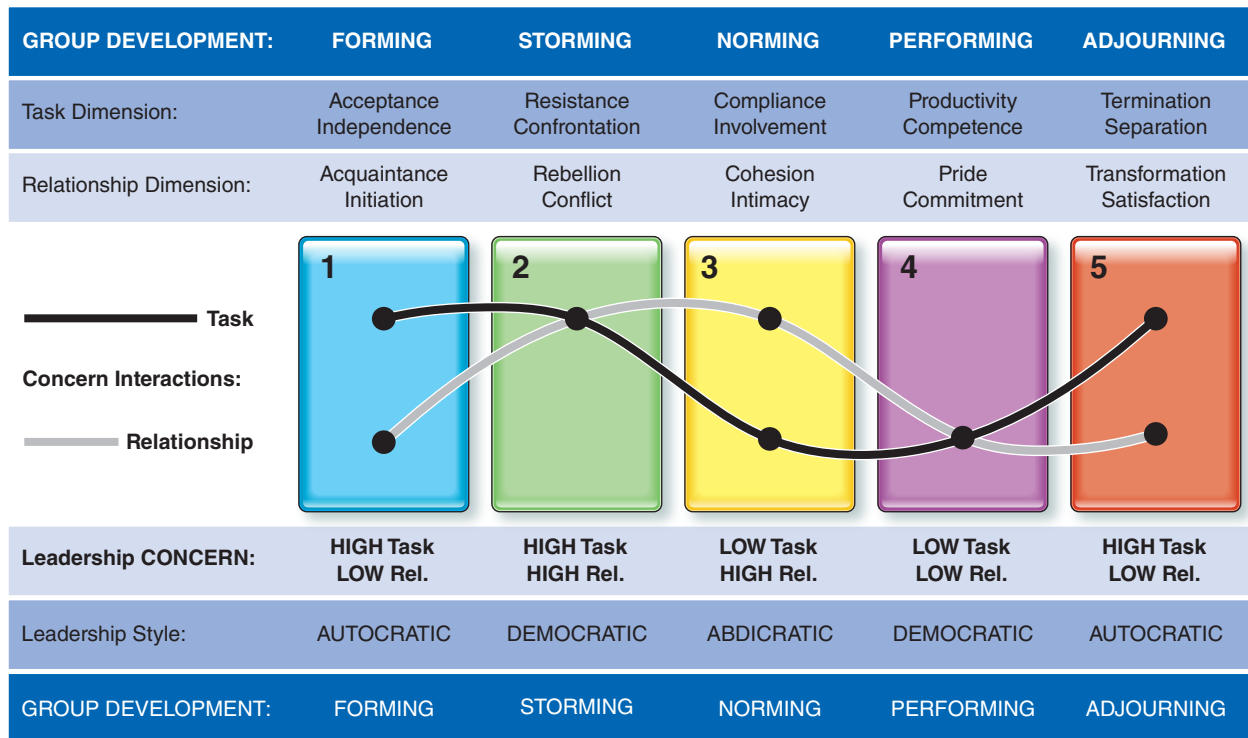
pends on the "pull" of the respective concerns. A greater pull by one concern as well as your preferred orientation will cause you to favor one style over another.

High favorability. You may shift toward a relationship orientation and allow an abdicratic style to prevail. Given a strong enough orientation toward the task, however, a democratic style or perhaps even an autocratic style can be appropriate.

Low favorability. You may shift toward a task orientation and favor an autocratic style. Given a strong enough orientation toward relationships, however, a democratic style or perhaps even an abdicratic style can still be appropriate.

Low	Medium	High
Bad weather Many perils and hazards Mostly subjective risks not easily controlled	ENVIRONMENTAL DANGERS	Good weather Few perils and hazards Mostly objective risks under human control
Disintegrated and divided Distrustful and competitive Immature and irresponsible	GROUP	Cohesive and unified Trusting and cooperative Mature and responsible
Novice members Incompetent, unskilled, unable Unsure, inexperienced, unknowledgeable	INDIVIDUALS	Expert members Competent, skilled, able Confident, experienced, knowledgeable
Deficient and incapable Lacks power base for credibility Poor judgment, stressed out, fatigued	LEADER	Proficient and capable Holds strong power base for credibility Sound judgment, in control, fit
Problem cloudy and uncertain Insufficient time and resources available High challenge and unacceptable outcomes	CONSEQUENCES OF DECISION	Problem clear and defined Sufficient time and resources available Low challenge and acceptable outcomes

FLEXIBLE STYLE FOR GROUP LEADERSHIP



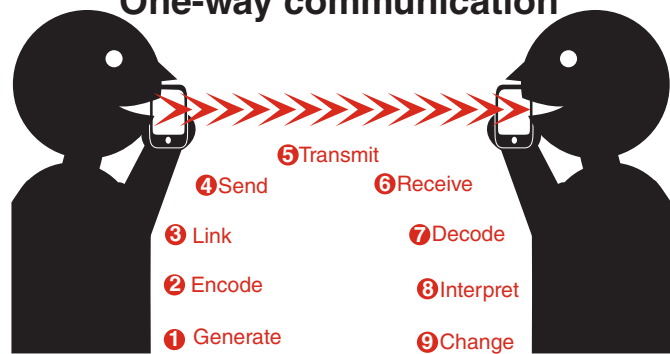
Group development stages used in the model shown above are **forming** (group initially comes together), **storming** (conflict begins as the group sorts out its issues), **norming** (standards of group behavior and individual actions are set), **performing** (group becomes highly productive and efficient and effective at completing tasks), and **adjourning** (closure and group disbandment).

As a general rule, due to the leader's many task and relationship concerns and the possible interactions of these two dimensions, the leader's style should flex along with the developmental stages of the group. This means starting with an autocratic style for forming, evolving through a democratic style for storming, reaching an abdicratic style for norming, moving back through democratic again for performing, and using autocratic once more for adjourning.

COMMUNICATION AND FEEDBACK

1. The sender **generates** the concepts, feelings, or behaviors to be communicated. This is accomplished when the sender thinks about the concepts, feelings, and behaviors.
2. The sender converts thoughts into an **encoded** message. In this message, cognitive concepts become verbal ideas, internal feelings are expressed as external emotions, and visualized behaviors are put into physical actions.
3. The sender establishes a link, or **connection**, between himself and the receiver using eye contact (visual), physical touch (tactile), or personal names (verbal). Failure to link before communicating usually means that the receiver has a difficult time receiving the message.
4. The sender **sends** the encoded message of ideas, emotions, and actions to the receiver.
5. The message is **transmitted** along a combination of the audio, visual, and tactile channels of the communication pathway.
6. The receiver **receives** the message from the sender.
7. The receiver **decodes** the verbalized ideas, externalized emotions, and physical actions. Verbal ideas become cognitive concepts again, external emotions convert to internal feelings, and physical actions are visualized as intended behaviors.
8. The receiver **interprets** the intent of these concepts, feelings, and behaviors.
9. Based on perceptions of the communicated message, the receiver positively or negatively responds to the message through **changed** performance or beliefs.

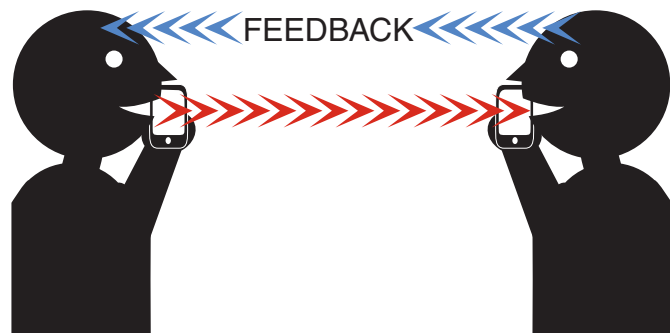
One-way communication



Two-way communication

QUALITIES: descriptive, specific, well intended, directed towards change, solicited, well timed, and confirmed with receiver/group

METHODS: Paraphrase, check impression and describe behavior



Appropriate feedback can be described as follows:

- Descriptive rather than evaluative
- Specific rather than general
- Well-intended
- Directed toward change (It is something the receiver can act on.)
- Solicited rather than imposed
- Well-timed
- Checked out with the recipient
- Checked out with the group

Paraphrase to confirm concepts and determine if the receiver correctly understood the sender's

ideas. Paraphrasing is more than merely repeating a statement word for word; it is thoroughly reiterating the statement using different words. Use examples and opposites to help make paraphrasing more effective.

Check impressions to double-check feelings and determine if the receiver has correctly understood the sender's emotions. Read nonverbal clues, or body language, and then describe the perceptions and impressions of the underlying affective state.

Describe behavior to substantiate the observed actions and behaviors of a sender. The receiver descriptively reports observations without evaluating or accusing and without the influence of personal biases toward the sender.

LISTENING AND SPEAKING CHECKLISTS

The hallmarks of an **active listener** and observer include watching the sender carefully for any decipherable body language, giving and gathering feedback to determine that the message received was indeed the message sent, and taking the time to absorb every piece of information and process it within the context of the communication (even if a silent pause is necessary). The following are some helpful hints:

1. Maintain eye contact with clients.
2. Lean forward to invite disclosure.
3. Show attentiveness with verbal and nonverbal affirmations (e.g., saying yes while nodding your head).
4. Wait through pauses to encourage clients to speak.
5. Use open-ended questions to encourage clients to continue talking or to probe for deeper elaboration.
6. Summarize and paraphrase clients' remarks to demonstrate your comprehension of their ideas.
7. Respond appropriately to the feelings that might be behind clients' words.
8. Use a gentle tone of voice to express care rather than judgment.
9. Separate behaviors that clients identify as unchangeable and changeable.
10. Remain open to various interpretations of client behaviors.
11. Maintain a state of curiosity and interest in what the client is saying.
12. Avoid initially expressing agreement or disagreement by simply indicating that you understood the message by using neutral words such as *interesting*.

13. Don't take the focus of the conversation away from the speaker by publicly disagreeing or by changing the subject.
14. Use a gentle tone of voice that expresses caring rather than judgment.
15. Seek feedback from other leaders about how to improve your listening skills.
16. Listen for action words.

Public speaking is an essential tool for you as an outdoor leader, but it may make you (like many people) somewhat anxious. Try these suggestions for public speaking when making presentations, not speeches:

1. Be yourself and act naturally. Don't be false or try to copy someone else's style. Allow spontaneity to occur. Don't read the presentation or make a speech. Let your enthusiasm shine through. Don't hold back on appropriate feelings, personality aspects, and convictions.
2. Before a presentation, try conducting voice warm-up exercises and practicing resonance, articulation, projection, enunciation, and pronunciation. Practice relaxation techniques to reduce your apprehension. Don't dwell on things that could go wrong!
3. If possible, arrive early and set up any equipment you need such as audiovisuals, teaching props, handouts, and the like. If you use notes, be certain they are accessible and in the correct order—but remember, don't depend on notes.
4. Know the audience and its competence levels. Avoid speaking about topics that are beyond the clients' realm of comprehension, and don't talk down to them. Treat the audience with respect. Prepare content with

the audience in mind. Consider their age, education, knowledge, interest, and size when planning.

5. Be enthusiastic and prepared. Organize and rehearse the presentation in a logical order and know the content extremely well. Practice speaking to friends who will give you honest feedback.
6. During a presentation, move around. Stand erect; shift eye contact among a variety of people; use effective body language; breathe steadily for voice control; and use a variety of speaking methods and vary clarity, volume, speed, and pitch.
7. Speak with authority. Speak clearly, loudly, and slowly to overcome surrounding noises. Avoid speaking in monotone and running words together. Distinguish similar-sounding words by clearly enunciating each syllable. Use voice inflection to vary the pitch of speech and vary the volume to highlight important points.
8. Give plenty of examples and analogies to connect the presentation to real life. Make these examples clear and emphasize the key concepts. Summarize the key concepts, highlight them by varying speech volume or tone, and repeat them often for significance. Pause occasionally; silence can be an effective tool. Provide an agenda for the presentation by displaying the outline on a flip chart, board, or screen; refer to this outline to let clients know how the presentation is proceeding. Use the “signpost” words, that is, the same indicator words used in the agenda, to convey location within the presentation. Avoid slang words and clichés. Use vivid language that is rich in symbolism, imagery, and metaphor. List important words on an outline, and define or explain any term clients might not know.
9. Notice audience reaction to the presentation. Monitor body language and energy levels. If clients appear bored, be prepared to shorten the presentation by dropping a few points. If the presentation content is dry and boring,

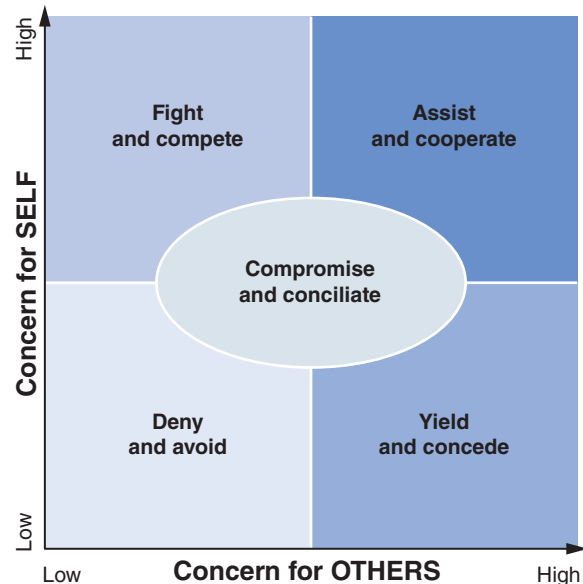
consider using audiovisuals to spice it up. A picture is worth a thousand words, so slides, videos, photographs, and even overhead transparencies can improve a presentation and therefore the degree of learning that takes place. Address all responses or comments from the audience by paraphrasing or repeating them for all to hear. Don’t ignore this input. Instead, praise or reinforce all contributions; then ask clients questions that elicit deeper comprehension.

10. While asking questions seems relatively simple on first examination, you can choose to follow one of several procedures. Ask clear, concise, and open-ended questions, that is, ones that cannot be answered with a short response such as yes or no. Pause and allow plenty of time for thinking. If no answers are forthcoming, gently request one from a person in the group. Listen carefully to the answer, paraphrase or repeat it for all to hear, and respond to the person who gave the answer. One sure way to reduce the number of answers given by a group is to criticize ideas. Instead, thank each person for his or her contribution and probe for greater detail. If an answer is incorrect, ask further questions that help the learner discover this fact without letting on that you think he or she is wrong. While trying to understand clients’ opinions, you might find an error in your own logic or you might see things from a fresh perspective. Always connect answers to the lesson of the presentation, to reality, or to the next question.
11. After a presentation, sum up key points and ask clients for their questions (unless clients have been free to interject questions during the presentation). If you don’t know an answer, say so, pledge to find out, and then follow up with an answer for that client. Seek feedback (verbal and possibly written) from clients about the effectiveness of the presentation by asking them for their opinions and by observing their use of the presentation content in future learning situations.

SIX STEPS FOR CONFLICT RESOLUTION

Conflict, which is the social friction or tension caused by discord or disagreement between two or more clients and sometimes their leader, is a natural part of the group dynamics in adventure programming. It can be used to achieve great learning and change, or it can destroy the potential for growth and gain. In a conflict, at least one client finds the beliefs or behaviors of another to be unacceptable and escalates to act against the other by blocking or disrupting progress. If left unresolved, conflict can fester and permanently damage relationships. Once this happens, the group begins to experience wasted time, diminished performance, lower morale, and assorted misbehaviors. Outdoor leaders often have the responsibility to help lessen conflict by mediating a resolution between clients and/or assisting them to negotiate their own. When leaders are part of the conflict, they lack neutrality and objectivity. They are part of the problem and not the solution, so they should avoid attempting the facilitation role in resolution.

In conflict, people have concern for themselves, but they may or may not be concerned about the other party (as shown above). When both concerns are low, one or more clients can **deny and avoid** by evading everyone and everything. When concern for self becomes high and concern for others remains low, they can **fight and compete** by confronting each other. When concern for self is low and concern for others is high, they can **yield and concede** by one giving in to the other. When both



concerns are high, they are more likely to **assist and cooperate** by finding middle ground. Somewhere in the center, where concerns are between high and low, they can **compromise and conciliate** by giving a little in order to get some back.

To successfully resolve their conflict, clients must be open to sharing thoughts and feelings, building up communication and trust through talking and listening, collaborating by exchanging perspectives, and compromising to find agreement on acceptable outcomes. The next diagram shows the six steps to resolving conflict.



Prepare by doing your homework by learning everything you can about the conflict and the clients. Seek to understand the background to their conflict and each client's unique needs. Identify where they disagree and define those points of disagreement in detail. Do your best to convince both to seek a pathway to resolution. Use a neutral environment, a comfortable setting, and sufficient time.

Now that you have their permission, **collect** more information by probing deeper. Meet with each client to determine their feelings and expectations. Be sure you know what lies on both sides of the dispute. Before you proceed to the next step, be prepared to avoid all temptations to suggest an obvious solution to them. This rescuing behavior eliminates your neutrality and can draw you into the conflict, making you powerless to help. Instead, ask questions that help them discover the answer.

To start, facilitate the **exchange** of information between both clients. This includes verbal consent to proceed, willingness to share intentions and desired outcomes, and agreement with certain guidelines to the process. Guidelines might include separating the conflict from its cause, not attacking, using I statements, and listening without interrupt-

ing (seek to understand others before you ask them to understand you; speak like you are correct, but listen like you are mistaken). During the exchange, encourage disclosure, clarify the issues, paraphrase so everyone understands, and validate clients for sharing or following the guidelines.

Check to ensure both clients fully understand one another and then begin to **bargain** toward middle ground. Encourage each client to state what he or she would be willing to give and what he or she would want in return. Work within ideal limits that lie between the best outcome (getting all that you ask for) and the worst outcome (conceding to all demands). When arguments arise, move from debate (not heard) to dialogue (heard and understood) by asking each client to share feedback with the other and sustaining a meaningful flow of ideas.

Identify the benefits and drawbacks to cooperation and compromise. Promote **compromise** through collaboration by persuading each client to give a little to get more in return. If each client can be persuaded to give up one concession that the other wants, then arguments will deescalate, animosity will evaporate, and progress will be achieved. The key to this accomplishment is making concessions

that are perceived to have equivalent value until the dispute ends. Mutual agreement without a loser, feelings of humiliation, or thoughts of revenge means the win-win outcome is possible.

Once the conflict is resolved, summarize the results, seal the deal and **agree** through verbal statements. Celebrate a successful outcome and determine when to check-in on their progress.

LEARNING

Learning is

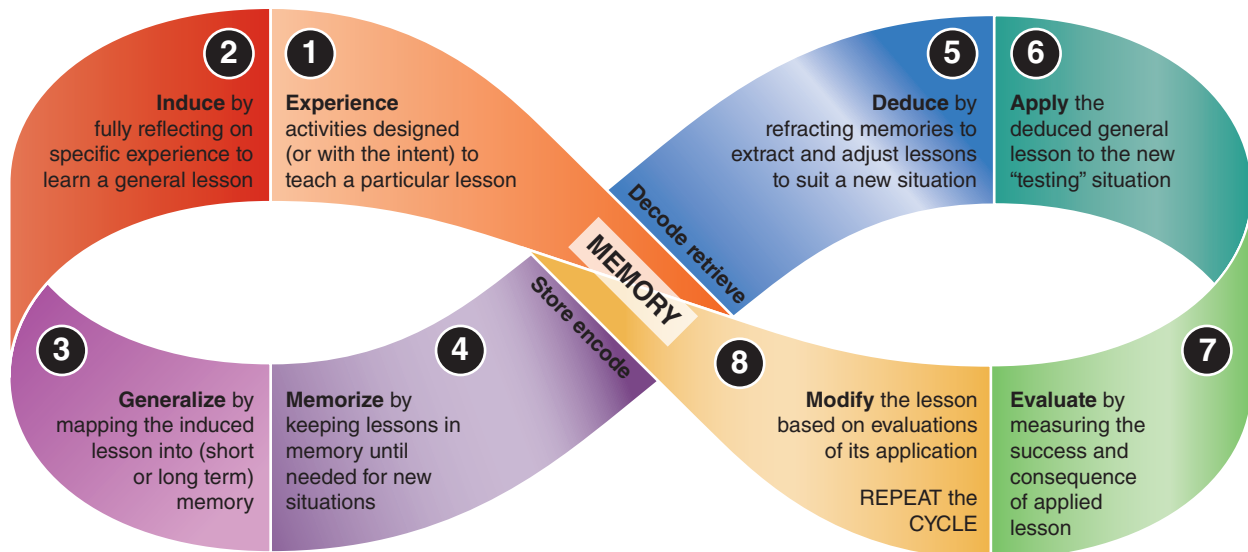
- the **acquisition of competence** (knowledge, skills, talents, ideas, or expertise)
- that **leads to enduring change** (lasting for the long term)
- in **feelings, thoughts, or behaviors** (with noticeable differences in emotion, intellect, or action)
- It comes from **interaction with experiences and the environment**.

Learning is a double-looped and cyclic process consisting of eight steps (see the figure below). The analogy of a Möbius strip is used to explain the eight-step model.

In the first four steps in the first loop, the learner experiences, induces, generalizes, and memorizes. The learner experiences activities that are designed to teach a lesson. The learner reflects on those spe-

cific activities (also known as learning experiences). The learner realizes a general lesson from inductive reflection on the learning experiences. This general lesson is stored in memory to be available when next needed.

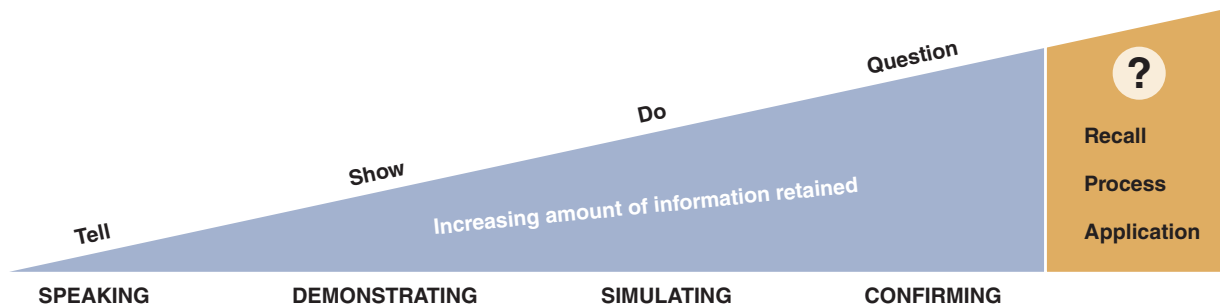
In the second four steps in the second loop, the learner deduces, applies, evaluates, and modifies. When needed by a new testing opportunity, a lesson is withdrawn from memory and refracted to fit that new specific situation. The deduced refraction is then applied to the testing situation and monitored for success and consequences. The relative success and consequences of the applied learning are measured. Based on this evaluation, the lesson is modified in memory. The process repeats in an infinite cycle. After the first loop, if lessons stored in memory (intersection of both loops) are not regularly tested in the second loop, then lessons are soon forgotten.



LEARNING GRADIENT

The **learning gradient** combines useful methods to teach psychomotor or physical skills such as how to paddle, climb, or ski. The gradient is a sequence of four methods: **speaking** (telling), **demonstrating** (showing), **simulating** (doing), and **confirming** (questioning), as shown in the figure below. In the speaking segment, you tell, or lecture, about a particular skill, and the client simply assimilates

the information. For the demonstrating method, you show the particular skill, and the client watches. In the simulating method, the client performs the same skill, and you evaluate performance. In confirming, the client answers questions posed by you as you test for learning depth. As the learner progresses through the sequence, the amount of information retained increases.



Adapted, by permission, from S. Priest and D. Hammerman, 1990, "Teaching outdoor adventure skills," *Journal of Adventure Education and Outdoor Leadership* 6(4): 16-18.

TEACHING

Decision Options for the Phases Before, During, and After the Learning Experience

	Preexperience	Experience	Postexperience
Why	Teaching reasons Information uses Information depth Client relevance	Introduction Briefing and framing	Reflection Gaining meaning Appropriate methods
What	Subject matter Intended objectives Expected outcomes Required resources Evaluation methods	Pace Learning speeds	Evaluation Who establishes criteria Procedures used
How	Methods and techniques Feedback and evaluation	Direction Adjustments	Integration Linking learning
Who	Clients and groups	Resting Teachable moments	Feedback Verbal or nonverbal Source, delay, or withhold
Where	Setting and positioning		
When	Scheduling and sequencing	Redoing Reexperiencing	Follow-up Enhancing transfer Alternatives available

THE PREEXPERIENCE PHASE

- **Why** refers to the reasons for teaching; possible uses of information, such as practical or theoretical; depth of information, such as memorization, comprehension, application, generalization, and systemization; and relevance of the information, such as whether it will appropriately meet the clients' needs.
- **What** refers to content or subject matter, such as which topics and in what proportions; intended objectives, that is, what the lesson should achieve; expected outcomes, or what should happen; required resources, such as what equipment you should gather and what other logistics you must deal with; and possible methods of evaluation, that is, how clients' performance might be objectively or subjectively evaluated.
- **How** refers to teaching methods, for example, how to use Socratic questioning or modeling; feedback, such as how to give or receive it; evaluation, including how to establish criteria or procedures; and teaching combinations, including how best to communicate information.
- **Who** refers to the clients who are receptive to learning and to the group, which you should teach as individuals or in pairs and in small or large units.
- **Where** refers to the setting, including the best location, environment, or weather for teaching, and to positioning, such as where to place yourself in relation to the clients.
- **When** refers to scheduling, such as when to start or finish and take breaks, and to sequencing, such as when to teach each piece of information in the lesson and when to teach this lesson in the context of all information to be taught.

THE EXPERIENCE PHASE

- Introduction refers to briefing clients on the learning experience in a manner that is consistent with the objectives, for example, using isomorphic framing to enhance metaphoric transfer (see chapters 14 and 16).
- Pace refers to teaching information with a rhythm that matches the diversity of learning speeds.
- Direction refers to making minor adjustments on the run as to where the learning is going (sometimes referred to as “thinking on your feet”); learning rarely progresses according to the preexperience plan.
- Resting refers to stopping for a teachable moment or a breather as well as to terminating the teaching session if it becomes inappropriate, ineffective, or miseducative.
- Redoing refers to allowing clients to experience the opportunity to learn once again. For example, repeating a rapid is never the same; it is very different each time, which facilitates further learning.

THE POSTEXPERIENCE PHASE

- To encourage reflection, you may select from many methods, such as solo contemplation, group discussion, guided debriefing, and journal writing, to help clients learn the most from any experience.
- You have several decisions to make for evaluation, such as who establishes criteria (you or the clients) and which procedures you will use. For example, you might help clients compare their performances against the learning criteria and the intended objectives or expected outcomes.
- To facilitate integration, you must choose the best way to link the present learning experience with past and future experiences.
- You can make several selections about feedback including whether to give it, delay it, withhold some part of it, or use verbal or nonverbal channels and which source to use, such as yourself, other clients, the individual, or a partner.
- For follow-up, you must consider the alternatives available for enhancing transfer, such as holding formal or informal meetings or social reunions, action planning, mentoring or coaching new behaviors, involving significant others in feedback sessions, and offering professional support groups for alumni.

SEVEN INSTRUCTIONAL COMBINATIONS

Teaching combinations differ according to who is responsible for making key choices in the preexperience, experience, and postexperience phases of learning: the leader or the clients. The mixtures of leader and client control create six combinations of

teaching. A seventh combination is possible called shared teaching, in which you and your clients share the choices in all three phases of the learning event. The combinations are shown in the following figure.

Preexperience BEFORE why, what, how, who, when, and where to teach	Experience DURING introduction, pace, direction, resting, redoing	Postexperience AFTER reflection, evaluation, integration, feedback and follow-up	
Leader	Leader	Leader	Dictated
Leader	Leader	Client	Prescribed
Leader	Client	Leader	Directed
Leader	Client	Client	Consulted
Client	Client	Leader	Interpreted
Client	Client	Client	Automated
Both	Both	Both	Shared

FACILITATION CHECKLISTS

Challenge by choice empowers clients by proactively informing them that they, not the outdoor leader, determine the degree of challenge, risk, and competence they will engage in; they will engage in the adventure experience in the manner they wish, in the amount they would like, and with the type of support they want. This allows clients to choose their levels of participation; these can include full or partial participation or observation in physical, social, and emotional events. Engagement is not forced or coerced. Challenge by choice also extends to participation in debriefings. Clients have the right to pass at any point in a discussion. Challenge by choice offers clients

- a chance to try a potentially difficult or frightening challenge in an atmosphere of support and caring,
- the opportunity to back off when performance pressures or self-doubt become too strong and to know that an opportunity for a future attempt will always be available,
- a chance to try difficult tasks and to recognize that the attempt is more significant than performance, and
- respect for individual ideas and choices.

The focus of a **full-value contract** is to have participants agree to not discount themselves before they begin an adventure experience. This is done to allay their fears, validate their reasons for involvement, reduce their passivity, and motivate their participation. The elements of the full-value contract are agreements to

- work together as a group toward individual and group goals,
- adhere to certain risk management and group behavior guidelines, and
- give and receive feedback, both positive and negative, and to work toward changing behavior when change is appropriate.

Maintain neutrality by knowing yourself and your own limits. You will work best when you align yourself with a variety of belief systems, realities, or client interpretations and not as well when you align your perspective with only one opinion, especially your own. Maintaining neutrality without being distant to clients will make you more mobile in your facilitation processes. In other words, you'll be able to take on a variety of positions concerning a topic without taking sides. You cannot afford to become sided or fixed on a single path toward change. This attitude places clients in charge of what they gain from an experience and you in a flexible role that allows you to avoid getting caught up in the clients' issues. In this way, clients are free to direct their own facilitated experiences.

Facilitation preparation. Research the client group in advance and assess their needs and objectives for the adventure learning experience. Never facilitate beyond your abilities. If a client discloses a psychiatric concern, don't open that can of worms unless you are qualified in psychiatry. Instead, refer the individual to professional counseling. In advance, consider how to handle ethical issues such as conflicts of interests, sexual issues, value differences, client rights, environmental concerns, and individual versus group needs. Be ready to place clients in situations for which they can commit to the entire facilitation process and not in situations that prevent them from being committed, such as inclement weather and feelings of fatigue or exhaustion. Be certain that physiological needs for food, water, shade, and shelter have been met.

Before facilitation. Explain and seek buy-in to challenge by choice and the full-value contract. The following are items worth addressing in your opening session.

1. Make sure that clients understand when information can be shared outside the group. Promise **confidentiality** only when it can be maintained, and understand its limitations.

2. Let clients know that they are the only ones who possess the **responsibility** for their own behavior. Clarify your role as facilitator by explaining what you are there to do (ask questions, guide discussion) and what you're not there to do (provide answers, share your observations).
3. **Schedule sufficient time** for clients to reflect on the learning experience. Match the length of debriefing to the maturity, needs, and abilities of the clients. If energy levels fall, end the discussion early.
4. **Discuss often and immediately** after each experience. If this is not possible, have a brief discussion afterward and save a lengthy discussion for later. If on a multiday experience, hold periodic discussions throughout each day. Have discussions in the activity location unless noise from traffic, running water, or blowing wind interferes with hearing. The location permits clients to more readily visualize what took place and where and how it happened. Pick a special place, such as a rock by a lake or a forest, or a regular time, such as campfires or meals, for holding discussions during residential programs. This way, clients will know to concentrate on discussing at the chosen time or place.
5. Group members need to be in a **physical configuration** that permits them to see the things that are most relevant for the facilitation process, such as eye contact, facial expressions, and body language. You must provide a setting that allows for this observation and is also warm and relaxing to encourage discussion. For example, position clients standing or sitting in a circle where everyone can see each other, but stay in shade so no one is blinded by the sun. If someone has to face the sun, make sure it is you and not any clients. You should also be part of the circle so you can guide discussion, read body language for signs of discomfort, and make eye contact (but not enough to dominate or threaten).
6. Have **one person speak at a time** as a sign of group respect. This ensures an opportuni-

ty for each person to be heard and for everyone to hear what is being said. To create a supportive atmosphere, you must establish and expect clients to follow certain ground rules. Furthermore, you must help the group evolve its own operating principles. These might include, but are not necessarily limited to, speaking for oneself; single speaking; listening and talking in the here and now instead of dwelling on the past; respecting self, others, and the environment; giving everyone the right to pass and not respond; welcoming all points of view; agreeing or disagreeing with the idea, not the person; avoiding put-downs; and maintaining confidentiality.

7. Clarify the **difference between product and process**, adding that discussions will center on group dynamics although clients may be tempted to talk about task outcomes. In addition, explain the concepts of transfer and metaphors. Remind clients to search for metaphors throughout the program and activities.

During facilitation. When clients fail a task, they frequently concentrate on how they could fix the product of their actions, that is, what physical things they could have done better. Instead, you should focus the discussion on the process of their actions: the human relationships and group dynamics used to solve the problem. But if clients continually return to the task during the discussion, let them talk about this hang-up until they are satisfied enough with their product to be willing to talk about the process.

Avoid speaking on behalf of the experience. Learning by telling might be appropriate when role-playing or in simulations with results that are predictable and reproducible. In an adventure experience, however, which has unpredictable or unique outcomes, group members bring personal behavioral histories to bear on the way they act under stress. Due to this uncertainty, client learning is generally varied and individual. Telling clients what they received from an experience can invalidate and alienate them and possibly disconnect you from the group and hamper their future learning

opportunities. Remember, you are a facilitator and not a coach. Clients will learn more and retain it longer when they discover lessons for themselves and own them rather than being told what they did poorly or well. Ask questions in a debriefing discussion that can lead clients toward discovery and ownership.

1. The ensuing discussion should progress from **positive topics to negative issues**, then end on a positive note. Ask open-ended questions of the entire group and speak loudly so everyone can hear. Speak clearly and concisely by avoiding complex wording. After asking one question, provide plenty of time for clients to think about the question and answers and how they will respond within the group. Listen to clients' answers and then correctly paraphrase their responses in order to confirm and clarify the intent for others. Acknowledge and validate all responses with a thank-you or a nonverbal signal, such as a nod of your head.
2. You must also act as a **gatekeeper for discussion** by giving everyone a chance to contribute. While recognizing that silence can be a form of contribution, you should be attentive to clients who are always quiet or speakers who are too dominant, run off on tangents, and talk forever. Invite quiet clients to contribute by asking them by name, seemingly at random, but without putting them on the spot. Make gentle eye contact, lean forward, and smile invitingly. Provide a legitimate way out if the person chooses not to share by shifting your eyes to other clients and backing off.
3. **Balance the discussion.** You shouldn't always examine mistakes, setbacks, failures, and other weaknesses but should generally balance such negativity by also discussing strengths such as success and achievement. Too many negatives can prolong agonies and lead to "paralysis by analysis," in which some clients become reluctant to discuss anything and freeze up in fear of constantly examining their shortcomings.
4. **Welcome client contributions** with a relaxed posture, open facial expression, and verbal appreciation. Observe body and verbal language and respectfully communicate in return with the same movements and words. Don't lead clients by suggesting words or finishing their sentences. Ask questions instead of offering answers. Avoid comparing clients with other groups that have gone before them or judging their actions as good or bad. Don't offer false feedback. Avoid giving insincere praise or unwarranted criticism. Don't assume you know what is best for clients or force or coerce them to change. Avoid only accepting one answer or the first response as correct, because this creates a situation reminiscent of the reward and punishment mentality of institutionalized schooling. If you do this, you will teach the group to only give one response, because they will fear being wrong.
5. **Listen to overbearing speakers** for a useful statement. Once you hear one, ask what others think of this point. Ask the speaker to reemphasize the point if necessary, but clearly move on to others.
6. **Redirect tangential speakers** back to the topic of discussion without sounding critical or angry. You can ask them to relate their comments to the theme or you can note a time limitation to indicate the need to return to the main issue. Support the speakers' ideas, but put them on hold and return to them later. Avoid confronting the individual, thereby inhibiting future valuable comments from others.
7. **Interrupt lengthy speakers** politely. Excuse yourself and explain your reasons for stopping them. If repeated interruptions become necessary and seem ineffective, you can introduce the burning-match constraint. Each client is given the same number of matches and may only speak as long as one match keeps burning.
8. Sometimes **private conversations** within the discussion can interfere with client

learning, so you may need to deal with them. Calling attention to this potential problem before beginning the discussion can provide a nonthreatening, proactive way to deal with this problem. When they occur, figure out why. One person may be clarifying a discussion point for another. Or the discussion may be so boring that two people are making small talk on the side. If the reason is appropriate, you can ask the two to share their thoughts with the whole group or you can break into small groups to encourage side discussions before returning to the big group. If the reason is inappropriate, you can comment on the distraction being counterproductive or you can terminate the discussion and go to the next activity.

9. Encourage clients to ask their **own questions** that fit the theme. This permits self-discovery and frees you from some of the responsibility for client learning.
10. Remain alert for **client language metaphors** and incorporate them into the discussion using client language.

You can always expect to encounter people who are uncomfortable discussing issues because they are afraid of failing, people who prefer to avoid negativity, or people who deny their problems or to encounter a group that is reluctant to discuss issues in general. At these times, you can modify your approach to increase client willingness to enter into a discussion. The following are some possible modifications:

1. You can encourage clients to **nonverbally respond** to simple statements you make to generate discussion. They can signal a thumbs-up or thumbs-down or raise a number of fingers to express agreement on a scale from 0 to 10. They can also form a line according to who contributed or listened from most to least. They can be targeted by positioning themselves near or far from an imaginary bull's-eye to represent whether they believe certain statements are right on or miss the mark.
2. You can ask occasional **closed questions**, but these should not make up the whole discussion. Clients, responding with either a yes or no, can get used to speaking with short, easy answers before you ask probing questions. After warming up with closed questions, you can ask **trigger questions** to evoke controversy and motivate people to dissent and speak their minds.
3. Have clients **write responses** before speaking aloud. They can respond to your questions or statements, or they can finish sentences you start. By writing their ideas first, clients can collect their thoughts, which reduces their chances of making mistakes while speaking. This approach ensures that quieter and more reluctant clients have as much time to respond as more eager clients.
4. Another way to allow clients to prepare for discussion is to give them a little **solo time** beforehand. Clients can go off on their own to contemplate the topics of the upcoming discussion. Music, natural sounds, or silence can enhance introspection. Encourage controlled breathing, meditation, or relaxation to “center” clients before asking them to contemplate your questions.
5. You can also divide clients into **partners** or **trios** who discuss the topics in advance. Their mutual reinforcement of one another's ideas and comments can strengthen their resolve to speak out. Making partners into trios can introduce interviewing with an observer. While two people discuss the topics, the third observes and reports after the partners finish. In both procedures, people can speak for themselves or can paraphrase and report their partners' responses. These approaches help because speaking on behalf of others is normally less stressful than talking for oneself.
6. You can build speaking practice into the discussion through **gift giving** and **reporting**. Clients can present physical gifts found outside or made from art supplies or inex-

pensive materials or nonphysical gifts of words or mimed actions to give one another feedback. Making gifts, whether physical or nonphysical, encourages clients who are more comfortable with or talented at non-verbal communication to participate more fully in verbal communication by bridging the gap between nonverbal and verbal. To use reporting, you can select people to perform the roles of interaction observer or quality inspector. They observe process or product issues and then report their findings to the group. Both gift giving and reporting encourage clients to speak out.

7. In **rounds**, clients take turns reviewing the activity. When one person forgets an occurrence or loses track of the order, the next person can chime in and so on around the circle. Clients identify points from the experience that were positive or negative, good or bad, easy or difficult, and funny or interesting. Clients need only identify these points and need not discuss them in any depth to begin with. In the ensuing discussions, you can probe only the positive topics until clients loosen up to the point that you feel you can move on to any negative topics that need attention. Last, you can go first and disclose something very personal and then ask clients to follow the precedent you set.

8. You can also have clients pass a **talking stick** or other inanimate object in one direction around the circle. Only the person with the stick can talk. This procedure can give quieter group members a chance to speak and may be less intrusive than picking on the silent ones by name.
9. **Fishbowling** splits the group in two with one half surrounding the other. The outer circle observes the inner circle's discussion and notes the frequency with which people speak and what they say or do. The outer circle reports their findings to the inner circle, and then clients change places. Tossing a ball of string, with the tail unraveling from speaker to speaker, also enables group members to identify a pattern of dominant and recessive talkers among them.

After facilitation. Reflect on and improve your own practice by looking back on the list of tips and tricks provided above and by critiquing yourself on the performance of each. For each success, explore why you did so well. For each setback, determine how your performance could be improved next time. Seek out other facilitators, watch them work, ask their opinions, have them observe and evaluate you, and most important, cofacilitate with others often.

FACILITATION OVERVIEW

Comparison of Adventure Program Fields With Corresponding Facilitation Techniques

AP field	Recreation	Education	Development	Therapy
I want to transform the way clients	Feel	Think and feel	Behave , think, and feel	Clinically resist change , behave, think, and feel
so I will use these facilitation techniques	None (experience speaks for itself)	Basic (funneling and fundamentals)	Intermediate (freezing and frontloading) + basic skills	Advanced (fortifying and focusing) + basic and intermediate skills

You have a responsibility to your adventure program, which provides a service, and to your clients, who consume that service, to be clear about the level of facilitation you can and should provide. The table above summarizes types of programs, their focus for transformation, the minimum facilitation required to achieve the change, and the techniques that fit with all.

The reputation and credibility of the profession suffer when a client requests one type of program but, due to lack of facilitation techniques or a different program purpose, receives another type of program. As a leader, you must consider the types of programs you can facilitate, which techniques are in your tool kit, and how those will lead to client change.

No facilitation is necessary for adventure recreation programs. When properly sequenced and designed, the inherently enriching qualities of the activities lead clients into their own insights and discoveries through learning and doing. This approach is fine if you're not concerned with achieving identified or prescriptive intra- and interpersonal goals and are more focused on learning outdoor skills, having fun, and recreation.

Basic techniques include the **fundamentals** of discussion and **funneling** (structured debriefing discussion questions). Basic techniques are used first and foremost in adventure education programs. These techniques lead to clients changing their thinking in the next experience (after debriefing).

Intermediate techniques include **freezing** (stopping the action with a time-out to ask a single redirecting question) and **frontloading** (asking structured questions before the experience). Intermediate techniques are used mostly with adventure development programs. These techniques lead to clients changing their behaviors during the experience (in the action).

Advanced techniques include **fortifying** (addressing clients' resistance to change) and **focusing** (a shift in philosophical orientation from attending to the problem to seeking a solution). Advanced techniques are necessary in adventure therapy programs. These techniques lead to clients changing conscious or unconscious resistances and functional or dysfunctional behaviors. If you work in adventure therapy programs, you will need to gain these skills. These psychotherapeutic methods are best learned under the supervision of a master facilitator or qualified psychotherapist.

FUNDAMENTALS

Discussion permits clients to analyze the learning experience and to transfer learning from their adventures to their future lives. By verbalizing reactions to an adventure, clients reinforce their perceptions and see the situation from the fresh perspectives of others. Furthermore, knowing that a discussion follows the activities, many clients will be more attentive to what goes on during an experience and will exhibit a heightened awareness of outcomes related to relationship dynamics, task products, group pro-

cesses, and so on. To accomplish these outcomes, you must guide the discussion and use facilitation techniques such as debriefing to make the content and format valuable to clients.

Debriefings can be unstructured (rambling from topic to topic) or structured (linear progression toward an end) discussions. **Unstructured** discussions are perfect for exploring and surfacing issues in a group. Some sample questions appear in the list below.

List of exploratory questions that could be asked during an unstructured debriefing discussion.

Communication

- Can someone give an example of when you thought you communicated effectively?
- How did you know that what you communicated was understood?
- Who didn't understand someone's attempt to communicate?
- What went wrong in the communication attempt?
- What could the communicator do differently next time to give a clearer message?
- What could the message receiver do differently next time to understand the message?
- How many different ways were used by the group to communicate messages?
- Which ways were the most effective? Why?
- Did you learn something about communication that will be helpful later? If so, what?

Feelings

- Can you name a feeling you had at any point in completing the activity?
- Where in your body did you feel it most?
- What personal beliefs were responsible for generating that feeling?
- What was the main thought behind the feeling?
- Is that feeling a common one in your life?
- Did you express that feeling to others? If not, what did you do with the feeling?
- Do you usually express or suppress feelings?
- Would you like to feel different in a similar situation?

- If so, how would you like to feel?
- What beliefs would you need to have to feel different in a similar situation?
- Could you believe them?
- How do you feel about the conflict that may result from expressing certain feelings?
- How do you imagine others felt toward you at various times during the activity?
- Were these feelings expressed?
- What types of feelings are easiest to express? Most difficult?
- Do you find it difficult to be aware of certain feelings at times? If so, which ones?
- Are some feelings not appropriate to express to the group at times? If so, which ones?
- What feelings were expressed nonverbally in the group?
- Did expressing appropriate feelings help or hinder completing the initiative?

Evaluating others

- Is it difficult for you to avoid judging others? Explain.
- Can you think of examples when you judged others in the group today?
- When you didn't judge others?
- What were some advantages you gained by not judging others?
- What were some advantages others gained when you didn't judge them?
- How did judging and not judging others affect the completion of the activity?

(continued)

(continued)

- Were some behaviors of others easy not to judge and other behaviors difficult?
- Would deferring judgment be of some value in other situations? Explain.
- Can you think of any disadvantages of not judging others in this situation?

Listening

- Who made suggestions for completing the activity?
- Were all of these suggestions heard? Explain.
- Which suggestions were acted on?
- Why were the other suggestions ignored?
- How did it feel to be heard when you made a suggestion?
- What interfered with your ability to listen to others?
- How can you overcome this interference?
- Did you prevent yourself from listening well? How?
- Did you listen in the same way today as you generally do?
- If not, what was different about today?

Leadership

- Who assumed leadership roles during the activity?
- What were the behaviors that showed leadership?
- Can everyone agree that these behaviors are traits of leaders?
- How did the group respond to these leadership behaviors?
- Who followed the leader even if you weren't sure the idea would work? Why?
- Did the leadership role shift to other people during the activity?
- Who thought they were taking the leadership role? How did you do it?
- Was it difficult to assume a leadership role with this group?
- Why didn't some of you take a leadership role with this group?
- Is it easier to take leadership in other situations or with other group members? Explain.
- Did anyone try to lead the group, but felt you were unsuccessful?
- What were some possible reasons for this? How did it feel to be disregarded?

Followership

- Who assumed a follower role at times throughout the activity? How did it feel?
- How did it feel to follow different leaders?
- Do you consider yourself a good follower?
- Was this an important role in the group today? Explain.
- How does refusal to follow affect the leadership role?
- What are the traits of a good follower?
- How can you improve your ability to follow in the future?

Decision making

- How were group decisions made during the activity?
- Were you satisfied with the ways decisions were made? Explain.

- Did the group arrive at any decisions through group consensus?
- Were decisions made by one or several individuals?
- Did everyone in the group express an opinion when given a choice? If not, why not?
- What is the best way for this group to make decisions? Explain.
- Do you respond in similar ways in other groups?
- What did you like about how the group made decisions? What didn't you like?

Cooperation

- Can you think of specific examples of group cooperation? Explain.
- How did it feel to cooperate?
- Do you cooperate in most things you do?
- How did you learn to cooperate?
- What are the rewards of cooperating?
- Are there any problems associated with cooperation?
- How did cooperative behavior lead to successfully completing the activity?
- How can you cooperate in other areas of your life?
- Did you think anyone was blocking the group's efforts to cooperate? Explain.

Diversity

- How are you different from some of the others in the group?
- How do those differences strengthen the group?
- When do differences in people in a group keep a group from reaching certain objectives?
- What would this group be like if there were very few differences in people?
- How would you feel if this were so?
- In what cases did being different help or hinder group members from reaching objectives?
- How are you like some of the others in the group?
- Were these common traits helpful to the group's approach to the task? Explain.
- Did these common traits hinder the group's approach to the task? Explain.
- Do you think you have other things in common with some of the group members?
- How did this setting help you discover how you are similar to others?

Trust

- Can you give examples of when you trusted someone in the group? Explain.
- Is it easier to trust some people and not others? Explain.
- Can you think of examples when trusting someone would not have been a good idea?
- How do you increase your level of trust for someone?
- On a scale of 1 to 10, rate how much trust you have in the group as a whole.

- Can you explain your rating?
- How does the amount of fear you feel affect your trust of others?
- What did you do today that deserves the trust of others?

Closure

- What did you learn about yourself?
- What did you learn about others?
- How do you feel about yourself and others?
- What new questions do you have about yourself and others?

- What did you do today of which you are particularly proud?
- What skill are you working to improve?
- Was your behavior today typical of the way you usually act in groups? Explain.
- How can you use what you learned in other life situations?
- What beliefs about yourself and others were reinforced today?
- Would you do anything differently if you were starting the activity again with this group?
- What would you like to say to the group members?

FUNNELING



Structured discussions more deliberately or directly confirm issues and lead to change. To conduct a structured session, you must order the debriefing questions in a logical progression. The **funneling** process (see the figure to the left) provides a sequence of six types of questions.

Some sample questions based on the funneling model appear in the following table.

Funnel Guide Questions

Filter	Guide questions for each filter in the funnel
1. Replay	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can you replay or review the last activity for me? • What are some _____ [topics] that you needed in that activity? • On a five-point scale, hold up the number of fingers that indicates your level of performance on _____ [topic], with five being exceptionally great.
2. Remember	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Do you remember an example of excellent (or poor) _____ [topic]? • Can you recall a particular time when _____ [topic] was good (or bad)?
3. Affect/effect	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What emotion did you experience? • How did this affect your feelings? • How did this emotion impact the group? • What influence did this have on the task?
4. Summation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How does the moral of this story go? • What did you learn from all of this? • Can you sum up what you have gained from our discussions (or reflections)?
5. Application	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Do you see a connection between this learning and your life back at school? • Can you apply this on the job? • Do you see any parallels to your family?
6. Commitment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What will you do differently next time? • Begin with the words, "I will." How can you commit to change? • Who will help support you in upholding this pledge?

NONVERBAL ALTERNATIVES AND FREEZING

Most of the techniques we have discussed apply to verbal reflection. Verbal discussion is the most common form of debriefing conducted in North America. However, not all clients are masterful at expressing their feelings through words, and a few might not even speak English or be cognitively mature enough to benefit. Therefore, alternative ways of reflecting may prove more beneficial and less intimidating than verbal reflection. You should consider **nonverbal methods of reflection** such as art, drama, music, dance, poetry, writing, storytelling, photography, presentations, or even repeating the same activity. These methods should fit the age and culture of the clients. Be aware, however, that these methods can become routine, so use them in moderation and alternate all methods often.

Art can take many forms such as cartooning, making collages, drawing, graphing, painting, sculpting, or mapping. Cartoon balloons can convey true feelings. Clients can cut up old outdoor magazines to make collages that interpret their experiences. They can draw posters to represent their thoughts. They can graph their energy levels over time to infer shifting morale and motivations. They can paint murals to share their ideas. They can sculpt clay to illustrate emotions. Realistic art is often the most difficult to create in a limited time and is usually the least useful for generating discussion because it is too close to what transpired. Abstract and symbolic art provide the greatest opportunities for making metaphoric connections. For example, a trip down a river can be a journey metaphor for completing projects in daily life. By drawing on plastic over the trip map and adding key points during the journey, clients can link key points of the project by using a second plastic sheet or by overlaying the first plastic sheet on the project timeline.

Drama enables clients to act out what happened during the experience, what should have happened but didn't, and what they expect will happen next

time. Drama can be accomplished through fantasy skits, modeling group members as if they are clay, or reenacting the activity. Clients can perform in silence or by talking.

Clients can sing songs or play instruments. **Music** also proves useful in solo reflection. Expressive dance or creative movement can enhance the music. **Poetry** can take the form of cinquains, couplets, haiku, or limericks. **Writing** can be analytical, as in newspaper articles or quantitative and qualitative questionnaires, or be creative, as in journal entries and short stories. Fantasy **storytelling** by leaders and clients can effectively impart metaphoric messages through quotes, morals, fantasies, legends, parables, or fables.

Photography, slides, video, or snapshots from instant film can be useful when reviewing an experience. As you replay video or audio recordings with an occasional pause for discussion, people can remark on what they were feeling or thinking at the time. You can display images on the wall for clients to comment on.

Presentations are formal showings from the adventure. Clients can write a report on the trip, share photo albums with their families, give a slide show to the next group of incoming clients, or demonstrate new skills to the public during an open house. In doing so, clients reexamine the experience from the viewpoint of an outsider. They must find ways to explain their personal and significant life-changing adventures to people who haven't yet experienced one for themselves.

Repeating the same activity a second time without debriefing the first time or frontloading can provide people with an opportunity to reflect alone and then improve what might not have worked well the first time. They might increase the product of their efforts, but they will more often enhance the process. In addition, you can have group members exchange roles. They might act differently in someone else's shoes.

FREEZING

Occasionally, clients can get stuck in a rut during an activity. They might have promised change in the last discussion but can't seem to get it together in this activity, or they might have just fallen apart

as a team by straying dangerously off the task. At times like these, you can call a time-out to stop or **freeze** the action and then follow with a single, well-chosen question. This careful intervention and brief interjection can get the clients out of the rut and put the group back on track to positive change.

FRONTLOADING

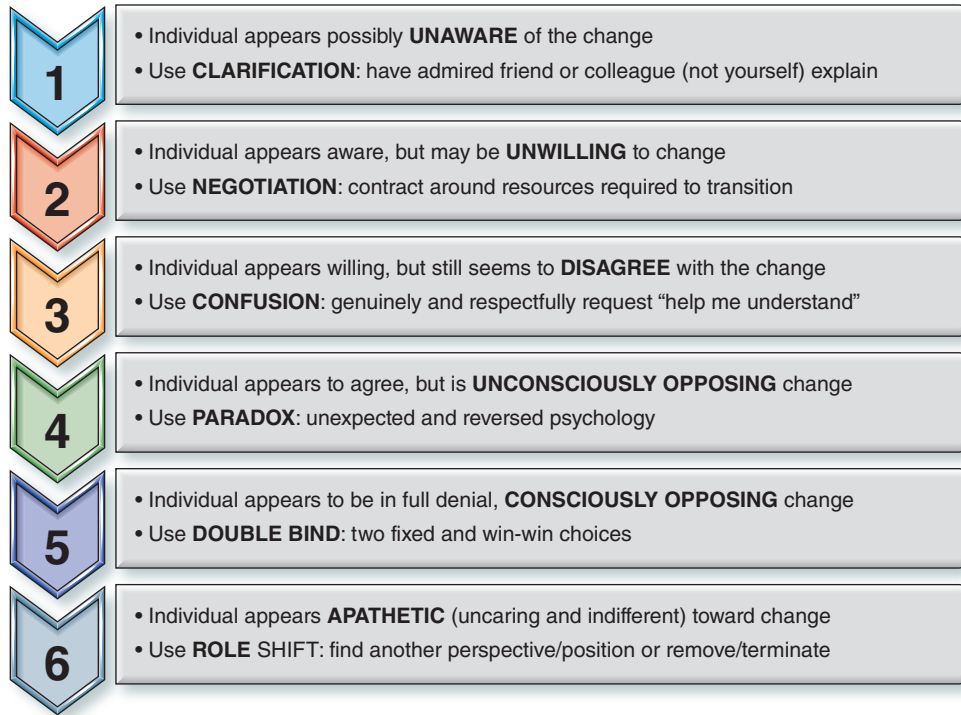


Frontloading involves asking questions before the activity or learning experience that allow clients to change their behaviors in the experience (see figure to the left and table below). “Front” indicates that the facilitation takes place up front, or before the experience. “Loading” refers to the fact that the learning is loaded together, or emphasized, in combination beforehand. Frontloading means punctuating the key learning points in advance of the experience rather than reviewing or debriefing learning after.

Frontloading Types and Their Corresponding Questions

Types	Guide questions for each frontloading type
Revisiting	Our last event this morning concluded with some personal pledges about what we were going to do differently this afternoon and when we depart from this program. Would each of you care to share those commitments with the group one more time before we start?
Motivation	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Where might this learning be useful in your regular lives?• Why would anyone want to do this activity?
Objectives	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• What do you think the group will get out of doing this activity?• What do you think this exercise is designed to teach?
Function	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• What will the group need to do to succeed?• What strategies does the group have for making sure it does these things?
Dysfunction	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• What things has this group done in the past that may get in the way?• What can the group do to ensure these impediments don't occur?
Prediction	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• What do you think is going to happen next in this activity?

FORTIFYING



People don't resist change; they resist being changed. Clients can sometimes feel forced to grow, so they often resist. Applying further external motivation can cause greater internal resistance. Blocking (inhibiting the resistance) might prove fruitful sometimes, but it often fails to address the underlying reasons why resistance occurs. You can deal with resistance by viewing it as the clients educating you about how to best help them. Thus, you must learn to see resistance not as client opposition but as encouragement for you to understand their needs and issues. Don't block, disperse, diffuse, or deflect resistance; use it to better serve the clients.

Fortifying refers to a sequence of six ways to strengthen clients' abilities to deal with resistance to change and to use this resistance to achieve

healthy and functional behaviors (see the figure above). Follow the sequence in a stepwise manner: Try the least invasive method first; if it fails, try the next one.

1. **Clarification** is the response to resistant clients who are unaware of the need to change. Explain to them why the change is necessary and how others are making the change. The potential mistake in this method is to do the explaining by yourself. To prevent setting up a conflicting relationship at the outset that might persist throughout the sequence and prevent you from facilitating change, have someone else do the explaining. Choose a friend or colleague from within the group whom the client admires to clarify the need for and path to change.

2. **Negotiation** is the response to aware clients who are unwilling to make the change. It involves reaching an agreement on what is needed for change to take place.
3. **Confusion** is the response to willing clients who disagree with the intended change. Explain to the group that you are genuinely confused by what is happening and respectfully ask the group to help you understand. Not surprisingly, the confusion technique fails miserably when it sounds fraudulent or sarcastic. In answering your honest and honorable inquiry, clients offer their own interpretations and expectations for the situation. In an open and truthful manner, you are merely relating those parts of the experience that are genuinely confusing to you. By responding to your lack of understanding, clients have to reexamine their behaviors and become clearer about these same issues.
4. **Paradox** is the response to agreeing clients who unconsciously oppose change. A paradox is a piece of information that seems to contradict common sense or oppose generally accepted procedures.
5. **Double bind** is the response to denying clients who consciously oppose change. A double bind provides two choices that bind or restrict the clients to those two choices.
6. **Role shift** is the response to apathetic clients who just don't care. It means finding another position or role that those clients can shift into to hopefully displace their apathy.

If, and only if, you have tried all these techniques with clients to no avail, ending their participation in the activity or removing them from the program might be necessary.

FOCUSING

Focusing refers to client awareness and where you center your attention as a facilitator: Is your focus on the problem or the solution?

When you apply a **problem-focused facilitation approach**, you attend to what is not working and fix the dysfunctional action. Using this approach, you should know as much as possible about the problem so you can help the client correct the behavior. The more you understand the problem, the more helpful you can be in solving it. Therefore, as a problem-focused leader, ask questions such as “Why did the problem happen and what caused it?”

When you use a **solution-focused facilitation approach**, you identify what is working, that is, the functional action, and hold it up as a model for change and integrate the positive behavior into the client’s reality. Using this approach, you should know as much as possible about exceptions to the problem. The more you identify and understand these exceptions, the more help you’ll be to the client. Therefore, as a solution-focused leader, ask questions such as “When doesn’t the problem happen, and what takes place when the problem is absent?” With this approach, you gain a more concrete perception of the problem but only in light of how it pertains to possible solutions. This approach also emphasizes what clients are doing already that is useful, and this knowledge directs them to highlight, access, and build on their strengths.

The use of scaling is a common technique to self-rate performance following the adventure experience. For example, you could ask group members to evaluate how they cooperated in an experience on a scale from 0 to 10 either by stating the score aloud, holding up fingers, or writing it down. Zero represents a total lack of cooperation and 10 represents complete cooperation (don’t forget to define the ends of the scale in case one or more clients think the reverse is true). Clients can use scaling to quantifiably evaluate the experience or to launch into a discussion of their performances.

Let’s assume a group rates its cooperation with an average of 5. As a **problem-focused** leader, you should center clients’ attention on identifying, investigating, and eliminating those negative elements that prevented them from obtaining a higher mean score for cooperation. Then have the group focus on completing its next adventure experience by reducing these negative elements. As a **solution-focused** leader, you should ask the group to consider the positive elements that made the score a 5 and kept the score from being lower. This encourages the group to focus on building these positive elements to increase the score. You could also ask the group members about the small things they will be doing differently when they obtain a higher score for cooperation in the future. The following figure compares problem-focused and solution-focused facilitation.

Comparison of problem-focused and solution-focused facilitation.

Problem focus

- Centers on reducing problems
- Looks at what clients are doing wrong and incorrectly
- Emphasizes what they don’t want
- Highlights what must be done better
- Seeks to eliminate weaknesses
- Interested in *why* the problem occurs (what causes and sustains it?)

Solution focus

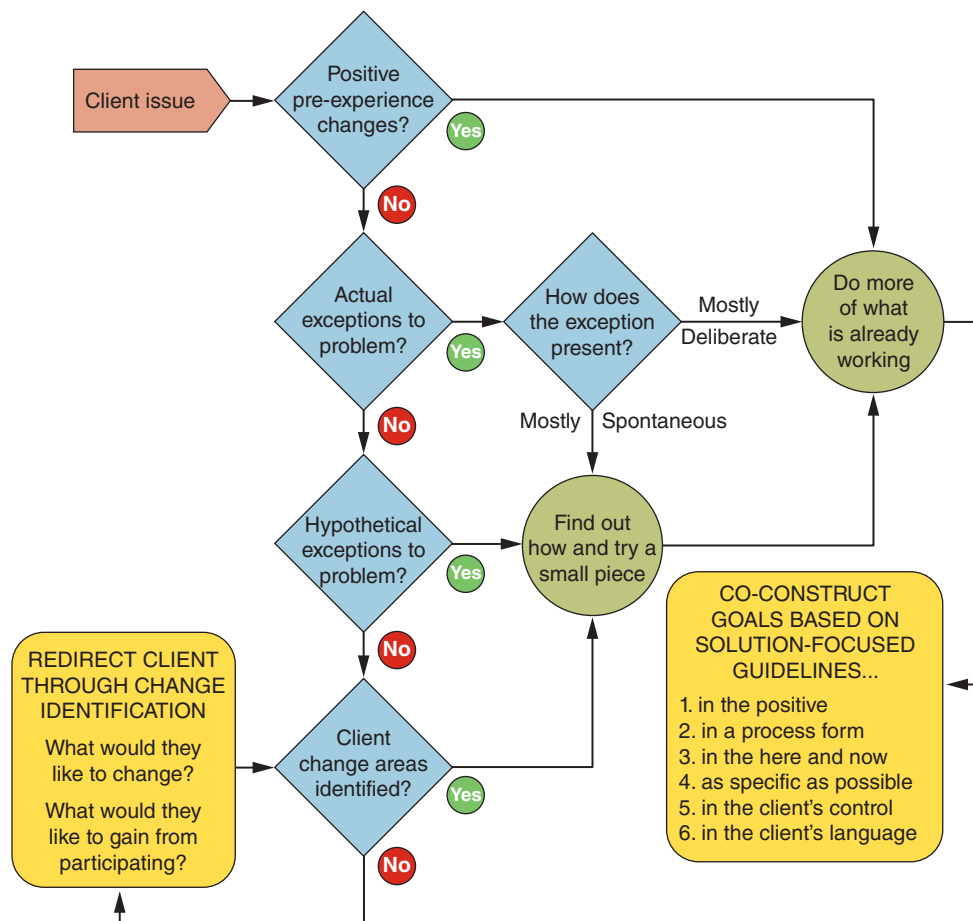
- Centers on enhancing solutions
- Looks at what clients are doing right and correctly
- Emphasizes what they do want
- Highlights what is already being done well
- Seeks to accentuate strengths
- Interested in *when* the problem doesn’t happen (what exceptions exist?)

The answers to client questions and the solutions to their problems can often be found in the **exceptions** to their issues. This is the case when you ask clients “When the problem is not happening, what is happening instead?” For example, if one issue for a group is lack of trust, you could focus on an exception (a time when clients were trusting well). If clients claim never to have been able to trust one another, you can ask about speculative exceptions (an imagined time of trusting). You should ask “When this problem is not present, what are things like? What would happen if the group was more trusting? What would you be doing differently if you trusted more? How would you know if you trusted more?”

Questions about exceptions to client issues positively focus clients’ minds on solutions and not on problems. In answering these questions, clients highlight for themselves—as well as for you—what they should do differently. This gives them ideas for acting differently in the future.

The flowchart below traces the critical decisions made by an outdoor leader who uses solution-focused approaches. The first decision involves curiosity about whether the client has experienced any **preexperience changes** between when the client contacted the organization and the beginning of the adventure experience. If the client has produced some behaviors that have been helpful, the facilitator moves directly into focusing on trying to implement such changes because they are already implanted in the behaviors of the client (i.e., do more of what is working).

If the client has not seen any changes prior to coming to the adventure experience, the facilitator begins to be very curious about whether there are any exceptions to the problem in the client’s experience (i.e., “Is there ever a time when the problem fails to occur or at least is not as strong as other times?”). If there is such an **exception**, the facilitator moves to discern whether the exception is deliberate (i.e., behavior the client can produce when



necessary) or spontaneous (i.e., the behavior happens and the client has no idea how it is produced or why). The goal is to identify behaviors and do more of what is working, or in the case of spontaneous exceptions, find out how it occurs, do a small piece of it, and, if that works, do more of it.

If no exceptions to the problem behavior can be found, the facilitator creates a hypothetical exception to the problem. One classic example of such an exception is the miracle question: “Let’s say you wake up tomorrow morning and the problem is gone. You don’t know how or why; you just know it isn’t there anymore. If that was the case, what would you be doing? How would you be behaving? What would you do differently?” The key is to implement small pieces of this, and if this small piece works, do more of it.

By now, most clients will have answered yes to one of the three branch questions in the flow-chart. But in exceptional cases, the facilitator

moves to **identify areas the client would like or needs to change**. When elements of change are discovered in this process, increasingly larger amounts are tried. Once the solution-oriented behaviors are established, goals are set for response using the six criteria summarized in the table below.

Based on increasing competencies of the solution-focused processing, the client and adventure programmer coconstruct future goals for the client. Six guidelines are provided for achieving successful implementation: (1) in a **positive** way, using solution-oriented language; (2) in the **process** form, using “verbing” techniques (adding *-ing* to the end of a verb to make it action oriented); (3) in the **here and now**, focusing on the success of present behaviors; (4) as **specific** as possible, to attain clarity in goal setting; and (5 and 6) written behaviors that **clients can control** and in **their own language** to reinforce ownership.

Comparison of Goal-Setting Criteria, Key Words, and Sample Questions With a Solution Focus (Walter & Peller, 1992)

Criteria	Key words	Sample questions
1. In a positive way	<i>Instead</i>	What will you be doing instead?
2. In the process form	<i>How</i>	How will you be doing that?
3. In the here and now	<i>On track</i>	As you leave here today and are on track, what will you be doing differently or saying differently to yourself?
4. As specific as possible	<i>Specifically</i>	How, specifically, will you be doing this?
5. In the client’s control	<i>You</i>	What will you be doing when that happens?
6. In the client’s own language	<i>Ownership</i>	(Add client’s words here.)

Based on Walter and Peller 1992.

FRAMING

Framing refers to the way an experience is introduced. Consider a well-known group initiative activity, such as the spider's web, conducted for warehouse workers with less-than-ethical behaviors. This experience can be introduced with one of the following four frames or stories:

1. **Fantasy.** You are escaping an exploding volcano or a rapidly rising flood and have 20 minutes to get your entire group from danger (this side) to safety (the other side). You must pass through this giant spider's web (cannot go over, under, or around). Each person must pass through their own opening of the giant web (once used, an opening is closed to further passage). If you contact a strand of the web, the giant spider responds and you all die (start over with no extra time). Any questions?
2. **Reality.** Get from this side of the strings to that side without going over, around, or under. Each person has to pass through a unique opening (can't use the same one twice). If you touch a string, you must start over, but time continues to tick. You have 20 minutes. Any questions?
3. **Contextual.** You are challenged to provide customer service in transforming dissatisfied customers (on this side) to satisfied customers (on the other side). You will serve each one in a customized manner due to their unique characteristics (everyone through his or her own opening). If you fail to provide a standard of service or care (contact the web), then you lose customer satisfaction (everyone starts over). Any questions?
4. **Isomorphic.** Welcome to the distribution network (web). In this challenge, you will be transporting goods (people) through the

distribution network from your warehouse (this side) to my stores (other side). Because my stores are in different locations, each delivery (person) will need to take a unique route (opening) to reach those different locations. If the goods become damaged in transit (by touching a strand), they will need to be voluntarily returned to the warehouse to be repaired or replaced and then shipped again. If my stores receive a damaged delivery, I, your valued customer, will return every shipment and we will renegotiate our contract (start over with a time penalty). You have 20 minutes to complete all deliveries (everyone). Any questions?

In these introductory stories, the rules of the game have not changed, but the client will engage and debrief in a different manner depending on the framework offered: more playful for fantasy and reality and more serious for contextual and isomorphic. The difference between the last two may not be immediately apparent. In a contextual frame, the metaphor is universal and common. For a corporate group, the story is about business in general and works with any industry. In an isomorphic frame, the story has been meticulously composed by the facilitator to specifically fit only that group of clients. Because groups are different, reusing the introduction with another group is highly unlikely. In addition, not only are all elements of the game a strong match for the workplace (making a powerful metaphor), but the resolution of the game must also be the desired resolution in life. For people who work in a warehouse, this is their job and their ethical quandary. Therefore, this frame is isomorphic for them and only them. **Isomorphic** means having the same or equivalent structures, but perhaps with different meanings or functions.

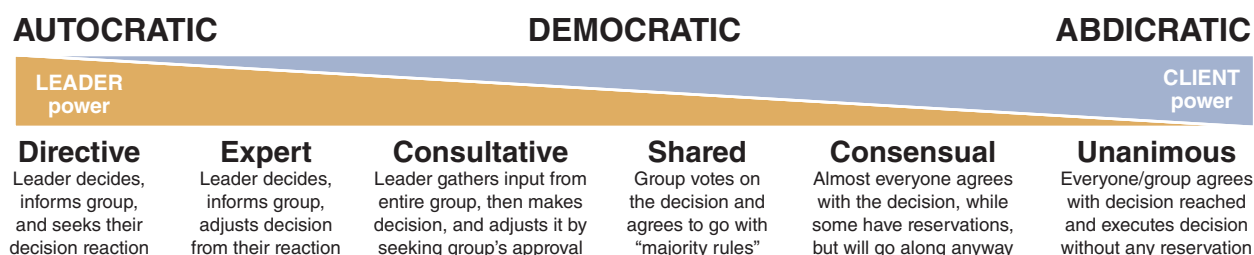
Although any frame can be used with any group and in any type of program, certain approaches fit better within definite programs, as shown in the following table. Strengthening the metaphor for each experience has a powerful impact on the transfer of learning. In funneling, we asked clients to reflect on metaphors with the question of “How is this like life?” With frontloading, we asked them to imagine

the upcoming metaphor by asking “What do you think will be the moral of this story?” Isomorphic framing tells clients the metaphor in advance and allows them to operate within that framework during their learning experiences with the intent that behaviors demonstrated in the activity will be the same as those desired in life. Stronger metaphors bring greater transfer of learning.

Comparison of Adventure Program Fields With Most Common Framing Techniques

AP field	Recreation	Education	Development	Therapy
I want to transform the way clients	Feel	Think and feel	Behave, think, and feel	Clinically resist change, behave, think, and feel
so I will frame experience using	Fantasy	Reality	Contextual metaphor	Isomorphic metaphor

GROUP DECISION MAKING



The six approaches to decision making shown in the figure above become increasingly collaborative as one moves from autocratic to abdicratic styles of leadership. In **directive** decision making, the leader makes the decision, informs the group, checks clients' expectations for accurate understanding, and accepts any reaction they might have to the decision without modifying it in any way. In **expert** decision making, the leader as expert decides, informs, and checks as before but now adjusts the decision based on clients' reactions. Both approaches take place under an autocratic style.

Under a democratic leadership style, the group has a somewhat equal role to play in decision making. **Consultative** decision making is when the leader has the slight power advantage; the leader gathers input from clients on making the decision and adjusts it as necessary to reach approval from the group. When the group members have the slight power advantage, they typically choose to vote in **shared** decision making, in which everyone agrees to follow the majority opinion. The leader contributes and influences, but the group has more control.

As the leadership style becomes more abdicratic, the group can become more cocreative and collaborative. Clients employ **consensual** decision making when they discuss to reach an agreement on a decision, but they might not reach it despite everyone having a voice and being heard. Consensus means being able to live with the decision, having no deal-breaking issues present, and agreeing to support the group decision without dissent. Occasionally, but rarely, a **unanimous** decision is made when clients reach 100% agreement on everything without significant reservations.

In the situations in which the **leader decides**, as in the directive approach, you will need to share the decision with the group, gauge their reaction to it, answer individual questions for all to hear, and check to be certain that each client knows his or her role in executing the decision. As the choice is implemented, remain flexible and modify on the fly as necessary. If you choose the expert approach of deciding with group input or the consultative approach of deciding and modifying based on clients' contributions, then you will need to be clear about their roles in contributing, your power to veto or change a potentially dangerous decision, and under what circumstances you will do so. Be prepared to decide how much to employ clients in making decisions.

In the situations in which the **group decides**, you can simply outline the situation, delegate the process to the group, and express your level of contribution ranging from a lot in shared voting, to a little in consensus, to none in unanimous. Be sure to teach the process being used with rules for voting, process guidelines to reach consensus, and criteria for unanimity. In tempering which approach to use, consider the group's urgency and motivation to decide, their competence with decision making and communication, and the available time.

If necessary, add a **time limit** and explain that you will step in and either choose for them after that limit expires or begin swaying them in a direction depending on the urgency of the situation. Never use a group-based approach as a ruse to hide your predetermined and leader-based decision. This **deception** frequently dissolves the strong bond that you have formed with clients and can lead to conflict between you and your group.

FIFTY DECISION-MAKING BIASES

Decision making is not always a smooth and accurate process. Biases, or prior conclusions based on fallacy or falsehood rather than on reality or truth, can interfere with flow and precision. To prevail, effective outdoor leaders should prevent bias by understanding and countering it. The following table contains biases for outdoor leaders to deal with. Work on improving your decision making

by being aware of these and addressing a few at a time. When you are in the field, either for your own learning or while serving clients, record your decisions. Do this at a convenient time when you have fewer demands for leading. After the trip, analyze your decision-making behavior by identifying bias within your process and reflect on this by discussing it with a colleague.

List of 50 Decision-Making Biases and Counters Arranged by Five Categories

	Bias/effect	Explanation	Example	Counter
PREDISPOSITION	Blind spot	Thinking you are less biased than everyone else	I know others are prejudiced toward this stereotype, but not me.	Take a long, hard look at your own biases, chiefly those in this table.
	Dunning-Kruger	Experts underestimate their competence, whereas novices overestimate their competence.	I'm not perfect at leading 5.14 yet, but I was pretty good for my first time in a canoe.	Be ready to facilitate novices who are arrogant and fearless as well as timid and fearful.
	Exaggeration	Expecting more than reality can deliver, so you embellish outcomes	I once caught a fish this big, and it fed everyone for days.	When it comes to leading, keep your stories and rewards accurate.
	Halo	Thinking that when you are talented in one thing, you must be skilled in all things	Because I'm a good climber, I am also a good paddler and skier.	Don't assume competence is easily duplicated within a client.
	Illusion of control	Overestimating your power or control over external events	I control my activities outdoors, but not as a passenger in planes, trains, and automobiles.	Think rationally about what you have absolutely no control over and learn to let go of worry.
	Negativity	Having the tendency to more likely recall negative rather than positive experiences	I can remember getting injured. It was on the way down from summiting something or other.	Be mindful of your positive experiences and avoid dwelling on the negatives: let them go.
	Normalcy	Being unwilling to prepare for a disaster that hasn't yet occurred	Why have a contingency plan? That will never happen to me or us!	Remember the 5Ps: "prior planning prevents poor performance."
	Overconfidence	Being excessively trusting in your own correctness or competence	I am certain that I am right about this; I'm rarely wrong.	Leave lots of room for making mistakes; you are only human.

	Bias/effect	Explanation	Example	Counter
PREDISPOSITION	Reactance	Needing to do the opposite of what you are told to prevent limiting freedom to be yourself	I'm going to prove them wrong by showing it can be done even if it kills me!	Ask yourself whether you are being manipulated by this "reverse psychology" and change this.
	Status quo	Preferring to keep things the way they are to resist change	No way they can make me do that; it's fine the way it is.	Change is the only constant in life; get used to and learn to embrace it.
	Bias/effect	Explanation	Example	Counter
ESTIMATION	Impact	Overestimating the intensity or duration of an event's influence	It was the worst weather ever, and it went on for days.	Avoid giving too much credit to the impact of intense events.
	Observer expectancy	Unconsciously manipulating information in line with anticipated outcomes	I don't like hearing negative information, so I am going to downplay its importance.	Be prepared to accept all contradictions that reject your working opinions and theories.
	Optimism	Overestimating positive results, especially flattering or nice ones	Early climbers on Everest were seen to speak optimistically about failure and pessimistically when success was imminent.	Be mindful of when you are overly optimistic or pessimistic and especially when clients are listening to the conversation.
	Pessimism	Overestimating negative results, especially horrific or bad ones		
	Planning time	Underestimating how long tasks take to reach completion	There will be plenty of time to get the job done by my big group.	Allow extra time for tasks and planning, especially for groups.
	Pseudocertainty	Paradoxically avoiding risk when positive outcome is anticipated and seeking risk when negative outcome is expected	Looks like this is easily done, so let's back off a bit before we get there. It isn't going to work, so we might as well go all out since we have nothing to lose.	Control your risk taking and that of others by being aware of this paradox, especially in groups, and downplay overly positive or negative prospects.
	Regression	Overestimating high values and underestimating low values	I'm going to win the lottery, and I will never be in a car crash.	Be realistic about your chances for positive and negative results.
	Risk compensation	Being willing to take greater risks as perceived safety increases	No dangers here; let's go for it and do a handstand on the top!	Know dangers don't decrease even when the situation looks safer.
	Time saving	Misestimating time saved when increasing or decreasing speed. Errors from low speed underestimate savings; errors from high speed overestimate savings.	Over the same distance, if we double our slow speed, we save less time than if we double our fast speed; obviously, faster equates to more time saved.	Do the calculations rather than guess at what should make total sense. (This example is further explained in chapter 16.)
	Well-traveled road	Underestimating the time it takes to travel well-known routes and overestimating the time it takes to travel unfamiliar routes	I've been there before, so it should take no time at all to reach camp. That's new to me; we might not get there before dark.	Measure time and distance from objective sources, such as maps or technology; memories can be highly inaccurate.

(continued)

(continued)

	Bias/effect	Explanation	Example	Counter
FAVORITISM	Ambiguity	Avoiding options when information is missing	We don't know about that, so let's not consider it yet.	Use sound judgment to substitute for missing data.
	Decoy	Changing because of new option that is identical to old option	I like your option; it sounds a lot like that other one we heard earlier. I'm liking it more now.	Don't be fooled by seemingly "new" data when they repeat "old" information in a new way.
	Distinction	Viewing two identical options as dissimilar when evaluating together rather than separately	I just feel that this choice is much better than the other one even though they appear similar.	Perform a comparison of similar options to find differentiating factors; if there are none, then the options are identical.
	Exposure	Expressing undue likeability or disdain based on familiarity	I know that way well, and I [do/don't] like it very much.	Maintain your neutrality and objectivity to stay mobile.
	Omission	Perceiving omitted information as better than included options	I'm sure those missing data would be useful; let's go look.	Use sound judgment to substitute for missing data.
	Ostrich	Ignoring obviously negative information (head in the sand)	We can't do anything about it, so let's just leave that for now.	Ignoring negative information can kill you; pay attention to it!
	Reactive devaluation	Intentionally devaluing data that come from opponents	I don't like you, so your ideas aren't that credible to me.	Listen to people you don't like for their good and correct ideas.
	Selective perception	Seeing only the information that you expect to see	That's not on my radar as a possibility, so let's ignore it.	Keep vigilant for information you wouldn't normally see.
	Semmelweis	Rejecting contradictory data just because it opposes your thoughts	I disagree, so this can't be that important; let's move on.	Identify and accept contradiction as a valuable contribution.
	Triviality	Giving disproportionate weight to inconsequential information	That's really important; let's make it the center of our efforts.	Identify unimportant data and make others aware of it as well.
	Bias/effect	Explanation	Example	Counter
CHOICE	Belief	Evaluating a logical argument based on the perception of the conclusion	That's got to work because it has to! That can't possibly be true because it will never work.	Don't allow your preference for an outcome to influence your assessment of options.
	Conservatism	Insufficient revising of past beliefs after considering and accepting new evidence	I understand what you're saying, but that doesn't make a difference; we're still going on.	If you consider and accept new evidence, then you must use it fairly to revise your thinking or planning.
	Continued influence	Believing misinformation even in the face of correction	I know it's wrong, but it still makes perfectly good sense.	Accept corrections based on data and dispel misinformation.
	Experimenter	Supporting data that agree with your opinion and downplaying information that doesn't	I markedly like those data that suit my choice well; this other information, not so much.	Avoid a desire to "cherry pick" only the information you like, by playing the devil's advocate.
	False consensus	Overestimating how much others agree with you	Any disagreements? None? OK, let's execute the plan!	Provide ample time for people to expectedly disagree with you.

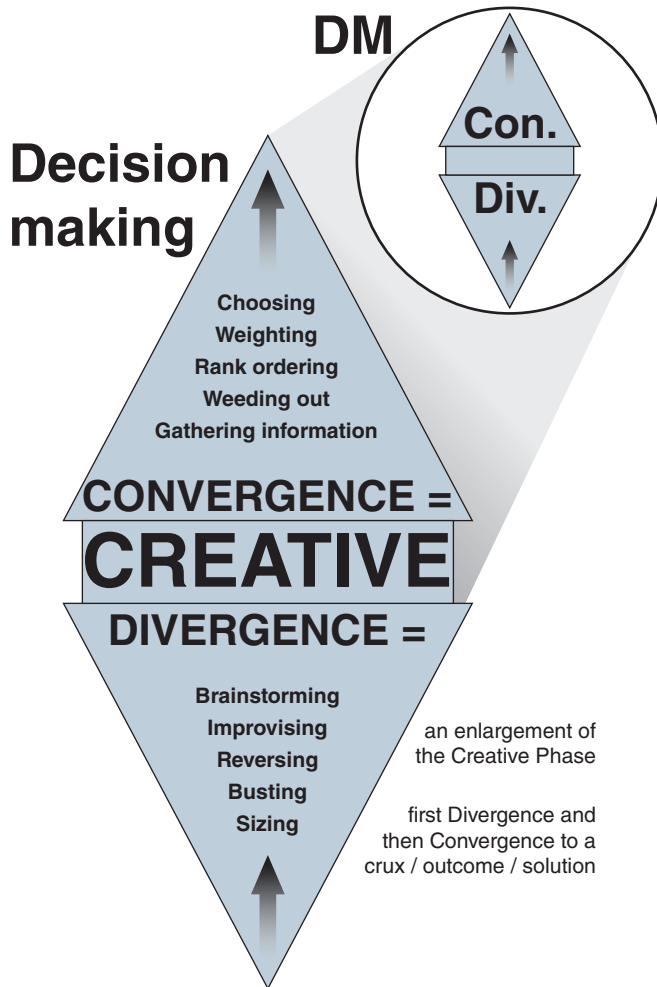
	Bias/effect	Explanation	Example	Counter
CHOICE	Group attribution	Attributing the opinion of one group member to all members so that group decisions are the unilateral preference of everyone even when individuals express dissent	I like your idea, and I am certain you speak for everyone since I haven't heard anyone object. So let's go with your thinking and follow that option now.	Avoid the tendency to accept extroverts' opinions as being those of the entire group; provide ample time for introverts to contribute and for people to disagree.
	Group serving	Wanting to be liked, so incorrectly evaluating information as beneficial	I want to be popular and don't want to offend you, so here is a decision you are going to like.	Maintain your neutrality and objectivity; leaders often must make unpopular choices.
	Input	Incorrectly equating observations with expectations	I think constantly busy and outdoorsy people are highly productive leaders.	Avoid jumping to the wrong assumption based on false links.
	Shared information	Spending more time discussing known information and less time discussing unknown data	Let's talk about what we know; it does us no good to speculate about what we don't know.	When you don't know, simply use sound judgment to substitute for missing data.
	Zero risk	Reducing small risks to zero for the purpose of calculating	That's pretty much nothing, so let's not worry about that risk.	Be sure the risk is insignificant before discounting it as no risk.
	Bias/effect	Explanation	Example	Counter
ATTRIBUTION	Authority	Assuming expert opinion is more accurate and being easily swayed by it than by your own	I'm the leader and have obviously been trained for this; I know what I'm doing.	Think carefully about when to accept expert opinion; don't weigh it too heavily.
	Choice supportive	Remembering one's choice as better than it was	I've done this before and recall that the best way to do it is . . .	Again, memories can be highly inaccurate; temper this choice.
	Confirmation	Searching for and interpreting information to confirm preconceptions	I like this information; it fits well with our plan, so let's continue using it.	Allow enough time to search for contradictory information and use it to reject conceptions.
	Gamblers	Incorrectly believing that future probabilities of random events are influenced by their past probabilities (nine times heads means the 10th must be tails)	Risk probabilities are self-correcting. After a string of big failures due to the presence of dangers, I am due to succeed, and this time I'll reach the top!	Don't believe that past failed attempts indicate that you are now due for a success; the past has no influence on the future other than learning from errors.
	Hindsight	Viewing event as having been predictable only after it has occurred	I knew it all along! It is exactly what I said would happen.	Be honest; don't let outcomes taint your perceptions of predictions.
	Hot-handed luck	Holding incorrect conviction that people successful with random events are more likely to succeed again and again	I'm a winner, and I'm going to keep on winning; so let's go all in and start taking some big risks.	Luck doesn't factor into risk taking; avoiding danger on the way up doesn't mean you will necessarily miss it going down.
	Illusory correlation	Inaccurately seeing a causal link between correlated events when the relationship is actually spurious	Summer ice cream sales cause swimming pool drownings, or is it the other way around?	Recognize that correlation does not necessarily imply causality; it can be driven by other trends.

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	Bias/effect	Explanation	Example	Counter
ATTRIBUTION	Information	Seeking irrelevant information that cannot impact events	We just need more information. How do we find missing data?	Use sound judgment to decide what information is irrelevant.
	Outcome	Assessing a decision by eventual outcome instead of the available data when it was initially made	It is obvious that we made the wrong choice. Why didn't you say so before we made it?	Avoid the desire to appraise based on results; remember to evaluate from existing data.
	Self-serving	Denying blame for failure, yet claiming responsibility for success	That setback is not my fault; I got earlier helpful parts correct.	Be prepared to shoulder more than your fair share of blame and share successes with others.

CREATIVE DECISION MAKING



The creative decision-making process involves **diverging**, or building a range of several options, and then **converging**, or narrowing that range to select the best option. The figure above shows five diverging and five converging techniques. The wider the range of options generated through **divergence techniques**, the better. **Convergence** is generally the most difficult part of decision making because you must discriminate the best option among many.

DIVERGENCE TECHNIQUES

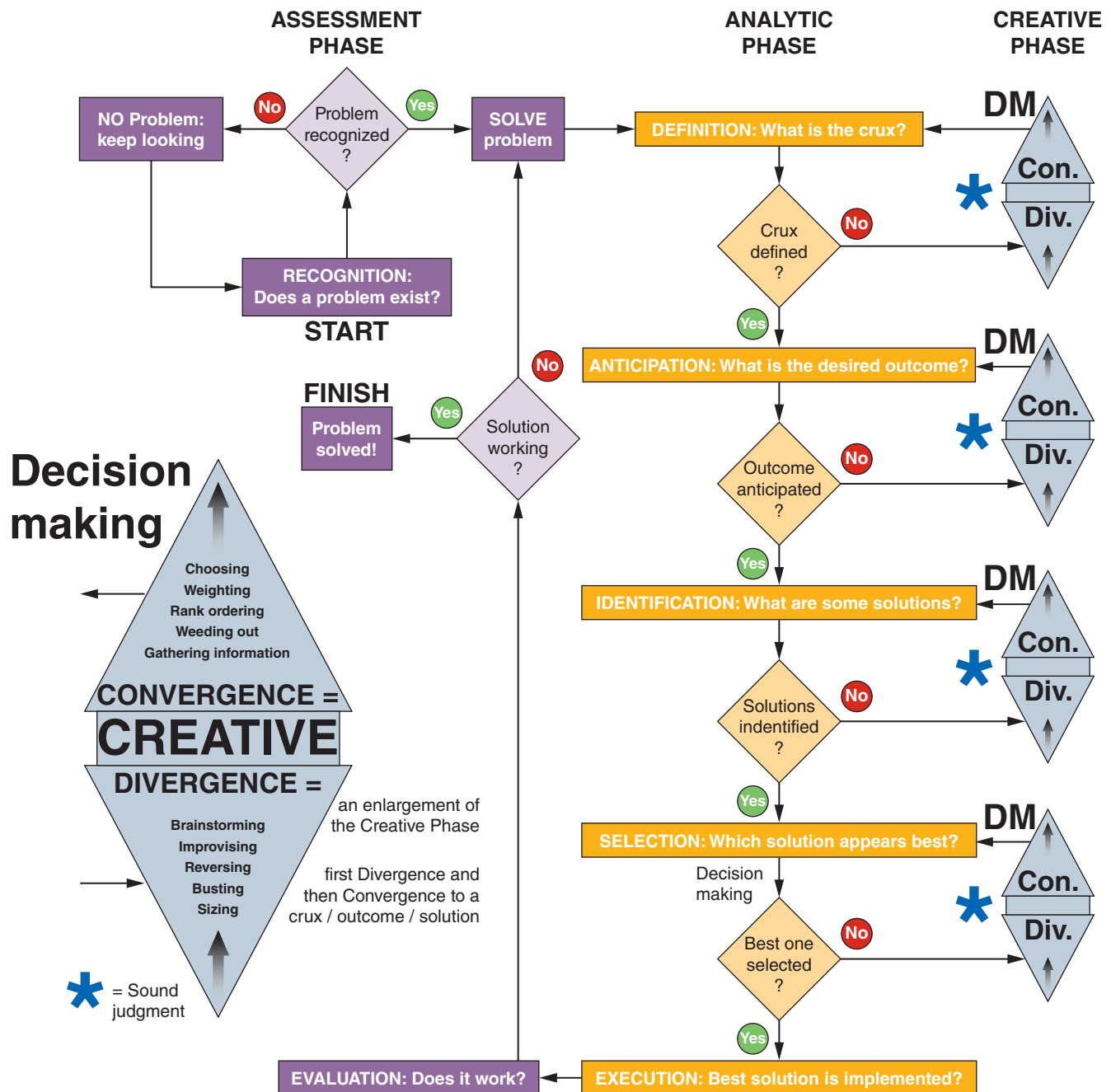
1. **Brainstorming** is openly expressing any idea that comes to mind without fear of criticism by other group members. By creating a receptive atmosphere, people are free to share suggestions, no matter how unusual or weird, without anyone else putting them down. The uninhibited sharing of ideas can spark creative new ideas in others. During brainstorming, the generation of ideas usually starts slowly, reaches peak production, and then tapers off. **Extended effort** refers to encouraging group members not to give up too quickly. By waiting through any pauses or dry spells, groups usually find that ideas generated later in the process prove to be the most creative and are occasionally the most useful. **Deferred prejudice** requires that people remain open to generating new ideas instead of settling on the first one that sounds good to them. By providing ample time and freedom from bias, you provide opportunities to enlarge the pool of generated ideas. You can make better choices from a larger number of ideas.
2. **Improvising** means generating improved ideas by combining useful attributes from existing ideas. First, list the attributes of your ideas by inventorying the characteristics of any idea or piece of the problem. Listing attributes, such as abilities, limitations, strengths, weaknesses, or required resources, helps to draw connections and formulate relationships among the ideas generated. Next, force combinations among comparable and contrasting ideas with an eye for creating new ideas by altering old ones. Often it is forced substitution, mixing, adaptation, modification, or rearrangement that leads to these new ideas.

3. **Reversing** means taking some of those listed attributes and considering their opposites.
4. **Busting assumptions** refers to breaking away from the unconscious and conscious predetermined beliefs we have about things we already know. The more we can see things from fresh perspectives, the more likely we are to innovate something novel.
5. **Sizing** refers to generating new options by increasing or decreasing key dimensions of an existing idea.

CONVERGENCE TECHNIQUES

1. **Gathering** involves collecting all pertinent information supporting or refuting the merit of a particular option and categorizing that information under three headings: facts, or what you know as true; assumptions, or what you judge to be true; and constraints, or possible barriers to success.
2. **Weeding out** involves removing those options that are clearly inappropriate. Often a field of seven or more options is too much for most leaders to truly consider. Reducing this number to three or four options becomes more manageable. Reduce the options you are considering using the plausibility of the information you have gathered. Evaluate the cost of exercising the option, the consequences of putting that option into action, and so on. A word of caution: Don't be tempted to automatically weed out ideas during the divergence process, because doing so can inhibit the generation of subsequent ideas. Weeding out is a useful step for shortening the decision-making process under certain limiting conditions such as time, weather, and so on. When time is ample and you are competent at juggling alternatives, you can consider all options, consequences, and other information.
3. **Rank ordering** involves prioritizing the three or four remaining options and arranging them into a decision tree. The decision tree is a simple drawing that details your possible choices and the probable chance events that might occur in the course of a solution. You can draw each decision and chance event as branching forks on the tree that divide into separate paths based on the choices made. The advantage of a decision tree is that it pairs all options to create choices between two options at a time rather than all options at once. The fewer options you have to choose from, the easier and more efficient choosing becomes. Ordering enables you to examine any situation from its component decisions, which makes the overall situation more manageable.
4. **Weighting** involves considering the positive, neutral, and negative aspects of each option at each decision point in the decision tree.
5. **Choosing** involves selecting a path through the decision tree by picking the preferred option at each decision point. The preferred option is the one with the best overall probability of success. When several factors are at play, overall probability is the product of all probabilities.

MULTIPHASIC PROBLEM SOLVING



Problem solving is finding answers to simple and complex questions. The flowchart above is a **multi-phasic model** for solving problems.

In the **assessment phase**, you question the problem's reality. If at any given moment you don't recognize a problem, then we encourage you to stay

alert for problems. If you do recognize a problem, then you are obliged to enter the analytical phase of the model. In the **analytical phase**, you define the crux of the problem, anticipate the outcome to be used in later evaluation, identify several possible solutions, select the most probable one, and put it into action. If you have trouble answering yes to any questions in this phase, you generally use the **creative phase** and employ divergence and convergence techniques. Sound **judgment** can also play an important role in the analytical phase and in decision making to substitute for missing information. Once you have executed a solution, you have the responsibility of evaluating whether the solution works. If not, you must repeat the cycle.

The **analytical** phase consists of five steps represented by questions: definition, anticipation, identification, selection, and execution. If you can answer a question affirmatively, then you proceed to the next step. If you answer any question negatively, then you should use creative techniques to generate a more positive and informed response.

The initial question emphasizes **defining the crux** of the problem, or the part that is going to be the most difficult to overcome. Most problems are composed of several little problems. The trick is figuring out which one to focus on first. The next question **anticipates a desired outcome** to success. Then, you can assess the outcome as criteria for evaluating the solution when you use it later. Once the problem and the result are clearer, you **identify solutions** to the problem. Listing the known facts and uncertain information can help you identify possible options. Near the end of the

analytical phase, you **select the probable solution** and execute it. You make decisions at every step of the analytical phase by diverging and converging a range of options.

The complexity of problems can range from simple, for which you know all variables, to complex, in which you must deal with several unknown variables. Because adventures are full of uncertainty, you will rarely come across a problem for which you have all the information; most problems will have missing pieces and require **judgment**. Solving a simple problem for which the variables appear known is a relatively straightforward process when you apply a short form of the multiphasic model using only the analytical phase. Solving a complex problem with several unknowns is much more difficult and requires you to apply sound judgment to substitute for missing information. This requires a long form of the multiphasic model that includes creative techniques. Of course, you need to know the kind of problem you are solving to correctly apply the model. You can use the model, combining analytical procedures and creative techniques, in its long and short forms. The table below lists a few criteria for determining which form to apply to a problem. You should consider which of these criteria are most important to your preferred choice of form. For some problems, elements of one form may be necessary to assist the other. For example, you might need to use creative techniques at any step in the short form if an answer proves elusive. Thus, you might end up using both forms, so be flexible.

When to Use the Short and Long Forms of the Multiphasic Problem-Solving Model

Short form	Long form
Crux is known, problem is simple, desired outcome is clear, key information is available, consequences are expected, range of options is complete, time to consider is limited, situation is <i>not</i> life threatening, group resources are sufficient, or success is predictable.	Crux is unknown, problem is complex, desired outcome is vague, key information is missing, consequences are unexpected, range of options is incomplete, time to consider is ample, situation is life threatening, group resources are lacking, or success is uncertain.

FIVE BREAKDOWNS

As you might expect, most problem-solving procedures are prone to **breakdowns**. Common sources of breakdowns include the following:

1. **Stress.** Stress is a primary factor influencing the breakdown of problem solving. Information may bombard you at a rate that exceeds your capacity to make wise choices. At such stressful times, rushed decisions or unsound judgments can interfere with problem solving. In contrast, in situations in which opportunities are eustressful, or pleasant, such as the perfect challenge, you are more likely to enhance your actions and perform at your best because you are optimally aroused. However, in situations in which opportunities are distressful, or unpleasant, such as working against adversity, you are more likely to feel rushed, and your performance might drop correspondingly because you are overaroused.
2. **Haste.** Often, emergency situations are limited by time constraints, which can rush you to respond. But remember, haste makes waste. You might miss a good possible solution in the identification step or jump on the first likely crux that comes to mind in the definition step. When time is short, be sure you don't avoid looking for alternatives, blindly adhere to your original plan, or regress to following established procedures. Also, don't fall into the trap of changing your plans no matter what the cost and searching endlessly for alternatives until time runs out. Neither scenario is desirable. To be an effective outdoor leader, you must balance time consumption with idea generation when you have insufficient time. Take the time to seek diversity in resources and information by considering everyone's ideas. Avoid premature decisions or searching to exhaustion for that one "perfect" solution.
3. **Misinformation.** In the selection step, you must select a probable solution from a collection of possible ones by comparing strengths and weaknesses, testing against important criteria, and analyzing consequences. If your information for comparing, testing, or analyzing is flawed, your selection may fail to solve the problem. Misinformation can break down the process. Use your judgment to reinforce and recheck information and to reduce errors in selection. Don't let your judgment be colored by exaggerating, procrastinating, or avoiding responsibility under pressure or by attempting to maintain self-respect, become accepted by peers, profit personally, or allow others to benefit. As an effective outdoor leader, you should remain as neutral as possible while solving problems.
4. **Miscommunication.** During the execution step, ineffective outdoor leaders might miscommunicate a selected solution to their groups. When it is put into action, the solution may fail because some members were unclear on or unaware of their own roles or the roles of others. Miscommunication can also interfere with information and perhaps lead to misinformation. Don't let this happen to you. Always work on effective communication so that when the crunch is on, you'll be ready.
5. **Perceived boundaries.** Breakdowns in the creative phase often result from perceived boundaries. Thinking creatively requires you to suspend your perceptions of limited resources or capabilities, even if they are truly limited. If you believe an idea won't work, it probably won't. Remaining boundless in mind and spirit directly contradicts the premise of the analytical phase in which you must set parameters at all steps to evaluate success. Because of this, resolving the paradox between thinking analytically "in boxes" and creatively "outside boxes" is one of the toughest tasks in multiphasic problem solving.

SOUND JUDGMENT AND REFRACTION

Judgment is only necessary when absent information brings decision-making and/or problem-solving processes to a halt. Unable to proceed without missing data, these processes recruit judgment to fill in the blanks and get them going again. With experience, judgment evolves—from poor judgment in novices to intuitive judgment in established experts. This evolution can happen only after **intensive and extensive experience** and only if the individual subjects this database of experience to **repeated reflection**.

When faced with a new situation in which information is missing, judgment is the cognitive process that extracts data from memory, refracts or reshapes those data to fit the new situation, and sends the modified data to substitute for the missing information.

Refraction refers to thinking about your past experiences and reshaping them to fit your present

situation. It is a large part of sound judgment. Refraction in teaching and learning is a deductive process: from general to specific. We bend or reshape what we will do and say to suit each situation and further refine our learning based on soliciting the perspectives of others. In refraction, we experience new learning through their feedback, which also helps us learn.

In a new situation, judgment involves refracting information extracted from memory to fill a hole left by absent information due to uncertainty (the defining element of adventure). When trying to substitute for missing information in either problem solving or decision making, the brain searches through available memories and finds some information that might fit. If we are lucky, and this is rare, we find a perfect fit that requires no modification. However, most of the time, the extracted memories must be reshaped or refracted to fit the new situation.

A DOZEN HEURISTICS

Often, we must refract, or reshape, the information we extracted from a memory before it gets incorporated into problem solving or decision making. To shorten the time and energy needed to do this, humans have evolved methods of shortcutting called **heuristics**. These are never faultless; they are not guaranteed to be the best way, and they can backfire. However, they will help find an acceptable substitution when perfection is impossible or impractical. So, outdoor leaders are advised to use these with caution, because they can both help and hinder judgment.

Heuristics ease the enormous cognitive load of searching through all those similar memories of many extensive and intensive experiences you have enjoyed in the outdoors by providing some reasonable short cuts to reduce the quantity. Ultimately, you will need to choose which option is

the best of many to refract. This is where decision making comes in again, but heuristics can help narrow the field of alternatives.

The table below provides a list of the 12 most common heuristics used with judgment as chosen from several dozen possible ones. Sometimes, the results of using heuristics will be positive: a satisfactory substitution that leads to an accurate solution or a correct decision. At other times, the results of their use will be negative: an insufficient substitution that leads to a faulty solution or an erroneous decision. In the cases of judgment error, many decision-making biases and problem-solving breakdowns can result, and outcomes can be dead wrong. We stand to benefit from learning about heuristics and understanding how these can help or hinder our judgment.

Twelve Heuristics That Can Be Used to Guide Judgment in Times of Uncertainty

Heuristic	Explanation	Positive example	Negative example
Familiarity*	The more familiar situations are, the more likely past similar memories or ideas will be favored or selected to stand in for the present; risks may go unnoticed.	We go with what we know: we choose outdoor gear by its brand reputation, take clients to places that we have already visited, and extract well-known memories of occurrences when using judgment.	When we are highly familiar with locations or activities, we tend to incorrectly assume that our competence provides added safety and we have control over the dangers, so we take greater risks.
Acceptance*	Risky actions can result from the need to be recognized and receive others' approval.	We are social beings who like to avoid unpleasant rejection, so we do what is popular and necessary.	When we want to be accepted by others, we might like to show off or bite off more than we can chew.
Commitment* (escalation of)	The more time or energy invested early in dedication to a goal or objective, the more difficult it will be to abandon that commitment in the face of discrepancies; risks may be underperceived.	We tenaciously persevere and sometimes succeed in adventures; this is the nature of the experience (in for a penny, in for a pound and throwing good money after bad).	When we have publicly stated our commitment to a route, objective, or schedule, we tend to stick with it even if new evidence mounts to the contrary; we tend to ignore clues to obvious dangers in favor of reaching our goals at any cost.

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Heuristic	Explanation	Positive example	Negative example
Scarcity*	The more easily a prize may be lost to competitors, time, or conditions and the more difficult it was to obtain, the greater its value seems; critical risks may go ignored.	When a chance and time to summit are both sparse due to deteriorating weather patterns, we tend to put all our efforts into climbing before the storm arrives; scarcity drives us to succeed.	When an opportunity is rare (such as competing for fresh powder with scarcity of tracks), we ascribe a higher value to that opportunity and take larger risks by assuming a prime slope will not avalanche.
Social proof*	Automatically conforming to influence to behave “properly” in social settings because others know better but fail to identify the risks	Following the herd makes good sense in some instances, such as avoiding crevasses and seracs on a glacier or submerged rocks in a river, assuming correct analysis of the risks by those who go ahead.	When we see others engaged in a place or pursuit, we tend to think <i>It’s OK; they are going there or doing that, so we can too</i> , and we follow along perceiving the risks to be lessened.
Availability**	The ease by which a memory can be recalled, based on recent or dominant events, verifies its favor or selection.	When avalanches have been in the news lately, these memories are easily extracted and tend to make us cautious and overestimate risk.	When good weather, little fresh snowfall, and lack of avalanche stories abound, we tend to be less cautious and underestimate risk.
Similarity**	The closer ideas or memories of past situations are to the present situation, the more they are favored or selected.	While climbing first ascents with the need for judgment, most of us will extract memories as identical to this climb as we can remember.	Without experience bases to draw from, some of us will be unable to extract memories that are even remotely like this climb.
Representativeness**	The more ideas or memories symbolize a current situation in prototype or stereotype, the more likely they are to be favored or selected.	On a river trip during high-water levels, we recall prototypical past trips (this river at low levels and other rivers at high levels) to predict downstream dangers.	Without experience to draw on, we fall back on stereotypical ideas about most rivers in flood, and we inaccurately imagine, estimate, or predict downstream dangers.
Simulation**	Easily imagined ideas are more likely to be favored or selected over those that are difficult to anticipate.	If we can envision all possibilities and picture their occurrences, we are more likely to be properly prepared for a caving expedition.	If we cannot visualize everything that could possibly go wrong, then we run the risk of being blindsided by a risk that was hard to imagine.
Anchoring with adjustment**	An early recalled memory is favored or selected as the anchor that later memories or ideas are gauged against; despite extra information to the contrary, later ones are adjusted from or remain unusually close to the anchor.	We form initial impressions of clients when we first meet them. Subsequent observations of their behaviors in adventures help us to temper our opinions about them. Sometimes we are true in our original reference point, and it continues no matter what. →	However, if the first impression is false, it erroneously persists despite evidence to the contrary. In both these examples, the first impression is an anchor that adjusts all other information. If the anchor is true, there is no problem, but if the anchor is false, there is trouble.
Recognition**	Memories and ideas that are more identifiable tend to be valued, favored, or selected against those that are “out of the ordinary” or unfamiliar.	When lost while bicycling on a new route, we tend to look for any clues we identify and connect with our destination but ignore clues that lack meaning and relevance.	When hiking, we tend to identify and connect with clues of apparent danger, such as poisonous snakes, but ignore clues without meaning and relevance to danger, such as bear scat.
Zero sum**	Incorrectly assuming two opportunities are balanced and correlated for gain or loss, when they are not	Correctly eliminating 1 of 2 ideas that are close enough to being the same so that there is no significant difference in likely outcome	Incorrectly eliminating 1 of 2 ideas that appear equal, but which (in fact) are not, can often result in the loss of a valuable opportunity.

*Risk-related heuristics used in FACETS; **Used for extraction and/or refraction of memories

The five evaluation heuristics are very useful in safety and risk management situations. The remaining seven judgment heuristics relate to how the brain interprets memories and modifies them as ideas to create replacement information. Judgment extracts and refracts information according to these seven heuristics.

Similarity, availability and representativeness influence which memories will be extracted. Simulation, anchoring, and recognition influence the selection of memories for refraction or modification. Zero-sum helps reduce the number of ideas floating around in the judgment soup.

INTUITION AND JUDGMENT CHECKLIST

Outdoor leaders are often forced to solve problems and make decisions without all the data, or they use sound judgment to substitute for information that is missing. Even when all information is available, some data go ignored or unanalyzed because the cognitive demands are too difficult, too time consuming, or too unfamiliar for most outdoor leaders. Instead, they simply apply the first idea they come across (good or bad) toward a judgment, solution or decision. Intuition can play a critical role in ensuring that the first idea is a good one.

Intuition is a spontaneous response to an uncertain situation without conscious awareness or cognitive reasoning but with convinced confidence and very little effort. It is a different way of thinking that uses specialized information to make extremely important judgments. Intuition has been described as an unexplainable hunch, a gut feeling, a sixth sense, a second nature, a foreboding premonition, an unconscious awareness, a precognitive prophecy, a subconscious suspicion, and/or an inspirational insight. With intuition, outdoor leaders simply know, but they are unable to comprehend just how they know except to say that their judgment was intimately linked with their experience.

Intuition can be a scary thing to pay attention to for some outdoor leaders. It often doesn't make

sense, is open to personal perception or interpretation, and can be flat-out wrong. However, when the brain is on information overload, intuition can identify intricate patterns in the data at a subconscious level. Something isn't quite right, but you can't put your finger on it. Then, suddenly, you become alert. When the hairs start to stand up on your neck or your stomach begins to feel queasy, turn off the heuristic thinking and listen to those quiet emotions rising. They may just be your intuition talking to you.

Toward the end of the 20th century, intuition was simply considered the result of correctly using heuristics, countering decision-making biases, and preventing problem-solving breakdowns. However, by the beginning of the 21st century, intuition has become viewed as learned behavior. By repeatedly making judgments, and then evaluating them through reflective processes, mental pathways are laid down and tempered in the outdoor leader's brain. This repetition eventually becomes intuitive.

Intuition and heuristic approaches to judgment can be differentiated by the characteristics listed below. Remember, effective outdoor leaders aspire to evolve from heuristics to intuition. When you have expertise in that environment and with those clientele (some say a decade of continuous

Comparative Differentiation of Judgments as Driven by Heuristics and Intuition

Heuristically driven judgment	Intuitively driven judgment
<p>Shortcuts (correct or incorrect) that reduce large mental burdens when making judgments</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cognitive reasoning with conscious memories • Deliberate, slow, serial thought to reach product • Rationally based in logical inference, analysis of evidence, and factual content (free from emotions) when information is abstract, verbal, and symbolic • Effortful thinking from the head that is proactively built for generalized circumstances when experience is lacking • Easy to explain the logic behind outcomes 	<p>Gut feelings (correct or incorrect) that reduce large mental burdens when making judgments</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Precognitive and subconscious, with no analysis • Automated, fast, parallel thought by unconscious process • Experientially based in associative metaphors, narrative stories, and tacit information (intertwined with emotions) when information is concrete, visual, and contextual • Effortless feeling from the heart that is reactively suited to specific situations when related experience is abundant • Difficult to explain how outcomes were obtained

professional experience), then you should rely on intuition. Similarly, if you lack time to make a well-considered judgment or the conditions are highly subjective or unstructured, then go with your gut. If these conditions can't be met, then fall back on heuristics. Remember that both approaches can be wrong, so have contingencies in place in case of such inevitabilities.

Sound judgment is a lot like memory capacity. It cannot be taught, but it can be developed and improved to an optimal level for any outdoor leader. Everyone has an absolute level of judgmental capacity, just as everyone has maximum memory capacities. However, the trick to developing judgment lies not in regurgitating facts memorized for tests but in reasoning. Thus, you benefit from gathering a **breadth and depth of experience** from as many sources as possible, not only firsthand experience but also vicarious experience gained through observation and discussion. One excellent way for aspiring outdoor leaders to gain vicarious experience is to read and discuss scenarios about classic accidents. Gathering experience is important, but experience alone does not guarantee that you will have sound judgment. Certainly, experience without reflection cannot result in learning.

All too often, outdoor leaders forget to evaluate successful resolutions and instead analyze only those actions that failed. While analyzing failure aids learning, not evaluating success can lose an equal opportunity forever. Furthermore, the belief that people learn best from their mistakes is frequently touted as the rationale for allowing clients or leadership candidates to make plenty of errors. But this rationale concerns us because it is founded on the obvious ease of figuring out what went wrong versus the difficulty of determining why something worked so well. No matter what happens, spend plenty of time reflecting on negative and positive outcomes alike. You can learn just as much from either.

Strive to optimize your capacity for making good judgments. Above all, evaluate and thoroughly reflect on every experience. Try these suggestions to help hone your judgment:

1. Listen to the rules and pay attention to the exceptions to those rules.

2. Gather as much information as possible from lectures, historical case studies, and the horror stories of other leaders.
3. Observe other leaders and how they use judgment.
4. Develop a questioning attitude and inquire about the predictions others make.
5. Recall personal near misses and share them openly with others.
6. Consider the analyses of personal mistakes made by others.
7. React, either verbally or in writing, to uncertain situations posed by other leaders.
8. Maintain mindfulness by concentrating on the moment and observing yourself in reaction to the chaos and complexity of adventures both in the classroom and in the field.
9. Keep a logbook of experiences and a judgment journal for reflecting on those experiences.
10. Get experience at every opportunity; never turn down any reasonable chance to lead.
11. Take a group of peers on an expedition and ask for their honest feedback.
12. Undertake practical internships with several programs, and always asking someone to observe you and give advice.
13. Become an apprentice to an expert leader and have this mentor guide you and pass on responsibility in a gradual manner.

You need to use your judgment only when uncertainty is present, which is all the time in adventures! Because you operate under uncertain circumstances most of the time, you cannot possibly anticipate when a problem or decision might come along. Furthermore, adventure program administrators cannot prepare standard responses or rules to all situations, because each situation is unique in its uncertainty. To be an effective outdoor leader, your forte must lie in your ability to effectively solve many problems and frequently make accurate decisions in these uncommon situations. Such effectiveness and accuracy will always depend on sound judgment.

COMPETENCY FRAMEWORK

The following competency framework is presented in a rubric-like manner and describes different levels of professional behavior achieved by outdoor leaders. This framework can be used as a self-examination tool to evaluate one's own competence, or it can be adapted for motivating vocational enhancement for staff.

An **emergent** adventure professional possesses basic knowledge of the procedures, models,

and practices in the field. A **proficient** leader can demonstrate and apply procedures, models, and best practices expected at the “standard of care” in current field practices. **Exemplary** leaders use the very best elements in the field with consistency, clarity, and the best-known expression of effectiveness for clients; they are strategic in using their practices and are effective in achieving client outcomes.

Outdoor Leadership Competency Framework

	OUTDOOR LEADER IDENTIFIED AS...		
	Emergent	Proficient	Exemplary
OVERALL	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Supports senior-level outdoor leaders in adventure programming protocols Follows established written protocols and procedures Possesses presite experience in the programming area Ensures participants always have access to appropriate equipment, nutrition, and hygiene resources for environment 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Is aware of latest developments of professional practice in adventure programming Ensures consistency between written protocols and actual procedures Possesses the potential to supervise other outdoor leaders 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Uses learning opportunities from clients to advance the field in new and innovative ways Contributes to writing original protocols and procedures Seeks innovative ways to lead outdoor experiences and shares results with other professionals
FOUNDATIONS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> EVIDENCE: Understands the critical core competency formula of outdoor leadership based on data PHILOSOPHY: Understands the definitions of key terms, adventure benefits, and philosophical questions SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY: Understands flow, optimal arousal, and challenge (risk-competence interaction) and how they combine to explain adventurous behaviors HISTORY: Understands a national history of adventure programming and outdoor leadership in relations among people and places TRENDS AND ISSUES: Understands and self-reflects on the trends that currently influence the outdoor leadership profession and identifies several countries that recapitulate a sequence of birth, growth, plateau, and decline in adventure programming 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> EVIDENCE: Understands a recipe for developing outdoor leaders derived from research PHILOSOPHY: Understands adventurous experiential learning and its composite elements SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY: Understands the basis of human motivation, expectancy, self-efficacy, attribution, and competence effectance and how they interact to guide client behaviors in adventure experiences HISTORY: Understands an international history of adventure programming and outdoor leadership in comparative countries TRENDS AND ISSUES: Understands and discusses with colleagues the controversial issues in adventure programming that have been settled and those that remain current and addresses the new concerns related to outdoor leadership 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> EVIDENCE: Enables further research through direct collaboration or indirect support PHILOSOPHY: Applies the principles of adventurous experiential learning to client programs and trips SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY: Assists clients with interpreting their fears, adventures, risk, and competence to make choices in adventure that lead to learning, growth, and change HISTORY: Understands the past as a powerful predictor of the future and in relation to the global trends and issues or current controversies TRENDS AND ISSUES: Contributes to professional dialogues regarding trends and issues that result in action to make a difference; identifies previously undetected trends or issues and comments on their potential impacts on adventure programming and outdoor leadership

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TECHNICAL ACTIVITIES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Understands the interactions of generic and specific competencies regardless of activity being led Possesses more than 50% of the generic competencies and all specific competencies for at least two activities Continually seeks to gain technical competencies in other activities Is practicing at least one new activity Matches minimum qualifications for those technical activities being led 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Adjusts competencies based on geographic locations, client populations, program goals, and environmental conditions Possesses more than 75% of the generic competencies and all specific competencies for at least four activities Aids other leaders to gain technical competencies for one activity Exceeds minimum qualifications for those technical activities being led Matches instructor criteria for training others in particular technical activities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Evolves competencies based on experience rather than standards Possesses 100% of the generic competencies and all the specific competencies for at least six activities Aids other leaders to gain technical competencies for several activities Proactively upgrades competencies Exceeds instructor criteria for training others in particular technical activities
SAFETY AND RISK MANAGEMENT	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Understands the importance of risk as essential to adventure experience Differentiates among real and perceived risks, dangers, hazards, and perils Understands how accidents happen and when to avoid, reduce, transfer, or retain risks in relation to potential accident frequency and severity Responds to accidents with first aid, search and rescue, evacuation, etc. Understands the concepts behind legal liability and how to defend the program and its leadership staff Ensures every participant completes and signs all legal and medical risk management paperwork Understands the great importance of insurance and the types of coverage 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Analyzes dangers and avoids inhibiting factors in the field Applies risk management countermeasures to the program before, during, and after possible accidents Modifies policies and procedures when needed for risk management Leads accident-simulation training Responds to crisis accidents by seeking assistance from program resources outside the client group Conducts program-wide risk management reviews Double-checks and summarizes for privacy all legal and medical risk management paperwork 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Trains staff and other professionals on risk management procedures Oversees the updating of risk management practices Presents risk management concepts in professional training situations Fosters and takes part in staff exchanges to ensure objective perspectives of risk management Responds to crisis accidents by coordinating internal program resources and securing assistance from outside public or government agencies Triple-checks legal and medical risk management paperwork
ENVIRONMENT	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Follows generalized Leave No Trace (LNT) practices to protect local environment Prepares, travels, and camps with minimal impact to local environment Understands the competing and balancing needs of sustainability Understands the role of interpretive guide to nature, environment, culture, history, and other local heritage 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Applies and adapts LNT practices to suit specific settings and protects environment outside the local sphere Prepares, travels, and camps with minimal impact to global environment Understands and fully supports the need for sustainability in programs, activities, and field experiences Interprets local heritage to clients and encourages appreciation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Modifies and promotes LNT practices to protect the global environment and helps to change client local behaviors Prepares, travels, and camps with minimal impact to global environment Acts to maintain and promote sustainability in programs, activities, and field experiences Interprets local heritage, leading to change in environmental behaviors
ORGANIZATION	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Understands the six stages of trip organization and the 14 steps to trip planning Knows the procedures for traveling, camping, and dealing with difficult conditions Comprehends the roles of technology and social media in trip organization Understands and has a personal stance on the controversial inclusion of technology in wilderness settings 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Conducts trip planning with double-checks after each of the 14 steps and triple-checks everything at the end Reserves permits, campsites, equipment rentals, transportation, communications, and more Utilizes technology to accomplish organizational tasks 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Drafts full trip plan that addresses common risk management concerns Supervises trip planning and reservations by others Helps other leaders correctly use technology for organizational tasks

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	Emergent	Proficient	Exemplary
INSTRUCTION	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Applies at least two instructional combinations to teach an individual toward intended learning objectives by staying mostly on lesson plan • Understands how humans learn and the eight steps from experience through memory to modification and repetition • Understands how best to teach people and the three phases for before, during, and after a learning experience • Differentiates among the seven combinations of instruction • Identifies myths related to teaching to suit learning styles and percentages associated with information retention 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Applies at least four instructional combinations to teach a small group and supports client members as individual learners • Adapts learning to the cultural perspectives of clients • Uses the learning gradient to teach physical skills and a series of recall, process, and application questions to confirm learning • Designs effective lessons from planning and writing objectives through instructional delivery to ongoing Socratic questioning 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Applies at least six out of seven instructional combinations to teach a large group and individualizes learning for each client member • Encases entire adventure experience in one that is culturally relevant for the client • Seamlessly transfers learning and teaching responsibilities to the clients • Serves as a teaching mentor for other leaders and a resource for staff • Models lesson planning, goal setting, or objective writing for other leaders
FACILITATION	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Understands the value of facilitation, the importance of three levels of learning transfer, and the role of facilitation in the four program fields (recreation, education, development, and therapy) • Applies nonverbal alternatives to discussion • Observes behavior and formulates questions around observations 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Differentiates among the three levels of facilitation techniques (basic to change thinking, intermediate to change behavior, and advanced to change resistance to clinical change) • Frames activities with fantasy and/or reality introductions • Emphasizes transfer (by metaphor) to integrate learning into clients' lives 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Holds expertise in the therapeutic use of metaphor, isomorphism, solution-focused facilitation, addressing resistance, paradox, double bind, and proactive reframing • Frames activities with contextual and/or isomorphic introductions • Encourages self-reflection and continuation strategies for clients
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • RECREATION: No facilitation (not necessary; activities are inherently enjoyable and will change feelings) • EDUCATION: Understands basic skills (fundamentals and funneling) • DEVELOPMENT: Understands intermediate skills; understands and does basic skills • THERAPY: Understands advanced skills; understands and does intermediate skills; understands, does, and evolves basic skills 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • RECREATION: No facilitation • EDUCATION: Understands intermediate skills (frontloading and freeing); understands and does basic skills • DEVELOPMENT: Understands advanced skills; understands and does intermediate skills; understands, does, and evolves basic skills • THERAPY: Understands and does advanced skills; understands, does, and evolves basic and intermediate skills 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • RECREATION: No facilitation • EDUCATION: Understands advanced skills (focusing and fortifying); understands and does intermediate skills; understands, does, and evolves basic skills • DEVELOPMENT: Understands and does advanced skills; understands, does, and evolves basic and intermediate skills • THERAPY: Understands, does, and evolves basic, intermediate, and advanced skills
ETHICS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Examines ethical situations from a singular perspective (principles, values, or feminism) • Knows own nonnegotiables, belief systems, and professional standards • Follows established ethical standards • Practices resolving ethical dilemma scenarios and hypotheticals • Acts ethically and professionally with clients before, during, and after the program 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Considers ethical situations from a combination of three perspectives (principles, values, and/or feminism) • Evolves a personal set of ethics that are openly shared with other leaders • Reasons morally through intuition, option listing, and ethical rules to resolve an actual ethical dilemma • Speaks up on ethical program issues, especially where client and environmental care are concerned 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Scrutinizes ethical situations from multiple perspectives (principles, values, and feminism) • Reasons morally through ethical principles (nonmaleficence, autonomy, beneficence, fidelity, and justice) and ethical theories (universalizability and balancing) to resolve an actual dilemma • Contributes to professional ethics discussions and walks the talk

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LEADERSHIP STYLE	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Demonstrates the expression of a single leadership style (autocratic, democratic, or abdibratic) • Appreciates the need to flex toward the other two leadership styles • Understands leadership power and how these five (referent, legitimate, expert, reward, and coercive) relate to leadership styles and extremes • Knows how concerns for task, relationships, and conditional favorability influence expressed style • Identifies client behaviors associated with each of the group development stages (forming, storming, norming, performing, and adjourning) • Understands the associations among leadership styles and stages of group development regarding task and relationship dimensions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Demonstrates the expression of two clearly distinct leadership styles (autocratic, democratic, or abdibratic) • Appreciates the need to flex toward the other leadership style • Applies leadership strategies to working with client groups in the five identified stages of development • Comprehends the complex factors impacting group dynamics 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Demonstrates the expression of three clearly distinct leadership styles (autocratic, democratic, and abdibratic) • Appreciates the need to flex among all three leadership styles based on circumstances • Matches leadership style correctly to clients' group-development stages
COMMUNICATION	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Understands theories and practices behind effective communication, active listening, and feedback • Understands the communication fundamentals of public speaking, instructing lessons, facilitating change, and resolving conflict 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is adept at communicating with and listening and providing feedback to others • Personalizes messages before communicating with others to gain greater acceptance and transference of the message • Is a capable and confident public speaker when instructing and facilitating • Successfully resolves conflicts between two individuals 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Helps others improve their communication, listening, and feedback • Successfully resolves conflicts among several group factions
PROBLEM SOLVING	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Understands the differences and connections among problem solving, decision making, and judgment • Solves problems following an analytical sequence of steps 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Distinguishes between problem solving, decision making, and judgment in practice • Solves problems following a multiphasic approach by blending analytical and creative methods • Demonstrates the correct use of long (complex) and short (simple) forms of a multiphasic problem-solving model • Avoids or identifies and resolves common breakdowns in the problem-solving process 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teaches the unique qualities and special identifiers of problem solving, decision making, and judgment • Solves problems instinctively by blending multiphasic approach with intuitive judgment and naturalistic decision making

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	Emergent	Proficient	Exemplary
DECISION MAKING	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Applies creative techniques to diverge options and discriminate techniques to converge options to reach the best decision either quantitatively or qualitatively • Understands how different leadership styles best suit the timing of decision making (abdicatoric with ample time for group development, autocratic during urgencies, and democratic when both extremes are balanced) • Differentiates between major and minor consequences of decisions • Demonstrates two closely associated decision-making approaches (directive-expert, consultative-shared, or consensual-unanimous) • Is aware of the negative influence that bias may have on decisions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Makes decisions habitually by relying on heuristically driven judgment and multiphasic problem solving • Does not hesitate or delay when faced with making decisions • Demonstrates four closely associated decision-making approaches (directive-expert, consultative-shared, and consensual-unanimous) • Is able to avoid a minority share (less than 25) of the 50 most common biases in decision making 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Makes decisions naturally, blending well with multiphasic problem solving and intuitive judgment • Demonstrates all six closely associated decision-making approaches (directive-expert, consultative-shared, and consensual-unanimous) • Is able to avoid a majority share (more than 25) of the 50 most common biases in decision making
SOUND JUDGMENT	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Possesses sound judgment founded on a gathered database of intensive and extensive experiences • Understands the judgment-related theories behind learning, memory, brain function, reflection, refraction, and heuristics • Understands in detail each of the dozen most common heuristics and how they interact with judgment • Differentiates between heuristically driven and intuitively driven judgment 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Draws from database of experience by consciously using heuristics as shortcuts to reach sound judgments • Applies the FACETS heuristics in the field to manage risks • Is consciously aware of using the remaining seven heuristics (availability, similarity, representativeness, simulation, anchoring with adjustment, recognition, and zero sum) to make sound judgments 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Draws from database of experience by unconsciously using intuition as gut feeling to reach sound judgments • Tunes in and listens to intuition and balances intuition with applied heuristics
RESEARCH	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is familiar with research findings that indicate preferred practices and/or professional performance standards • Knows where to go to find current developments in the profession external to program practices • Knows how to differentiate between scholarly research findings and weaker studies possessing flawed methods, invalid assumptions, and/or faulty conclusions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Actively assists with the pursuit and gathering of new information for professional development • Continues to implement and share new research findings to improve programming and enhance staff knowledge • Tailors research findings to suit clients, environment, activities, program, leadership, and other professional practices 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Contributes to research studies that examine professional practices • Provides feedback to researchers on the application of new professional practices from past research • Establishes solid partnerships with researchers to provide support to the research process and outcomes • Presents new research questions to and works jointly with researchers to find new answers to practice questions from and for the profession